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INTEGRATED COURSE OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES
(Collection of materials for the third year students)

Part I

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**INTEGRATED COURSE OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES /
Тузувчилар /Турсунова Гулчехра Норбобоевна/ Полвонова Махзуна Фархадовна**

Ушбу ўқув услубий қўлланма инглиз тилини ўқитиш усулларини ўрганаётганлар учун мўлжалланган бўлиб унда ҳозирги замон инглиз тилини ўқитиш ва ўргатишнинг мавжуд методикаси ва муаммолари, улар билан боғлиқ назарий ва амалий маълумотлар машқ ва мисоллар асосида берилган.

**Ўзбекистон давлат жаҳон тиллари университети
инглиз тили 2-факультети
16- декабр 5 - баённомасида тасдиқланган**

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Foreword

Integrated course of teaching foreign languages

The **Integrated course of teaching foreign languages** is an introductory course for students who have little or no previous English Language teaching experience. It may also be suitable for candidates with some experience but little previous training. This course provides an introduction to language teaching methodology which explores language teaching methods and recent methodological innovations. This course invites students into classroom to see teaching methods in action. They are also encouraged to reflect on their own beliefs and to develop their own approach to language teaching. The Module addresses to both the theoretical concerns regarding foreign language teaching in terms of 5 modules as classroom language, teaching and integrating language skills, classroom investigation1, materials evaluation and design, planning for teaching and learning, and practical issues novice instructors face in the language classroom. Emphasis is paid to lesson planning and setting clear and precious objectives, interaction patterns, teaching multilevel classes, making case studies based on practical issues of EFL methodology.

Module 1

Classroom language

Module 1 Classroom language

§1. Introduction to the course

When teaching a second language, the goal of a teacher is to use as much of the target language as possible. When reviewing a day in the classroom, one of the most frequent ways that language is used is in the daily routines; these are referred to as classroom language. Teachers can take the opportunity of these daily routines to maximize their target language use and promote its use by students. This module will describe how classroom language can be used and what some tips are for teachers when employing classroom language.

Syllabus of the course

Aim

To provide students with guidance and assistance in using English effectively as a medium of communication in the classroom

Objectives

By the end of the course students will

- get practice in the language skills specific to language teachers;
- be able to use English as a means of instruction, elicitation, and class organization to promote a meaningful language practice;
- have a basis for deciding on the use of the target language and the mother tongue in class;
- practice the appropriate use of body language and voice projection.

Indicative content:

Introduction to and overview of the course

Teacher's physical presence in class

Body language

Voice

Classroom Language

Creating an English environment

The language of the classroom

Questioning

Giving instructions

Giving oral feedback

The use of the mother tongue

Approaches to teaching and learning

- Task-based practical work
- Discussion of key issues
- Reading assigned readings
- Self-study
- Structured reflection as a learner and future teacher
- Case studies
- Observations
- Micro-teaching

Learning outcomes:

By the end of Year 3 students should have

- a practical understanding of the importance of social, personal and organizational issues of classroom language
- developed a range of teaching skills including questioning, eliciting, giving instructions, etc., to promote communication in the classroom
- developed an ability to critically analyze different samples of classroom language

Assessment profile

Continuous and Mid-course Assessment	70%
Observation based-report Participation Reflection on micro-teaching	30% 20% 20%
Final Assessment Micro-teaching	30%

Interaction between teacher and students is an essential part of teaching learning process. Classroom interaction encompasses the communication exchanges between the teacher and the students (and among students themselves) together with all the strategies used by the teacher to:

- facilitate comprehension;

- gather and maintain students' attention and involvement in the activities;

- encourage and ensure the participation of all students;

- provide feedback, deal with disruptive behaviour;

What is classroom language?

Classroom language is the routine language that is used on a regular basis in classroom like giving instructions of praise, for example "Take out your books" or "Please sit down". This is language that teachers are used to using and students are used to hearing, but when teaching a language it takes a while to learn this part of the language. Knowing these language basics reduces the amount that students are forced to use their mother tongue and increases the amount of the target language they are using; it makes the language classroom environment more authentic.

Why can teaching classroom language pose a challenge?

Teachers often experience difficulties when trying to integrate classroom language into a lesson. The difficulty often lies in that many second language teachers learned the language themselves after childhood, so are not exposed to authentic classroom language. Those teachers must make a particular effort to seek out what the correct language is in order to create the most authentic experience for the students. Students often encounter difficulties when the form in the target language does not make sense in their mother tongue; students must learn to accept that different languages work in different ways.

Classroom language is that collection of phrases used for communication among teacher and students, from "Open your books to page fifteen" to "May I go to the bathroom?" While emphasis is usually placed primarily on the target

language, classroom language, too, can be an invaluable way of promoting English as real communication, student involvement in the lesson, and active language learning skills. This part will show how an activity can be modified to encourage the four different kinds of classroom language (requests, choices, leadership, and manners and values).

1. Practical Purpose for Students: Enabling Students to Get Things Done

Students can be encouraged to use classroom language independently under two conditions: it helps them to express themselves or have their needs and wishes met, and the lesson structure enables them to make decisions and requests. Below are some examples of lesson structures and the classroom language they enable.

A.   Requests

This is perhaps the most familiar condition, in which students use expressions such as "How do you spell ____?" or "Can you repeat that?" to express their needs to the teacher. Through activities such as TPR, this can be expanded beyond the lesson to other areas, such as room conditions ("I'm hot. Can I open the window?") and restroom needs.

B.   Choices

Given a coloring worksheet with, for example, numbered items of clothing, rather than dictating what students should do, teachers can create opportunities for students to make choices and even tell other students what to do. In this case, a student might say, "Let's color the . . . pants . . . um, pink!", or, at a more basic level, simply say the elements, "Number 6, pants, pink!"

C.   Leadership

Once students get accustomed to an activity, a student rather than the teacher can be in charge, whether as caller for bingo or slap, or as roll taker.

 D. Manners and Values

Although this involves set expressions ("Thank you," "You're welcome," "I'm sorry," "That's okay"), it is also important to respect feelings and express appreciation.

For an example of how an activity can be modified to incorporate these four types of classroom language, see Encouraging Classroom Language Use.

2. Selection of Expressions: Few, Frequent, and Systematic

I've worked mostly with students in their first or second year of English study from ages 4 to 9, who came for weekly, hour-long lessons. The most frequently used phrase is "please," and one reason is that students need to ask for everything: worksheets, game pieces, crafts supplies, the next item for bingo or slap, permission to wash their hands. Next is "What is it?" I used to teach "I don't know," but some students, particularly those with low self-confidence, tended to use it all the time to avoid answering. "What is it?", on the other hand, allowed students to ask for help, and in reply I would give the answer, provide hints, or invite the other students to help. The student in question would then be able to give the answer with confidence.

Two other well use phrases are "What's next?" and "Again, please." Both are used during activities such as dictation or bingo, when students must request the next item and ask me to repeat when they can't understand.

3. Reinforcement: Non-verbal Prompts

Key to any teaching strategy is how the language is reinforced after the initial introduction and practice. A problem with verbal prompts is that they easily become "feeds," where the prompter may unconsciously give away the language to the student. Students can quickly figure out that eventually the teacher will feed them the desired answer, and will come to depend on the teacher rather than try to remember the language themselves.

Non-verbal prompts can help remind students what expression the situation calls for or recall the language, while also building student confidence and the spirit of helping each other. Below are some forms of non-verbal prompts.

A. Visual Prompts

Pictures illustrating situations such as "I'm sorry" can be reviewed regularly and posted. When needed, the teacher can point to them or hold them up.

B. Reading Prompts

Students comfortable with reading can have a list of useful phrases which can be posted and/or glued to the inside cover of their textbooks. I've posted numbered lists with large letters, and have sometimes held up fingers to indicate the number of the expression they should be using.

C. Gesture Prompts

Shrugging can indicate "I don't know," and outstretched hand "please," a hand cupping the ear "Can you repeat that?", and so on. (Gesture prompts are used in Part 2.)

D. Pronunciation Prompts

Especially in classes paying close attention to pronunciation and phonics, such as those using the "Finding Out" series, I've sometimes mouthed the expression, and let students deduce the sounds.

E. Clue Prompts

Rather than the entire phrase, just the first word or first sound can be given, or blanks can be written on the board with the first letter of each word. This takes a little time, so I've usually used it in situations where the phrase will be used several times, such as reminding students of "What's next?" during a game.

We should be careful to distinguish between meaning reinforcement and usage reinforcement. Meaning may be reinforced, say, when a new term is being introduced or when students are unable, even as a class, to remember what something means. Thus, in introducing the command, "Open your books," you might actually open a book, or use your hands to mime opening a book, to help students comprehend the message through visual as well as audio input.

In usage reinforcement, students already know the meaning, but need to be reminded to use it or of how to say it correctly. Thus, the (silent) open hand gesture reminds students there is a term to be used to request getting what they want, but there is no clue as to what that term is.

Meaning reinforcement should be used only after the students as a class have shown they don't understand the expression. Otherwise, they will respond to the on-verbal cues rather than to the language itself. In other words, they will be "listening" to the gesture of opening the book rather than to your words, "Open your books."

In summary, the immediate practicality and frequency of use of classroom language helps students appreciate English as real communication and develop their confidence, in both their English abilities and in themselves as active individuals by enabling them to use it to get things done. Through the frequent and systematic use of a selected list of words and expressions, reinforced with a variety of non-verbal prompts, teachers can help students to master and enjoy using classroom language. This is not to imply that the target language is unimportant, but simply to highlight the rich possibilities for learning and even mastery that are offered by classroom language.

§2. Teacher's physical presence in class: *Body language*

Imagine being a teacher and act by the instruction given in Task 1and answer following questions:

~ *Describe the teacher's physical presence and compare them.*

~ *What do you think what part of teaching these behaviors belong to?*

Task 1.

Student A

Come into the room. Sit down. Say "hey" "you" pointing with your hand and ask about last hometask. Say "so today's theme is "culture"". Say "culture is how to say….ummm" fiddle with your fingers, don't look at the eyes of the students.

✂---

Student B

Come into the room. Greet with students. Say " you looked very nice today", let's begin today's lesson", Aziza will you say today's date, ok, Komil what was given as an hometask, ok, good". Stand up from your place and check hometasks, explain the mistakes with eye contact and praise for good works with tapping on their shoulders.

✂ ---

➢ **The following behaviors belong to classroom language**

- Body language
- Voice
- Creating an English environment
- The language of the classroom
- Questioning
- Giving instruction
- Giving oral feedback
- The use of L1

Task 2. Observation form

Watch the video and fill in the observation form.

Observation form

Topic:_____
Audience :_____

Elements of Trainer's presence	Body parts' movings	voice	Classroom language	question ning	Giving instructio ns	Giving feedback	The use of L1
Inapprop riate							
Appropri ate							
Comment s/ Suggestio ns							

Home assignment, Handout 3.

1) Please read the article by Kerra Maddern "<u>How to develop teacher presence and command attention in class</u>" and write your reflections on the role of teacher's presence in the effective classroom.
2) Reminisce your past education years and match with the teacher's presence following article(write your findings)

Review report

For this review report you will write a review report (minimum 300 words) focusing on the teacher's presence in the effective classroom background of the article. In your report include the following points:

- What did you read (title, author)?

- Brief summary of the plot.

- Identify the main features of teacher's presence from the article and give

  evidences.

<u>How to develop teacher presence and command attention in class</u>

<u>Kerra Maddern</u>

Whatever their personal style, all teachers are performers and the classroom is their stage. But success can depend on the kind of show they put on

Why do some teachers struggle to control a class while others manage to get a lesson flowing seamlessly with apparently little effort?

It could simply be down to the "presence" they have in the classroom. This is a vague term, but learning how to have presence, or build on what you already possess, could create a more harmonious and effective classroom and strengthen your relationship with your pupils. Broadly, the word means being able to use your personality and body to command attention.

Teachers are not actors and developing more presence is not about trying to transform yourself into a Hollywood star. But, as public speakers and communicators, they will be more successful if pupils find their lessons memorable and they have good interpersonal skills.

Being in the spotlight can be frightening and nerves make us behave differently. Developing presence can help to prevent paralysing symptoms such as

breathlessness or a dry mouth. Those who already have it are often more aware of the impact of their body language and use gestures, or even a glance, to create the effect they want.

Developing teacher presence

Anyone can learn these skills, according to Mark Almond, a senior lecturer at Canterbury Christ Church University who trains teachers in the art of creating presence. But not everybody gets the chance.

"Some educators blanch at the idea that teacher presence should be included in training, as it is such a vague term," he says. "But I believe this is an area teachers want to be trained in. They think their existing training lacks how to develop interpersonal skills, how to create your own identity and connect with pupils."

Some actors use the Alexander technique to relax – gently realigning the body, breathing from deep in the lungs and using the body economically. This can also be useful for teachers who struggle to relax.

"You may be feeling awful at having to walk into a classroom of 15-year-olds, but if you display your anxieties to that class, you will have problems," Mr Almond says. "Walk in to the room slowly with your posture straight, chin up, make eye contact and speak to your pupils in a clear and audible voice."

Looking physically confident will help to create presence. A good posture makes a person look strong and commanding. Keep your head still when you talk, and speak slowly.

Guy Michaels, an actor-turned-teacher who now runs courses for the Royal Academy of Dramatic Art (RADA) on how to create classroom presence, says: "Nerves can prevent teachers from communicating effectively. Many teachers will explain a task, then explain it again, using a different set of words. This confuses the class and any clarity is gone. You are not allowing the idea to sink in."

Teachers should grow comfortable with using stillness and silence as part of their repertoire. "Many teachers say 'I'm not a performer', but they have an audience of 30 people waiting to be entertained," says Mr Michaels.

"Teachers often work to rigid lessons, they are obsessed with planning, and there is a danger they can lose their flexibility. They should listen and improvise, be excited and infectious."

Masking your anxieties

So how do you mask your nerves and transform unhelpful body language? The first step is to get rid of any signs of tension. And the way you breathe is a key factor.

"If you can't take deep breaths, you can't speak with authority and resonance. It's a waste of energy and affects where your breath comes from," Mr Michaels says.

"Children pick up on signals of fear. The first thing you have to do is understand your fight or flight response – what happens when your body releases adrenalin. It gives you a low status. These are physical signs like fidgeting, a stooped head and sweaty palms."

But how do you avoid them? He advises teachers to "stand as tall as you can be. It gives you an anchoring and this helps to keep you grounded and calm.

"Scale your physical presence up or down. Use gestures to punctuate what you are saying and move around in the space if you want a big presence. This helps you appear to be a strong, confident teacher."

Many of our nervous physical ticks can be unconscious. A good way to start tackling them is to ask a trusted colleague to observe you and give their candid thoughts on your body language and other physical traits. Or try video-recording yourself. It is incredible how much the small screen amplifies even the slightest movement.

Pause for thought

Another tip is simply to pause. This allows you to organise your thoughts, so you can avoid repeating yourself, and makes you appear calm and in control.

Observe others in authority who appear to have an inbuilt confidence. Why are they watchable; what are they doing right?

People with charisma use their body effectively. Eye contact is one of the most important weapons in a teacher's arsenal.

Try this simple physical test: ask your pupils to face you and put their arms up. They should then begin slowly lowering them until you make eye contact. Each time you do, they must freeze. The aim is to make sure that no pupil ends up with their hands in their laps.

Eye contact can help vary the pace and energy of a lesson. "If you want a different effect, stay still and cast a net around the room with your eyes," Mr Michaels adds. This will help to give you an aura of authority – and make them take notice of you.

Using the space of the classroom differently can also vary the dynamics of the lesson. Try teaching from a different area, at a different height or even sitting on a desk with pupils.

Presence means you can set the tone in your classroom.

You as the storyteller

Think of yourself as a storyteller, conveying a secret through your teaching. Vary your language: use active verbs to create excitement and an emotional response. Create anticipation or intrigue with props or timing, letting each activity be revealed one at a time.

Appear energetic and eager to talk about your subject. It might be the thousandth time you have taught a topic, but behave as if you are enjoying yourself. Enthusiasm is contagious.

Adjust the tone and volume of your voice to convey emotion and alter the pace of the lesson.

Teachers are not actors but some theatrics can create a buzz. Why not use over-the-top gestures from time to time, to express delight, mock boredom or surprise? Such charades – pretending to snore, feigning a heart attack (when appropriate) – can amuse and engage pupils.

Having presence also means that you are confident enough to be spontaneous and improvise. This creates a vibrant lesson and can create energy if it starts to lag; it also means that you can respond swiftly if pupils become disruptive.

According to Rob Salter, a London teacher who trains his peers in how to create presence, US president Barack Obama is a perfect example of someone who already knows how to harness his charm.

"He shows how being still and pitching his voice lower…and from the diaphragm, gives an air of authority," he says.

"Presence is as much about how you perceive yourself. Cultivate it. You should set the tone and get children to buy into your vision.

"Have a part of the classroom which is the equivalent of the front of a stage. Use it when you need to get the focus back on you – for example, if the noise levels go up. This gives you an aura. Use different spaces to create different energies."

The message is simple. By controlling the atmosphere of the lesson, you are showing pupils how to behave.

Exercises you can practise at home

Tips from courses run by RADA, the National Theatre, Rob Salter and Mark Almond.

Voice

- Breathe in and hold for three seconds. As you breathe out, project your voice and say the days of the week; then try the months; then the alphabet. This helps you to speak from the chest, not from the back of the throat.

- To seem authoritative, practise your breathing to find your "home note" – your own distinctive voice – from your chest.

Physicality

- Stand in a grounded way. To find your "centre", stand with feet apart and bend your knees slightly.

- Lengthen your spine. Stand as if your head is being pulled up by a string. Hunching reduces your capacity to breathe properly.

- Release tension by swinging your arms from your shoulders. You can extend this to "shake out" your whole body.

- To calm breathing, raise your arms slowly as you breathe in, and bring them down again while exhaling and making a "ssshh" sound.

- To check you are breathing from your diaphragm, try stamping your foot while shouting "ha" as you breathe out.

- Imagine you are blowing up a balloon with a long, slow, outward breath through the mouth until there is no air left in your lungs. Then, on the in breath, through the nose, imagine you are smelling a bunch of flowers.

- Think about eye contact – aim to look open and receptive. Make eye contact with your pupils, even if you are shy.

- Scale your physical presence up or down.

- Use gestures to punctuate what you say and move around in the space if you want to create a bigger presence. This helps you to appear strong and confident.

- To create an aura around yourself, stay still and cast a net around the room with your eyes.

- To bring your energy into the room, stand with your feet planted and say "I am here", taking one step with each word. Tread firmly on the floor and say the words out loud.

Varied use of space
- Teach from the back of the classroom.

- Kneel or crouch down between desks or at the front of the room.

- Sit at a desk, on the floor or on a chair or table.

- Try entering the pupils' physical space; sit next to them, lean on their desks, walk slowly between desks.

Adopt a relaxed and positive facial expression
- Give yourself a facial massage, concentrating on your forehead, cheeks and jaw.

- Practise relaxing and using your facial muscles by widening eyes, puffing out cheeks, stretching your mouth into different shapes and flexing your chin. Now scrunch up your face as tightly as possible.

- Move your eyebrows up and down. Try to move one at a time.
- Break into a big grin with wide eyes.

Top tips for trainee teachers: use your body language to control the classroom

Theatrical facial expressions, moving around the classroom, carefully-planned eye contact; you need to control your body language if you want to control your students.

Recommended Literatures
1. Penny Ur. A Course in Language Teaching- Practice and Theory, Cambridge University Press, 1992.
2. Kerra Maddern "How to develop teacher presence and command attention in class"

§3. Teacher's physical presence in class: *Body language and voice*

Brainstorm on the non-verbal communication/body language items using tasks **1 A and B.** and the following questions:

~ *Do you know the difference between verbal and non –verbal language characteristics?*

~ *What items you can include to the non-verbal communication?(use tasks 1a and b)*

1 a. Assertive Verbal and Nonverbal Characteristics

Verbal	**Non-Verbal**

Task 1 B. Brainstorm on a non-verbal communication/body language items.

Non-verbal communication / body language
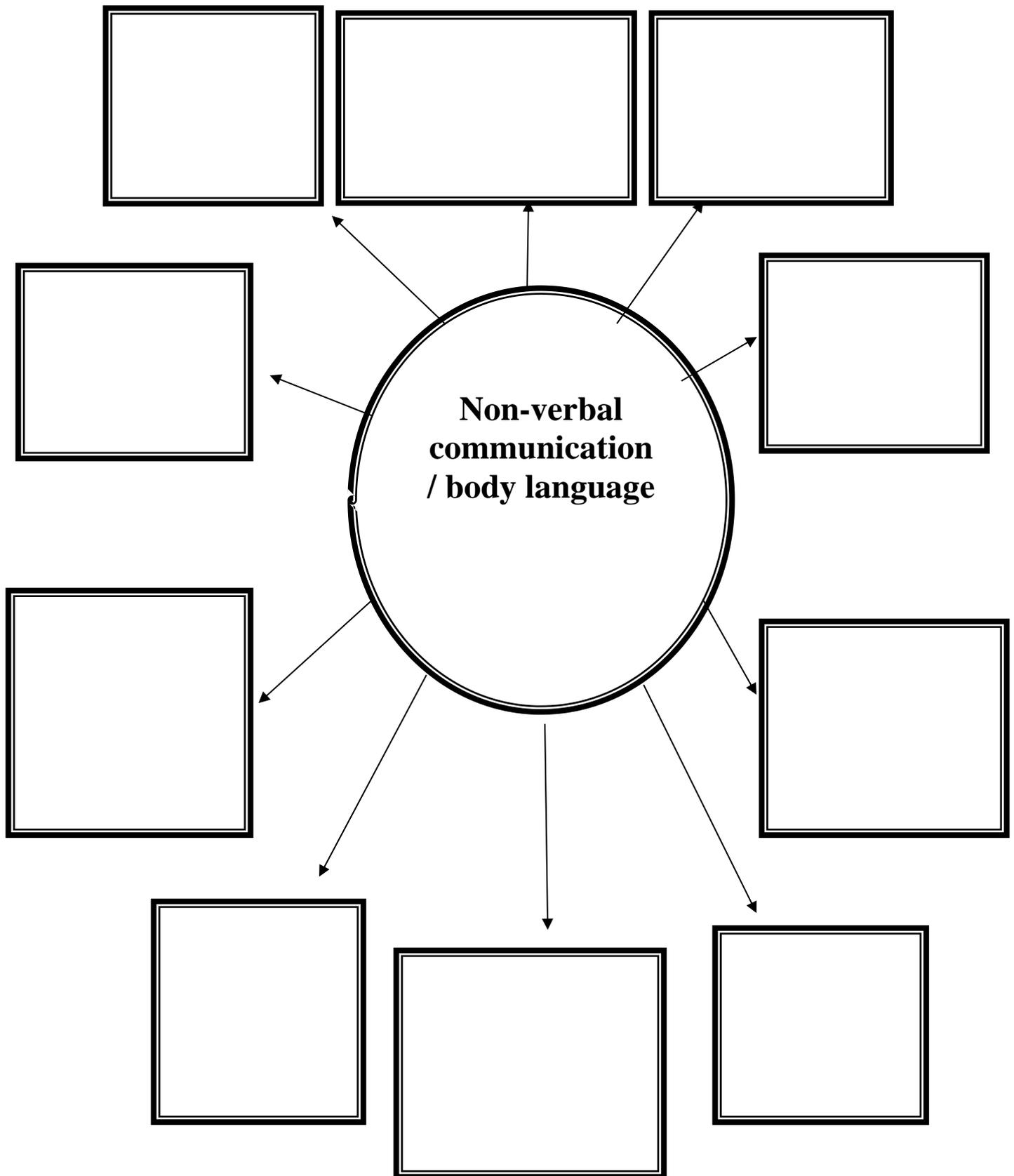
Body language plays a key role, especially at the subconscious level, in communication and an awareness of it and how it can vary from culture to culture, can be particularly important in helping students to develop their ability to understand in a real environment. Body language is made up of a whole range of features many of which we combine together without ever thinking about what it is we are doing or what we are expressing.

Task 2. The features of body language

> ➢ **Give possible features for the body language and fill the chart.**

Body language	Features
Eye contact	
Facial expression	
Proximity	
Posture	
Gesture	

Task 3. Read the text on the use of voice and answer following questions:

    ~ *What might happen if teachers do not use their voice effectively in terms of audibility, variety or conservation?*

    ~ *Can you give any good or bad examples of teachers' use of voice whose lessons you attended without mentioning their names in order to sound polite and respectful?*

How Should Teachers Use Their Voices in Class?

Perhaps the teacher's most important instrument is the voice. How we speak and what our voice sounds like have a crucial impact on classes. When considering the

use of the voice in the management of teaching there are three issues to think about.

Audibility: clearly, teachers need to be audible. They must be sure that the students at the back of the class can hear them just as well as those at the front. But audibility cannot be divorced from voice quality: a rasping shout is always unpleasant.

Teachers do not have to shout to be audible. In fact, in most classrooms, there is a danger of the teacher's voice being too loud. Good teachers try to get this balance between audibility and volume just right.

Variety: it is important to vary the quality of their voices – and the volume they speak at – depending on the type of lesson and the type of activity. So the kind of voice you use to give the instructions or introduce a new activity will be different from the voice which is most appropriate for conversation or an informal exchange of views or information.

In one particular situation, teachers often use very loud voices, and that is when they want students to be quiet or stop doing something. But it is worth pointing out that speaking quietly is often just as effective a way of getting the students' attention since, when they realize that you are talking, they will want to stop and listen in case you are saying something important or interesting. However, for teachers who almost never raise their voices, the occasional shouted interjection may have an extremely dramatic effect, and this can sometimes be beneficial.

Conservation: just like opera singers, teachers have to take great care of their voices. It is important that they breathe correctly from the diaphragm so that they don't strain their larynxes. It is important that they can conserve their vocal energy. Conserving the voice is one thing teachers will want to take into account when planning a day's or a week's work.

(taken from J.Harmer "How to Teach English")

Task 4. Voice projection

It is not easy to speak loudly and clearly to a large or noisy class without distorting the sounds of the language and the natural intonation patterns. Now in this activity you will practice projecting your voices retaining natural stress and intonation patters.

- Stand in front of each other. The distance between you should be one step.
- Start reading the teacher's part of first dialogue to their partners, loudly so that their partner can hear, but at the same time as natural as possible.
- Your partners should listen critically and tell the problematic things they have noticed.
- Now change roles and act out dialogue 2. Now the distance between you should be two steps.

Dialogues
At School

(This classroom has desks that cannot be moved. The class has not done any group work before)

T: Now, to do this, I want you in groups. In sixes, please, groups of six. So, look, you three turn round, so that you can talk to the three behind you.

Ss: Please, er…what?...?

T: Look, turn round, so that you can see Ali, Ravshan and Nargiza.

Ss: OK.

T: Good. That's right. Now everyone else the same! All of you make groups like this one. You, six; you six, and you over there, together. Turn right round. That's it, well done.

Ss: Please, not six…only four.

T: Oh, there are only four of you, I see. Well, four is fine, it doesn't matter.

At College

(The class is not yet used to pair work. They have just practiced
 a dialogue between Jim and Peter in chorus.)

T: Well now, I'd like you to practice that dialogue in pairs, so that you all get lots of practice in speaking English. In pairs, then, please. Come on! You two together, you two, you two and so on.

S: Excuse me, … I …

T: Oh dear, you're on your own. You haven't anyone to work with, eh? Right, why don't you turn your chair round to make a three with the two behind you?

Ss: Come with us.

T: Thank you. Take turns at practicing then I'll come and hear you myself. OK? (To the class) Right, one of you is Jim, the other is Peter, then change over. Off you go, then. All pairs together, and I'll come round to listen.

Task 5. Tone of voice

➢ Imagine that you are teaching a class of adolescents, around 15 to 18 years old.

➢ practice saying different warnings in three different ways, as if:

1. *at the beginning of an activity; a general announcement to the whole class* (**pleasantly**)

2. *students take longer settling down than the teacher has expected;* (**this time more firmly but still pleasantly**)

3. *Some students continue to be disruptive;* (**very firm, addressing those particular Ss**)

Examples of warnings:

~ *Could you stop talking and settle down, now, please?*
~ *Would you keep your voices down during pair practice, please?*
~ *I'm not going to begin until everyone is quiet, really quiet.*
~ *Stop turning round and disturbing other people, please*
~ *No writing while I explain this, OK? Pens down, please*

➢ Practice these kinds of warnings in front of the whole class.

Home assignment

1) Make a poster for the most useful ten tops of the verbal and nonverbal language of teachers in 3 groups and give the description for them
2) Make a role play of the lesson focusing on voice and nonverbal communication
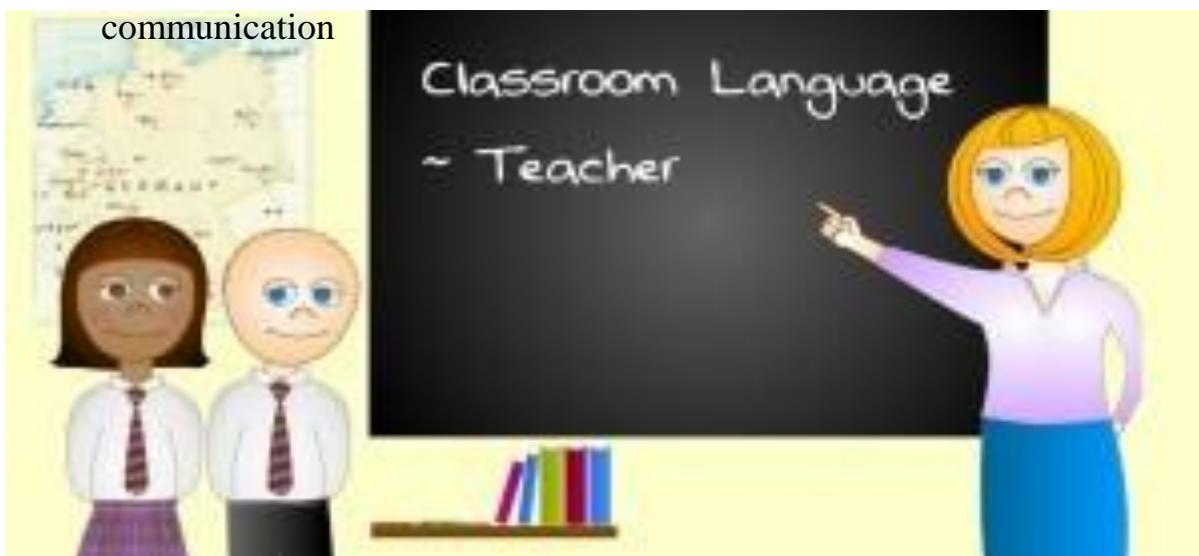
§4. Teacher's physical presence in class: Demonstrating body language skills

Presentation of demo lesson as role play.

➤ You will be given a feedback according to the following criteria :

Body language	Criteria				
	1	2	3	4	5
Eye contact					
Facial expression					
Proximity					
Posture					
Gesture					
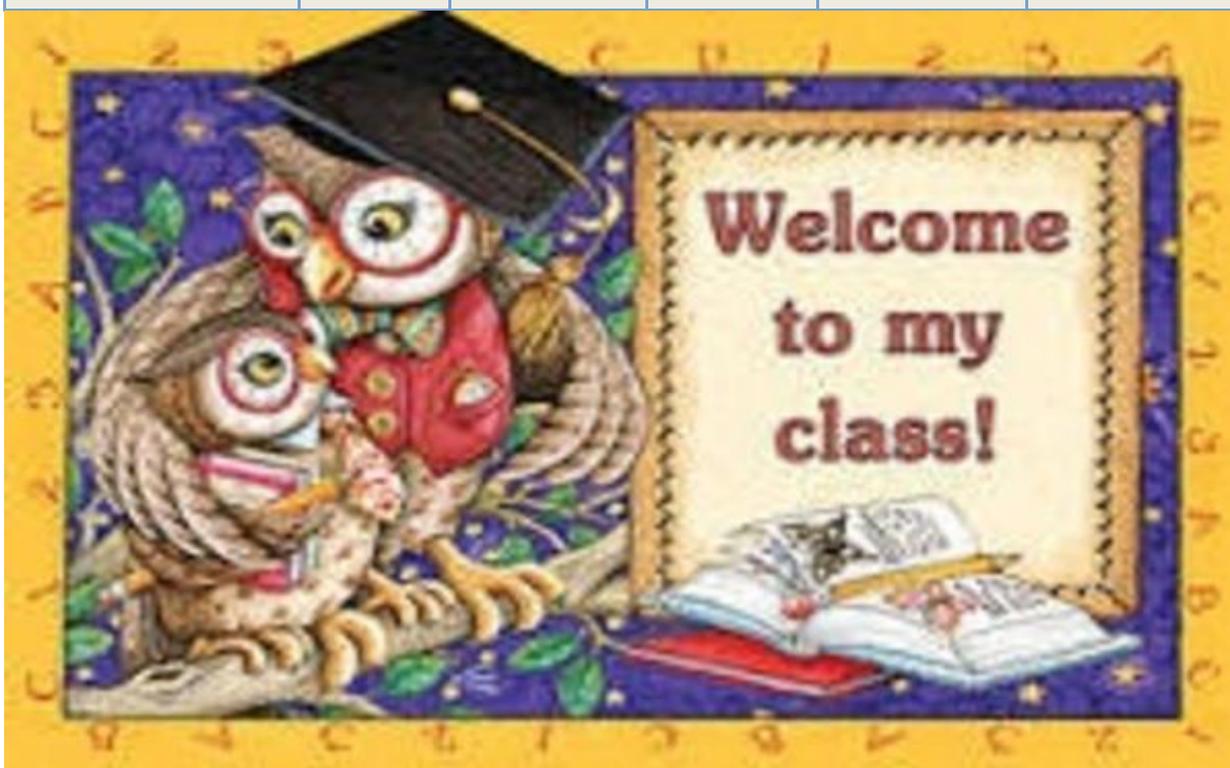
Home assignment.

➢ Read the article "The Application of Body Language in English Teaching" by Yuanyuan Tai and organize an article discussion with your course mates beyond classes and write a report. You should:

- Use your sound judgment and colleagues' opinions to determine the length of the discussion based on the discussion, write a report which should be

included in your portfolio. Your report should be 300 words maximum. In your report address the following:

- the number of participants and the title of the article(s)

- how participants felt about the article(s)

- what main issues were raised in the discussion

- summarize your experience as a facilitator or a participant in the article discussion (e.g. how you felt; whether there was any disagreement between participants and how you handled it; whether the discussion addressed any interesting issues / ideas and so on).

The Application of Body Language in English Teaching

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Abstract—**In English teaching, with the constant reform of teaching methods, body language as a kind of nonverbal language plays a very significant role in the interaction between teachers and students. It not only can express the speakers' intention more accurately and effectively, simplify the teaching instruction, stimulate the students' interest, optimize the purpose of English teaching and enhance teaching effectiveness, but also can help improve the students' ability of listening, speaking, reading and so on. Through literature review, by inducing and summarizing, this paper did a survey on several kinds of body languages and their some aspects, such as their features, importance, etc. This paper aims at helping English teachers understand the application of body language in teaching, and encouraging them to try using body language in classes in order to assist their teaching. The English teachers in new times should use body language properly in their class teaching and bring its function in language teaching into full play to achieve the best teaching effects.**

Index Terms—**body language, English teaching, nonverbal language**

Now China's English education is undertaking reforms. Traditional education plays too much attention to instilling the knowledge into the students. Such cramming method of teaching brings up the students who have good marks but low ability. Today's English education requires students to communicate in English. Teachers are also required to teach English nearly without Chinese expression all the class time. However, because of the limitation of students' vocabulary, teachers should take some other effective ways to support English teaching. Body language can help to explain what the teachers mean. Teachers also can deepen students' understanding and memories with the aid of body language. When the communication between teachers and students becomes more and more important with the developing of English education, the use of body language can support teaching and help teachers get better teaching results.

As is known to all, classroom teaching is one kind of communicative activity between teachers and students. Some students are absent-minded, which may lead to the failure of communication in classroom. Apart from the students' subjective reasons, the teachers also have responsibility for this phenomenon. Teachers need to work hard to captive and sustain the attention of students in order to engage them to focus on the lessons. Actually, in some cases, nonverbal communication is more important than the verbal one in the communication between teachers and students. Such as known to all, volume, speed and tone of voice will stimulate the students' response directly. Human body language, as a nonverbal communication, including gestures and facial expressions, is actually often used to communicate in countless subtle and complex ways. In class, most of students are often more attentive to what teachers do than what they say. To arouse students' interest in learning English and to help them learn better, teachers have to try their best to think of as many ways as possible to motivate students' enthusiasm, and body language is one of them. In order to improve students' English mentalities, teachers should use Chinese sparingly, especially in the background of nowadays'

quality-oriented education. And body language has become the necessary media. Body language of both teachers and students plays an active role in teaching English class. Teachers accompanied by gestures and facial expressions could create visual effects. It helps teachers express their own ideas and viewpoints more accurately and vividly to draw the attention of students. When teachers add body language to English teaching, students will be interested in learning English. What's more, students can learn to maintain long-term memory. This is a wonderful magic that body language has.

As we can see, in school education, body language plays a positive role not only in class teaching, but in shaping students' characters. Students often respect their teachers; even imitate teachers' words and actions, sometimes subconsciously. Therefore, teachers should understand the body language correctly, and master the methods and principles of body language stably. As an English teacher in the new times, we should help students grasp the foreign language with new teaching technique, and body language can take this role.

In one word, body language is helpful for English teaching. In this article, the theoretical study and application of body language will be discussed.

A. *Definition of Body Language*

Body language is a term for different forms of communication using body movements or gestures instead of, sounds, verbal language, or other ways of communication. Body language is the process of communicating what you are feeling or thinking by the way you place and move your body rather than by words (Hornby, 2006). Although we may not realize it when we talk with others and send messages to the people around us, we make ourselves understood not only by words, but also by facial expressions and body movements. We call it body language, which studies the meaning of all parts of body. It includes many nonverbal behaviors, e.g. eye contact, gestures, postures, facial gestures, touch, and so on. It can deliver different information, making a set of system which is the same as language signal (Yu Aihong, 2002). For example: A smile and handshake

indicate welcome, waving one's hand means "goodbye", nodding the head is a way to show agreement while shaking it means disagreement. Body language is a kind of nonverbal communication and it forms parts of category of paralanguage, which describe all forms of human communication that are not verbal language.

B. *Features of Body Language*

1. Intuitional feature

Teachers use their facial expressions to afford information or give some commands in the classes. Using body language in English teaching can help teachers to deepen students' understanding and impression. Visual body language can arouse students' interests in English studying. For example, when the teacher teaches the word "cry", he or she can show a crying face. Teachers can get a more intuitional teaching result if they use body language properly.

2. Communicative feature

We cannot forget the importance of body language when teachers communicate with students. Students need to learn the communicative English, so they should be more active in the classroom teaching. Because traditional teaching method cannot arouse student' interests, we can create a comfortable and interesting atmosphere by the means of body language and put students in the central position in English learning. If teachers use their body language comfortably, they can assist the communication between with their students.

3. Suggestive feature

Actually sometimes students understand the English knowledge by guessing from teachers' body language. The students have rich imagination and they can get much information from teachers' body language. For example, when teachers design a communicative scene, they can take advantage of the vivid body language to help them imagine, which can give them a good context. In this way, can the students understand the text easily.

In a word, body language has proper features for English teaching. A qualified teacher should learn to use body language in English teaching. Body language can

become a perceptible tool in the future education.

II. Necessities and Importance of Body Language in English Teaching

English teaching is a very important part of the school education, and body language plays a positive role in cultivating the students' characters in school education. Body language is a significant means through which people get to know each other and communicate with each other. To be brief, body language is a kind of language through gestures, manners and countenances, which include eye contact, facial expression, and gestures and so on. As mentioned above, our nonverbal communication occupies almost 50 percent of our daily communication while words themselves take up only 7 percent. Our bodies put forward messages so often that sometimes we communicate a lot more than we realize (Chen & Watts, 1992). The foreign language teachers are expected to perform actively in class, for example to dance joyfully, make vivid gesture as an actor. They are no longer expected to be kind and cultivated or just stand stubbornly on the platform (Guo Xuehua, 1999). In the current situation, there are three main aspects which is the need of body language in English teaching.

A. *Limitation of Students in English Vocabulary and Expressive Ability*

The English vocabulary is so abundant that the student cannot remember all of them. And students just can only grasp the words which are used frequently. According to the students' present level and practical situation, body language is required. Body language is one of rich expressive languages in the teaching language, especially in English teaching. Using body language suitably not only can avoid using Chinese to explain English, but also can promote teachers and students to communicate. In this way the teaching effectiveness will be enhanced. For instance, when a teacher wants his or her students to look at the blackboard, he or she just have to point at the blackboard, then the students will understand the order without difficulty despite the fact that they do not catch the key word "blackboard" clearly. Another example, when explaining the form "have done"

such as "Have you found a job yet?" The teacher can use a normal speed when reading "we ought to use the form 'have done", and read slowly when giving examples. Then a more effective way is to use hand gestures to emphasize when the teacher says "have done". He or she can reach out his or her index finger, pauses in the air while giving out the example. This action often makes a deep impression on students about the English language points.

B. Less Interest of Students in English Class

For a non-native learner, English learning is very boring. As the proverb goes "interest is the first teacher." No matter in any fields, a person to be successful, first of all, he must spend a lot of time and energy. Second, he must be interested in it. The strong study interest is the prime motive power of leaning activity. It can stimulate and raise students' study interest. Therefore, before each class, teachers should make good preparation to make sure that the students can have strong interest through a series of body language. For example, to teach: "What are you doing?" teachers can design the following body language for the context: let the students make the action of waiting, or dancing together with you. Students imitate the body language with teacher, listen and do warm up in the activities to enter the study condition, which can stimulate students' enthusiastic of learning greatly. In the classroom, teachers' behavior will influence students' leaning concentration. Sometimes teachers in their teaching with the use of body language can stimulate the students' interest.

C. Depressing Atmosphere in English Teaching

English is a foreign language to students and it is difficult to study well so that students cannot hold the interest in it for a long time. And when they cannot understand what teachers teach, they will not listen to the teachers. Then the atmosphere in English class is depressing. Meanwhile, if the sounds only stay in a horizontal line, students will soon lose their interest. And the rise meter can also affect students' mood. Teaching in order to arouse the attention of each student, teachers should glance around at the students. Teachers' body language attracts the

attention of students, help students understand knowledge, and increase their enthusiasm. In this way, can teachers achieve the purpose of improving the teaching results.

In English classes, body language should be frequently used to improve the teaching effectiveness and develop the students' ability.

III.   SPECIFIC USE OF BODY LANGUAGE IN ENGLISH TEACHING

A.   *Art of Using Facial Expressions*

Facial expression is a "universal language" in human being's society. Humans can show their feelings and emotions through facial expressions, such as happiness, sorrow, and fear. Therefore, teachers should know how to utilize different facial expressions to deal with different situations that appear in the classroom. If a teacher could use his facial expressions well, he would create good studying atmosphere and enhance his teaching effect.

For instance, when a student gives a wrong answer, will the teacher criticize him with an angry face or just encourage him with a smile? The answer is self-evident. English studying is comparatively difficulty for most students. Thus, teachers need to keep students optimistic and perky in English learning. To keep smiling has this magical function.

Some pedagogic professors proposed once, "Teachers should use smile with love to conquer a student's mind." A good English teacher should take the warm smile into classroom teaching. A warm smile could give students comfy studying surroundings. How does the teacher do this? Teachers can tell students some humorous stories in English or let them give some short role-plays. Teachers and students can keep their relationships under a happy and comfy atmosphere. A philosopher once said: "Education is important but it does not mean that teachers should keep a long face in the classroom." When students cannot focus their attention on the text, teachers can use some grandiloquent facial expressions to draw their attentions.

To sum up, if a teacher can use his facial expression diplomatically, he can

receive a perfect classroom teaching result.

B. *Art of Using Gestures*

Teachers use appropriate gestures to transmit their minds and show their feelings. It adds persuasion and appeal to the class too.

In the classroom teaching, teacher can do some gestures for expressing what they want students to do. For instance, when a teacher gives the explanation for the sentence "He is fat", he may splay his hands around his haunch. If the sentence is "She is slim", teacher can give a curvaceous model as the letter S. Vivid gestures help students deepen their understanding of English.

Some other simple gestures act the role of conveying teachers' message. For instance, "Come here" (teacher stretches out one hand which points to himself with palm, then beckons), "It's OK" (with thumb upward) and so on.

Overall, gesture has most expressions in body language. Therefore, it has abundant expressions. However, teachers cannot use too fussy gestures to distract students' attentions.

C. *Art of Using Eye Contact*

Everyone knows that eye is the "window" to the soul. From one's eye, we can know his inner question and his attitudes. So, eye contact expresses exquisite emotion. The teacher uses his eye contact artistically to improve his teaching effects. Firstly, eye communication is between teachers and students. The teacher may catch students' regenerative information from their eye contacts. For instance, a student watches the ceiling with dull eyes every now and then, which means he gets side freaked. And if there is a doubt or sparkle in students' eyes, the teacher can know whether or not they have understood the content. That is to say, students' eyes can give some messages to teachers. The teacher should keep in good touch with students through their eye contacts.

However, how does the teacher use eye contact to help English teaching? The teacher may look around the whole class, which can let students feel the teacher's pertinence. If some students do not listen earnestly, the teacher also can prompt

their attentions in the way. Teacher focuses partly on some students for helping them build up their self-confidence to study English and be more active in learning English. If a teacher has expressive eyes, he can control the class better.

D. *Art of Using Body Distance*

The distance between people still has informative meaning. Body distance is one kind of body language too. In the English classroom teaching, teachers stand in different positions which give students different feelings. Students indicate that when teachers stand near students two to three point five meters, that distance can produce one kind of control. If some students do not concentrate in the class time, the teacher only needs to go nearby place that would change the students' absent-minded condition.

Teachers usually lead students to read in middle school. When the teacher is reading, he can go to students' "space zone". If he does like this, he will control the disciplines and correct their wrong pronunciation properly. Moreover, if the teacher does the dictation with walking properly in the classroom, he can draw students' attentions. If a teacher stands on the platform which is from students four to five meters, it's hard to draw their attentions. Some teachers often complain that they cannot get satisfactory teaching effects when they are teaching in multimedia classrooms.

IV CONCRETE APPLICATION OF BODY LANGUAGE IN DIFFERENT ASPECTS IN ENGLISH TEACHING

A. *Application of Using Body Language in Listening*

As we all know, listening constitutes a significant part in our daily communication. To understand others and be understood is a basic purpose in English learning. In this process of training students' listening ability, if teachers use the body language properly, they can achieve better effect. For instance, a teacher can extend his or her arms slowly when he or she says "She lives in a very large house" and open his or her eyes widely with mouth opened when he or she

says "She is such a beautiful lady". As a result, the students will have deep impressions that the room is very big and the lady is beautiful.

B. *Application of Using Body Language in Speaking*

The spoken language is one of the important ways to communicate with others. Chinese students are very shy. They usually can write and read English very well but cannot speak English, so we should try to develop the students' ability of speaking. How can teachers help students overcome their passive attitudes? Body language can arouse and sustain the students' interests of using and learning English. In fact, they are helped to reach the aim in a certain degree by their teacher's body language. In the English classes, the teachers should not only use body languages themselves, but also ask the students to use them according to different situations. For example, a text about when the new students meet for the first time, and they don't know each other. So teachers can introduce themselves first. During the introduction process, the teachers should use the new words and sentences together with a vivid expression and proper gestures as possible as they can. They smile when they say hello to the class, they shake hands with some students saying "Glad to meet you". When they express their interests, they imitate the actions of dribbling and shooting at the basketball, turning pages to indicate reading. After the teachers' introductions, they can create an environment for the students to practice. Indeed, the application of body language in different situations will help to create an interesting and successful lesson.

C. *Application of Using Body Language in Reading*

Body language is helpful in improving students' reading ability. Here we mainly discuss the usefulness of reading aloud. It can help students to achieve good pronunciation and intonation of English. What's more, it can help them to fully and deeply understand the beauty of the language. As a famous saying goes, a poem is not a poem until it is read. Teachers should tell students to use proper body language whiling reading loudly. For example, pay attention to where to raise or lower our tone, when to speak softly. To achieve better result, we can

adapt the strong or soft parts that are used in music teaching. For instance, we use falling tones in declarative sentences, use rising tones and then falling tones in the selective question sentences. At first the students might feel confused as they are not accustomed to it yet. However, with the help of body language, they can master it more easily. For example, when they read a selective question sentence, they put up their hands in rising tone and put down hands in falling tones. After training for some times, whenever they read the sentences, they will use this body language unconsciously. In a word, fluent English with vivid gestures helps to can create a good learning environment, which will surely motivate students' reading ability.

V CONCLUSION

We can see that body language is of helpfulness for English teaching. And if we want to deepen the quality education proceeds, we should clear off the traditional boredom and monotone. English classroom will become a stage for teachers and students. For the purpose that teachers should teach their students in comfortable context. They can change the little classroom into a shop, a hotel, a park, even a hospital. Body language can be a good tool for improving the imaginations of the students and helping teacher express their ideas and language points more vividly. And by the body language, they can express some connotation of language that is difficult to express by mouth.

Teaching quality and effect is the core of education, and the use of body language can improve the teaching quality of English class. As a matter of fact, most students enjoy an active atmosphere of English learning instead of a boring and serious one. Since enthusiastic participation is the foremost factor in language learning an active and relaxed learning environment is even more important than teaching itself. In an active and lively class, the students are more willing to cooperate with teacher and attend class conscientiously. And most students consider that body language can help then memorize teaching contents to a certain degree.

In classroom, the teachers frequently make use of various kinds of body language combined with words to organize their teaching activities. The use of body language will help teachers express their ideas and thoughts accurately and lively. The purpose is to ensure that students can understand them clearly. consequently, teaching activities can be carried out accordingly without any misunderstandings or confusion. In addition, the use of body language can improve teachers' enthusiasm, thus reducing students' lassitude in classes, especially in the afternoon classes. And as a result, the English class teaching can be facilitated.

In the future teaching program, the teachers should have visible and audible teaching material like cards and tapes. People can communicate with each other not only through verbal means, but also nonverbal communication. Moreover, the latter plays an important role. Body language is an important part of nonverbal communication. A great attention is paid to the function and effect of the teachers' body language in English class in recent years. Researchers tell us that the effective use of proper body language can greatly improve the relationship between the teachers and the students. What's more, it can enhance students' learning efficiency and cognitive ability. A successful English teacher knows how to make full use of the body languages such as expression, gesture, eye contact and so on in order to get the best teaching effect. Using body language in English class can not only make the teachers and the students know each other well, but create a relaxing studying environment, and activate students' learning interest and deepen their impression and imagination. The use of body language is completely meet the standards of audio-visual teaching principle, and teachers should try to teach in English from the beginning to the end, together with the corresponding body language. In this way, will the students' ability of English be certainly and greatly improved.

§5. Creating an English environment

The type of classroom environment that a teacher creates and encourages can either increase or decrease a student's ability to learn and feel comfortable as a member of the class. The classroom environment should do as much to foster cooperation and acceptance as the teaching methods that the teacher uses.

QUESTION:

~ *How do you imagine a good environment for English classes?.*
~ *What do you think does English environment have a great role in learning language?*

TASK 1. Video observation

➤ Join in two groups and observe the video of the lesson attentively paying your attention to the environment of the classroom

➤ After observing make posters about classroom environment from the video you have watched and present i

TASK 2.

➤ **Look** through the photos, written notes and try to match them with the headings given below;

➤ After matching these exhibited materials compare them with your own done posters, share your opinion with partners and present your findings at the board

1. Read Aloud Every Day	7. Encourage Awesome Language in Writing
2. Use Word Walls	8. Play with Words
3. Use Anchor Charts	9. Find New Ways to Say Old Things
4. Create a Diverse Classroom Library	10. Engage Your Students in Daily Conversations
5. Put Language in Unexpected Places	11. Speak Like an Adult
6. Search for Awesome Language While Reading	12. Involve the Parents

A
Reading aloud and its follow-up conversation allows teachers the opportunity to help students increase vocabulary, create a shared literary experience, evoke discussion, and model fluency. I purposefully choose read-aloud books at a higher level than most of my readers in order to give them access to language they wouldn't be able to read and understand on their own. I stop frequently during reading to discuss author's craft or a particular word the author has used. If I believe a word I've just read may be unfamiliar to most, I give an additional, more familiar meaning as well. In each book I read, we collectively select words that we like the sound of for our literature word wall. These words frequently show up in my student's writing as well as conversation. For example, after reading *James and the Giant Peach* as a read aloud to start the year, the words *pandemonium*, *chaos,* and *extraordinary* have become regular parts of every student's working vocabulary. I often buy multiple copies of my read-aloud books, and they are often the most sought after books in our classroom library. My students love to read along with me as much as they like to use them for their independent reading time.

B
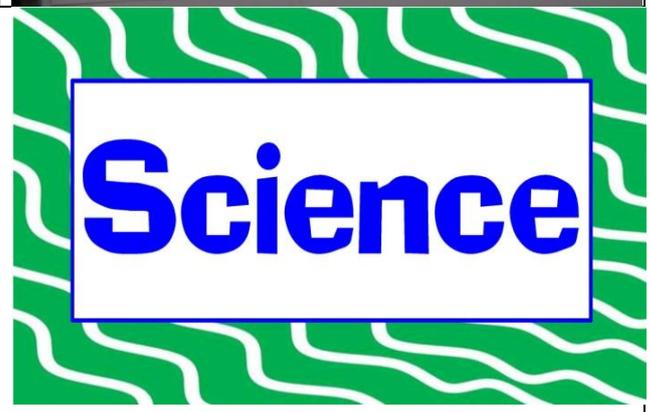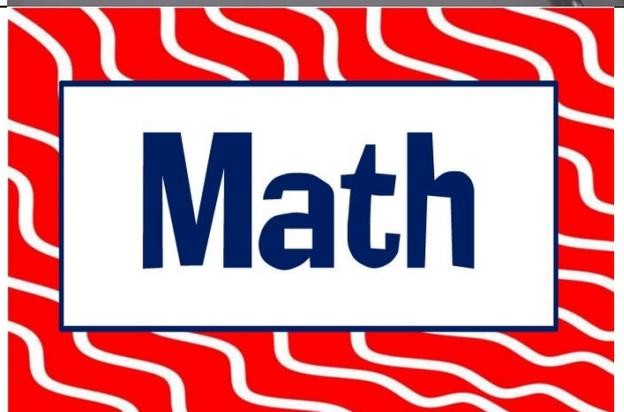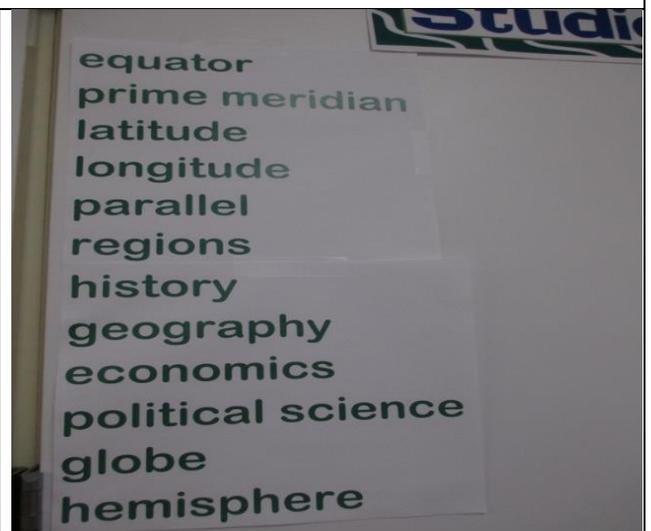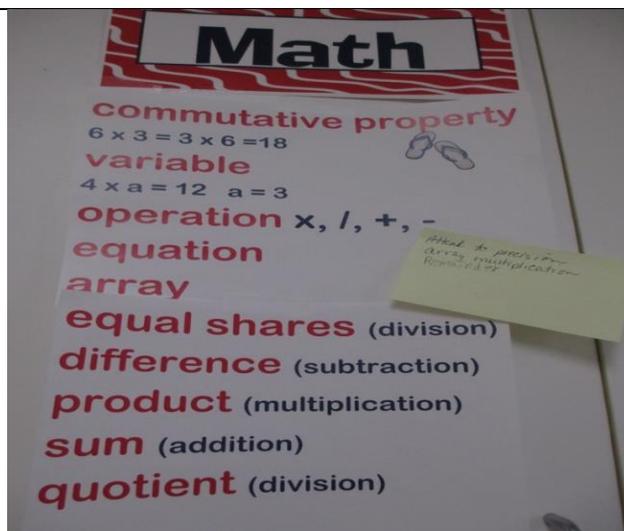
C

Kid's Experience
What does FAKE
Reading LOOK like?
- Just holding the book, flipping pages
- Not flipping pages - just staring
- Just look at pictures • They have hard books
- Looking around the room
- Finish a long book in a little time
- Get up to book shop, use restroom
- Skip pages • Pretending to read.
- Can't write about it in response journals
- Eyes move back and forth.

Character Change
While you read a book, look for the main characters to change in some way during the book. Sometimes characters...
→ Learn a lesson
→ Overcome something
→ change their attitude

CHARACTER TRAITS

active, capable, conscientious, efficient, happy
adventurous, careful, considerate, energetic, happy-go-lucky
affectionate, cautious, cooperative, enthusiastic, hateful
afraid, charismatic, courageous, fair, hopeful
ambitious, charming, cowardly, faithful, hopeless
anxious, cheerful, critical, fidgety, humorous
argumentative, childish, cruel, fierce, ignorant
bewildered, clever, curious, foolish, imaginative
bossy, clumsy, daring, friendly, immature
brave, cold-hearted, dependable, funny, impatient
brilliant, compassionate, determined, generous, impolite
calm, competitive, dishonest, gentle, impulsive
bully, conceited, disrespectful, gloomy, independent
concerned, eager, greedy, insistent
confident, easy-going, grouchy

MORE CHARACTER TRAITS...

intelligent, mysterious, proud, self-reliant, talented
jealous, nervous, puzzled, sensitive, talkative
jovial, noisy, quick, silly, thankful
lazy, obedient, quiet, sincere, thoughtful
logical, obnoxious, reliable, skillful, thoughtless
lonely, observant, respectful, sly, timid
loving, optimistic, responsible, smart, trusting
loyal, peaceful, restless, sneaky, trustworthy
lucky, persistent, rowdy, snobbish, unfriendly
mature, pessimistic, rude, sociable, unselfish
mean, picky, sarcastic, stingy, versatile
moody, pleasant, secretive, strict, warm-hearted
polite, selfish, stubborn, wise
studious, witty
sweet, worried

D

E
GO CONFIDENTLY IN THE DIRECTION OF *your dreams*
FROM small beginnings COME GREAT THINGS.

F
UNDERSTANDING
PATIENCE
COURAGE
EMPATHY
KINDNESS
RESPONSIBILITY
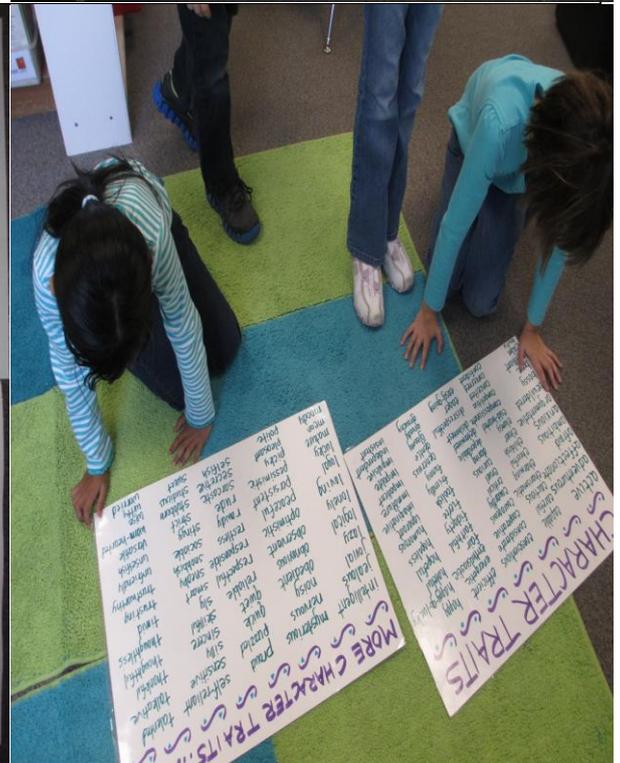
G. Independence is my classroom disposition. Each teacher wrote the framed definition that is posted outside our doors.

H. Our school's reading committee chooses a different word each month to highlight that students find in the most unexpected places — the bathroom, tables, in the hallway, the lunch line, etc. These words and their meanings are viewed consistently while they are up, and students eagerly await the next round each month.

I
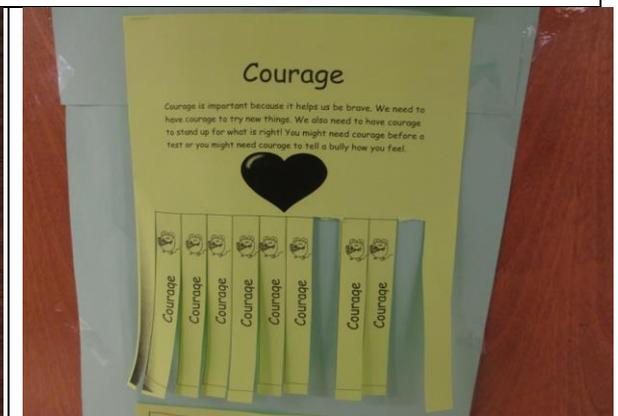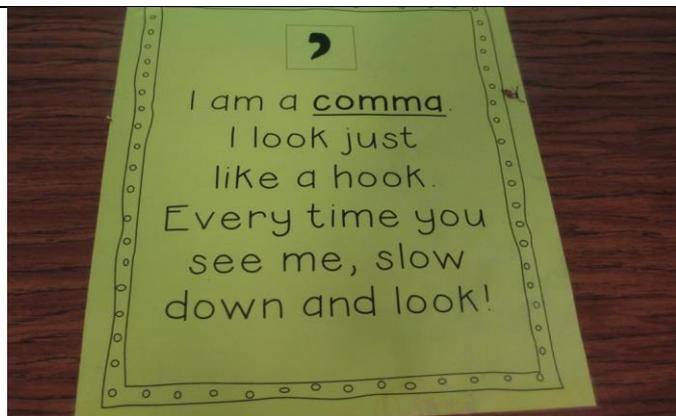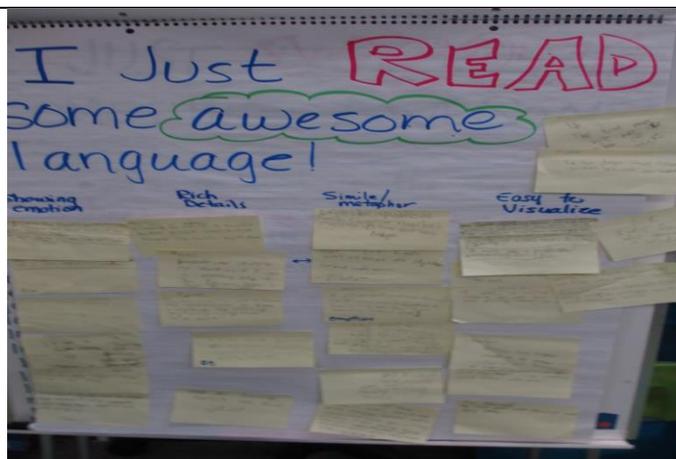
Rich Details

Bhumika →
1) He was standing there all red-faced, screaming and waving his arms around.
2) He wagged his tail so hard he

She had amber-colored fur, twinkling eyes and a dazzling smile.

I turn into a babbling, blundering fool. —Zoe

Easy to Visualize

Anish P.

Somebody was slapping my face as if it were a punching bag at The Ironpaw Gym in New Mouse City.

J

I Just Used Awesome Language!

- I could still feel the excitement bubbling up inside me an hour later. —Riya Dutta
- It was as shiny as a baby dolphin. —Sonia
- There were so many bags that it could fill the world! —Sonia
- I had simple clue what she was talking about. —Zoe
- I was so excited to open presents I could ran as fast as a cheetah home! —Bhumika Kave
- I was clueless but listened and pretended I knew everything by nodding my head every once in while. —Riya Dutta
- She was as fast as a snail. —Riya Dutta
- The family room was as messy as a pigsty.
- The door closed as loud as a stampeed of elephants coming toward me. —Bhumika
- Now I'm furiosly shaking my sister.
- barked like a bunch of on me. —Zoe
- He shot through the door like a shark. —Joey
- my heart was beating like thunder —Colin
- whoever I thought we won't win must be on the other side of the door and upside down. —Riya Dutta
- felt like it was my job

45

K

To put it simply, talk to your students. Interpersonal communication requires students to use all the language you have been working to help them acquire in a natural, unstructured manner. Conversation is also a skill I fear is slipping away as technology takes over our lives. Glancing around a restaurant a couple of months ago, I noticed the majority of couples, and even entire families not talking to each other over dinner, but instead mesmerized by the hypnotic glow of their phones and tablets. Embarrassingly enough, my family wasn't exempt from this group. I made it a goal this school year to talk to every one of my students at least once each day — not about school, but about them. As a result, I know more about my students than ever before and they can usually hardly wait to tell me a story about something, anything, when they walk through the door in the morning or during

recess.

I've also built in time for students to have short exchanges with each other when we gather on the carpet for our mini-lessons. My third graders engage each other in conversation, practicing skills we've modeled like making eye contact, talking *to* and not *at* someone, appropriate responses, etc. The few minutes I dedicate to the art of conversation each day is well worth the difference I notice in my students' confidence and conversational skills.

N

When I read aloud to my third graders, I don't read like a third grader. Instead, I read like an adult, using appropriate intonation and expression. I know this modeling will help my students become fluent, expressive readers. That same logic applies to how I speak to my students in the classroom — I use proper words and terms even if they might seem over the head of my students. I believe it is very important to use correct words and terminology if you want your students to learn and use them properly. Simply stated, if I want their vocabulary to rise up to my level, I don't go down to theirs.

O

Language acquisition starts in the home and most parents would love to learn how they can create a language-rich environment for their students at home. At conferences and in newsletters or phone calls, share with your parents what they can do at home to create a language-rich environment for their children. Scholastic Parents has many great articles on bolstering language skills that you can share with parents. Two of my favorites are "The Power of Language" and "Helping Children Build Language Skills."

Providing an evironment filled with language at every turn is important to me. This week I've shared a few of the things in my students' school environment, and there are even more. I would love to hear what you are doing in your classroom to provide your students with a language-rich environment. Please share in the comment section below.

Home assignment

1) Read an article by Jessica L. Bucholz Georgia and Julie L. Sheffler "Creating a Warm and Inclusive Classroom Environment: Planning for All Children to Feel Welcome" and try to make presentation on this material

2) According to your gained knowledge and information now write your own article about two or three pages on "Rich English Language Environment"

Creating a Warm and Inclusive Classroom Environment: Planning for All Children to Feel Welcome

Jessica L. Bucholz University of West Georgia
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Abstract:

The type of classroom environment that a teacher creates and encourages can either increase or decrease a student's ability to learn and feel comfortable as a member of the class. The classroom environment should do as much to foster cooperation and acceptance as the teaching methods that the teacher uses. This article describes a number of methods to help teachers plan for and create a classroom that welcomes and supports all children.

At the beginning of the year teachers have the goal of establishing a classroom environment that is favorable for helping all students work cooperatively in order to learn. The classroom environment can either improve or impede a student's ability to learn and feel safe and comfortable as a member of the class. Classrooms that encourage emotional well-being create an atmosphere for both learning and emotional development. Educational research supports creating an atmosphere of mutual respect, where students feel relaxed in asking questions and expressing their thoughts and feelings (Stronge, 2002). Some areas to consider when creating an atmosphere of mutual respect are classroom design, classroom procedures, and classroom strategies. Implementing a few strategies that address these areas can help develop a strong sense of community and encourage positive interactions and cooperative learning for students with and without disabilities. A warm classroom environment can lead to increased academic achievement and a sense of pride and belonging in the school.

Classroom Design

Create a Warm and Well Decorated Classroom

One of the first things a teacher does at the beginning of the school year is organize, arrange, and decorate the classroom. The physical environment of a classroom plays a part in the ownership students feel about their school and more specifically their class. The classroom environment should do as much to foster cooperation and acceptance as the instructional method the teacher uses. Children are sensitive to the atmosphere created in the classroom. Is the classroom warm and inviting? Are all areas of the classroom accessible to all children? Are the walls bleak and lacking in color or do the decorations help to make the students feel comfortable? Are areas well defined as to their design and purpose? (Scott, Leach, & Bucholz, 2008).

Decorating a classroom with some kind of warmth can help promote a sense of comfort and security. Classrooms tend to be rather cold, bare places until they are decorated. Adding a splash of color can bring life to a sterile environment. Color choice is important when decorating a classroom. Teachers should keep in mind that red and orange can make children feel nervous and unsettled while blue and green can help students feel calm. Furthermore, dark colors take natural sunlight out of a room and can even make people feel drowsy and listless (Hathaway, 1987). Plants, soft chairs, rugs, and pillows can help to add warmth and comfort to a class environment (Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, & Ouston, 1979).

Create a Neat and Organized Classroom

While decorations help create a warm environment, organization of the furniture in the room is also important. There should be enough space for all students to easily move throughout the classroom. Teachers should consider the use of universal design. Universal design is designing products and environments to be usable by all people, to the greatest extent possible, without the need for modification or specialized design (Burgstahler, 2008). This approach began in the field of architectural design when architects started to engineer accessible buildings from the beginning rather than making renovations to those buildings later (Lieberman, Lytle, & Clarcq, 2008). Universal design for instruction is a set of principles that help in the process of designing the classroom environment and instruction so that they are contributing to the learning of all students (Samuels, 2007). Teachers should apply the strategy of universal design for learning to make sure that activities, materials, and equipment are physically accessible and usable by all students. Teachers should also expand safety procedures to all students, including those that are identified with a disability and when teaching, repeat printed directions orally.

Desks arranged in neat, orderly rows may make movement throughout the class easier but this arrangement may not help to create a warm, friendly environment. Patton, Snell, Knight, Willis, and Gerken (2001) found that 94 percent of the K-3 teachers they surveyed use a semicircle or cluster to arrange the desks in their classrooms. These teachers felt that grouping desks offered several benefits including encouraging cooperative learning, building a sense of class community, and making the best use of the space. Ideal desk arrangements create opportunity for students to be actively engaged in learning and have the opportunity to work cooperatively, when appropriate, with their peers, while still allowing students to navigate the environment safely.

Classroom Procedures

Create Special Traditions for Your Class

Traditions can help create positive feelings and bond students to their class. Start the morning with a beginning of the day tradition. Students could work together to create a class pledge that is recited every morning before the day begins. One example of a class pledge created by Ms. Fitting from Oysterponds Elementary School includes the three Cs: "We will Cooperate, We will Communicate, We will Concentrate, We will have a Good Day." The use of a thought provoking and memorable quote is another possible way to create a special tradition in class. Begin by reading a quote to the class and have students share their thoughts and feelings about what the quote means to them. Traditions can also be used to end the day. Teachers can give students time at the end of each day for a reflective activity. Examples of activities could include creating a picture of something students learned that day, writing a reflective paragraph in a journal, or writing a note to their teacher stating one thing they learned during the day and one thing that confused them (Lasater, Johnson, & Fitzgerald, 2002). Teachers could also have the class write their own song to sing or a poem to recite at the end of every day.

Conduct Classroom Meetings

Teachers can make their classrooms encouraging and supportive by teaching students problem solving and conflict resolution skills in small groups and whole class meetings (Gartrell, 2006). Nelsen, Lott, and Glenn (1997) defined class meetings as when the teacher assigns a designated time of day when students form a circle and work together to discuss and solve classroom issues and problems. Classroom meetings can help create a sense of belonging and trust for students. Classroom meetings can also encourage children to work together to solve problems while practicing pro-social skills. Browning, Davis, and Resta (2000) used classroom meetings with twenty 1st-grade students to teach them positive forms of conflict resolution and decrease acts of verbal and physical aggression. Prior to the introduction of the class meeting acts of aggression were common in this classroom. After the use of the classroom meeting the number of aggressive acts was significantly reduced. Sisco (1992) used classroom meetings with fourth and fifth grade students and saw a decrease in the number of disciplinary referrals to the office and an increase in self-esteem.

Three possible types of classroom meetings include open-ended meetings, problem-solving meetings, and educational-diagnostic meetings (Lundeberg, Emmett, Osland,& Lindquist, 1997). In an open-ended meeting the topic of discussion can be anything of interest to the group. In a problem¬solving meeting all class members work together to solve a problem of concern to the class. This

could be a problem that involves the entire class or a problem an individual student is facing. The purpose of an educational-diagnostic meeting is to evaluate students' background knowledge before introducing a new topic and assess the level of understanding students have gained for a subject that has recently been taught (Lundeberg, et al.).

Following an agenda can be helpful when conducting a classroom meeting (Edwards & Mullis 2003). Suggested meeting items include appreciation and compliments, peaceful conflict resolution and problem-solving activities, old business, new business, and a classroom encouragement activity. It is important for students to know how to give and receive compliments. The appreciation and meeting component of a classroom meeting provides teachers with the opportunity to teach students how to give compliments or provide appreciation to classmates as well as how to receive appreciation and compliments. The focus should be on qualities of the student and things they have accomplished (e.g., "Thank you for helping me learn my spelling words for this week."), rather than on physical appearance (e.g., "I like the shirt you are wearing."). During the peaceful conflict resolution and problem-solving activities portion of the classroom meeting students work together to help students who have identified that they have an individual problem or the class works to solve a problem they feel they are having as a whole (e.g., getting in trouble in the lunch room for not cleaning up after eating). Students work together to develop a list of possible solutions, evaluate those solutions, and the students involved in the problem then select a solution to try. During the old business time of the class meeting students are provided with the opportunity to share how their previous problem solving attempts have worked. This allows for further suggestions if the previous solution was not successful. The new business part of the meeting gives students the opportunity to make decisions about other types of class business (e.g., what color shirts to wear for field day, how best to prepare for the up and coming science exam, or what to name the class goldfish). Finally, the classroom encouragement activity is designed to give encouragement to the entire class. Edwards and Mullis provide a number of examples of encouragement activities. One example of this type of activity is when the classroom teacher writes a personal note to each student thanking the student for something he/she did or acknowledging specific improvement he/she has made in academics or behavior.

Classroom Strategies

Model and Teach Self-Advocacy and Self-Determination Skills

One of the most important skills teachers can give their students, especially those with disabilities, is to empower them to advocate for themselves. Students

need to be able to make their needs and wants known. For example, preschool students need to be able to tell others when they need to use the bathroom. As students get older they need to understand and be able to describe their strengths and weaknesses to their classroom teachers and other people with whom they work. Jones (2006) identified five steps to empower students and help them become self-advocates.

Five Steps to Empowerment

Step/ Description

1　Encourage disability awareness and self-discovery. Help students identify their areas of strength and areas of need.

2　Teach students about special education services. Help them understand what services are available to them based on the needs identified in their IEP.

3　Teach students to self-monitor their work. This allows them to see their own progress and identify areas they need to work on. This gives them ownership for making the steps necessary to meet their goals.

4　Prepare students for participation. Students need to be aware of what takes place in an IEP meeting so that they have the understanding to be an active participant.

5　Evaluate the effectiveness of your efforts. Educators need to evaluate their own teaching of these steps to ensure that the students are getting our best.

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction (Agran, Blanchard, & Wehmeyer, 2000; Palmer & Wehmeyer, 2003) is a teaching model educators can use to help students set educational and learning goals for themselves, develop plans to reach those goals, and monitor their progress toward those same goals. This model of teaching can be used with students with and without disabilities and has been used successfully with adolescents as well as with students as young as five (Agran et al.; Palmer & Wehmeyer). There are three phases in the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction; each phase presents a problem for the student to solve. Students solve these problems by answering four questions for each phase. Phase one requires the student to identify a goal. Students accomplish this by listing things they want to learn, identifying what they already know about the topic, identifying what needs to be done to learn the information they don't already know, and identifying criteria to help them learn this new information. The second phase requires the student to create a plan in order to accomplish their identified goal. During this phase students answer questions that help them to identify what they can do to learn the new information, difficulties the student might face in trying to meet the goal, and ways to overcome those difficulties. The third and final phase requires students to self-evaluate their progress on meeting

their goal and make adjustments to their plan as necessary to be successful. They do this by answering four questions that require them to reflect on the actions they took, the difficulties they overcame, and the information they learned. Students end this phase by evaluating whether or not they learned what they wanted to learn when they originally established the goal (Palmer & Wehmeyer).

Teach and Practice Reflective or Active Listening

One way to help students feel as if they are a welcome and trusted member of the class community is by listening to them when they speak. It is very important to give students your complete, undivided attention when speaking with them (Kottler & Kottler, 1993). Active listening involves both verbal and nonverbal behaviors. Orient your body to the student, maintain eye contact, nod your head, use facial expressions (e.g., smile, frown), and use verbal cues (e. g., "Oh," "That is interesting"). Additionally, teach your students the skill of reflective or active listening. Begin by talking to your students about the importance of being a good listener. Then demonstrate how to use reflective listening for students. Have a student tell you about something important to them and model both verbal and nonverbal listening behaviors. When the student is finished speaking, summarize what was said for the class. Ask the class to add to the summary and verify the accuracy of what is summarized by the listener with the speaker (Church, 2006).

Listening is an important skill, not just for the social reasons, but for educational impact as well. Listening to learn is common in schools, and although listening is an important skill, it is often not taught and as a result students are often poor listeners (Swain, Friehe, & Harrington, 2004). In order to create good listeners teachers need to first give students a specific purpose for why they are being required to listen. They should understand what they need to listen for, not simply that they need to listen.

Teachers also need to set the stage for listening. This includes ending any previous activity, eliminating noise and distraction, and creating a comfortable environment. Finally, teachers should plan for follow- up activities to listening experiences. These activities allow the teacher to evaluate the students' comprehension of the listening experience and correct any errors or misinformation (Funk & Funk, 1989).

Use Children's Literature

One way to teach and encourage active listening is through the use of children's literature. Children with disabilities may not be as adept at making friends as their peers without disabilities. (DeGeorge, 1998). Using children's literature is one way to help instruct students on how to conduct themselves in

social situations, and how to make and keep friends. Establishing friendships enables students to feel more secure and comfortable about school. For hundreds of years folktales, myths, legends, and fables have been used to provide guidance on behavior and morality, and can be used to teach valuable lessons about social behavior (Cartledge & Kiarie, 2001; Cullinan, & Galda, 1998). Reading and literature are a large part of a child's school experience and children should be encouraged to read for pleasure as well as information. Bibliotherapy uses literature to help people cope with personal problems. Teachers can use bibliotherapy to teach appropriate social skills, encourage discussion about a problem, and help to provide possible solutions to a problem. There are steps a teacher can follow to help ensure the effectiveness of the bibliotherapy. To begin the teacher should develop a relationship and trust with the student by getting to know the student. Once a positive relationship has been developed the teacher can work with the student to identify the problem and create goals to address the problem. Next the teacher must carefully select books to use so that students will relate to the characters in the story. The media specialist can be a great help for identifying appropriate materials. Once appropriate books have been selected the teacher can introduce the books to the student using various pre-reading, during reading and post-reading discussions and activities. Finally, after reading and discussing the story teachers can work with the student to identify solutions for problem faced by the character in the story (Forgan, 2002; Prater, Johnstun, Dyches, & Johnstun, 2006).

Children's fiction and nonfiction can be used to teach about diversity and increase awareness, understanding, and appreciation of people with disabilities. Literature can be used to help students realize that there are things that make all people different and all people special.

The ideas described in this article can facilitate a positive start to the school year and provide a structured and encouraging environment. The concepts of good classroom design, listening skills, self-determination, and building class community are transferable across the grade levels. These concepts are not just for students with disabilities, but for all students. Building classroom connections through these concepts can lead to student achievement gains as has been demonstrated in research on school climate and student achievement (Church, 2006; Uline, & Tschannen-Moran, 2008). Planning ahead and applying these concepts is imperative to successful teacher student interaction and creating a positive classroom environment.

§6. The language of the classroom.

If cooperation and communication are to be part of the process of learning a language as well as part of the process of growing up, then the sooner the pupils learn simple, meaningful expressions in English, the easier it will be. A very important way of helping pupils progress from dependence on the book and on the teacher to independence is to give them the necessary tools. One of the tools is classroom language.

For example, few children of five will admit that they don't know the answer to a question. Nor will they ask for more information if they don't understand what they have to do. Very often they will just do what they think you want them to do. So teaching them phrases like, 'I'm sorry, I don't know' or 'I don't understand' helps their development, their language, and their ability to communicate meaningfully in the classroom and elsewhere. Children in the older age group have developed beyond this stage in their own language, but need the expressions in the foreign language.

Here are some phases which all your pupils should learn as soon as possible. Note that they should be taught as phrases, not as words or structures. Children are only interested in what the phrases are used for. Some are very specific, most can be used in lots of different situations, and most give children a short cut to being foreign language classroom.

Good morning/afternoon Goodbye
Can I .... please?
Sorry, I don't know/don't understand/can't.
What's this called in English?/What's the English for…….?
Whose turn is it/book is this/chair is this?

Whose turn is it to .... ?

It's my/your/his/her turn. . Pass the………….. please.

Do remember 'please' and 'thank you' - they help a lot. So do the words for all the things in the classroom. Have picture dictionaries to help the children with the more common words.
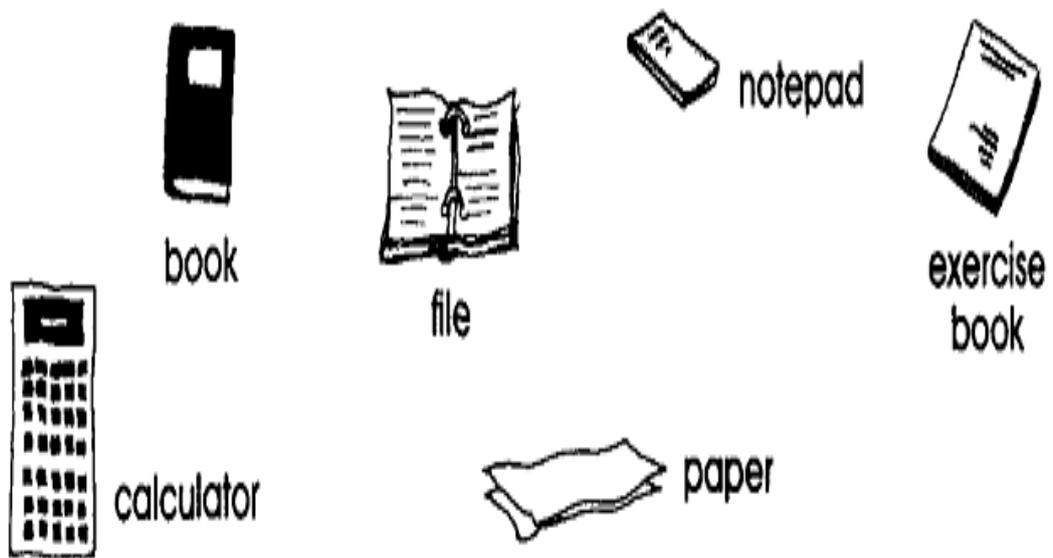
Try to speak English as much of the time as you can, using mime, acting, puppets and any other means you can think of to get your meaning across. Your pupils are unlikely to have the opportunity to hear English all day so you should let them hear as much as possible while you have them in class. Keep your language simple but natural, and keep it at their level.

You will have to decide for yourself how much mother tongue language you use - it depends very largely on your own individual class. Remember that you can very often convey the meaning of what you are saying by your tone of voice and your body language - you don't always have to switch languages.

Task 1..Brainstorm on teacher's and pupils' classroom expressions and complete bubbles.
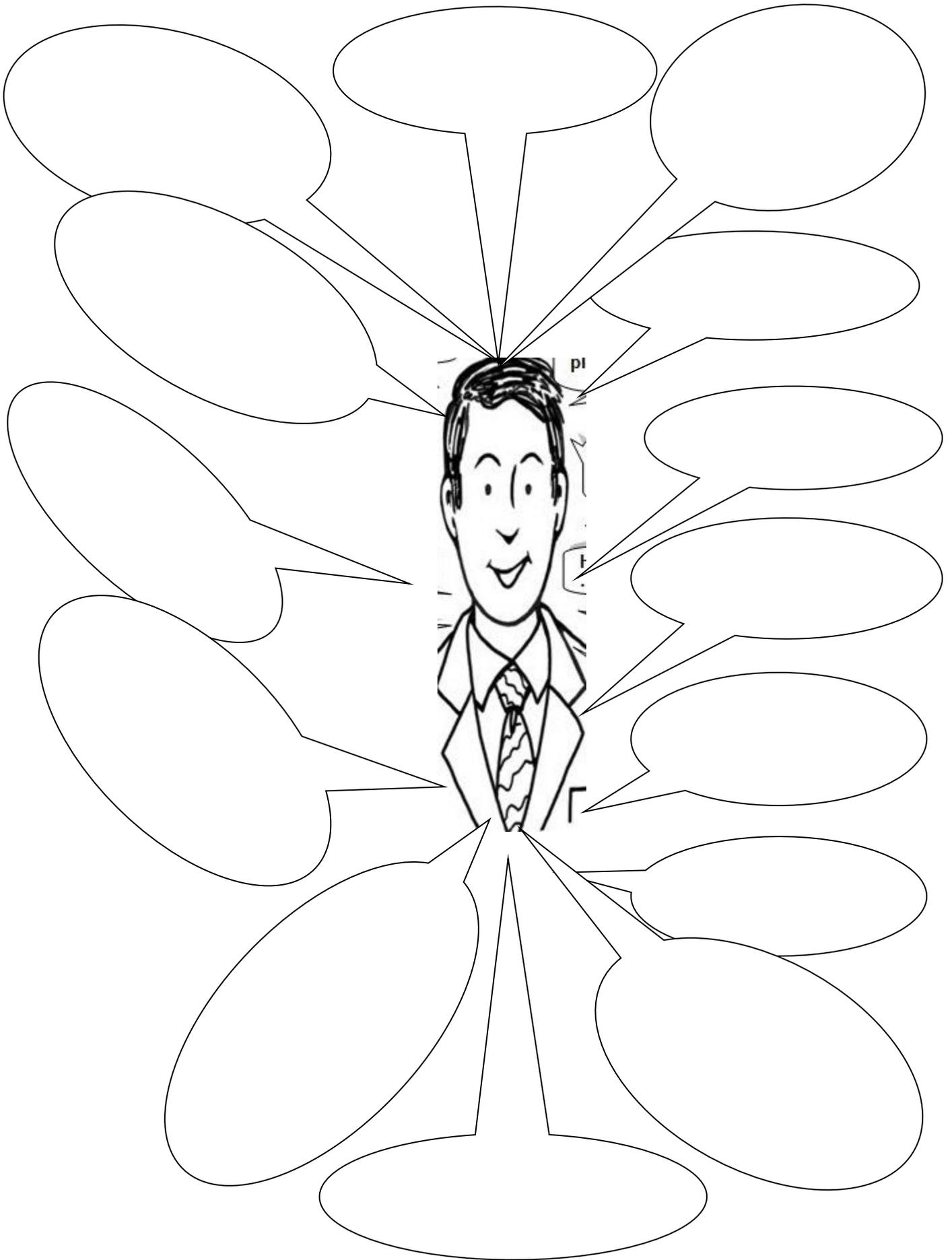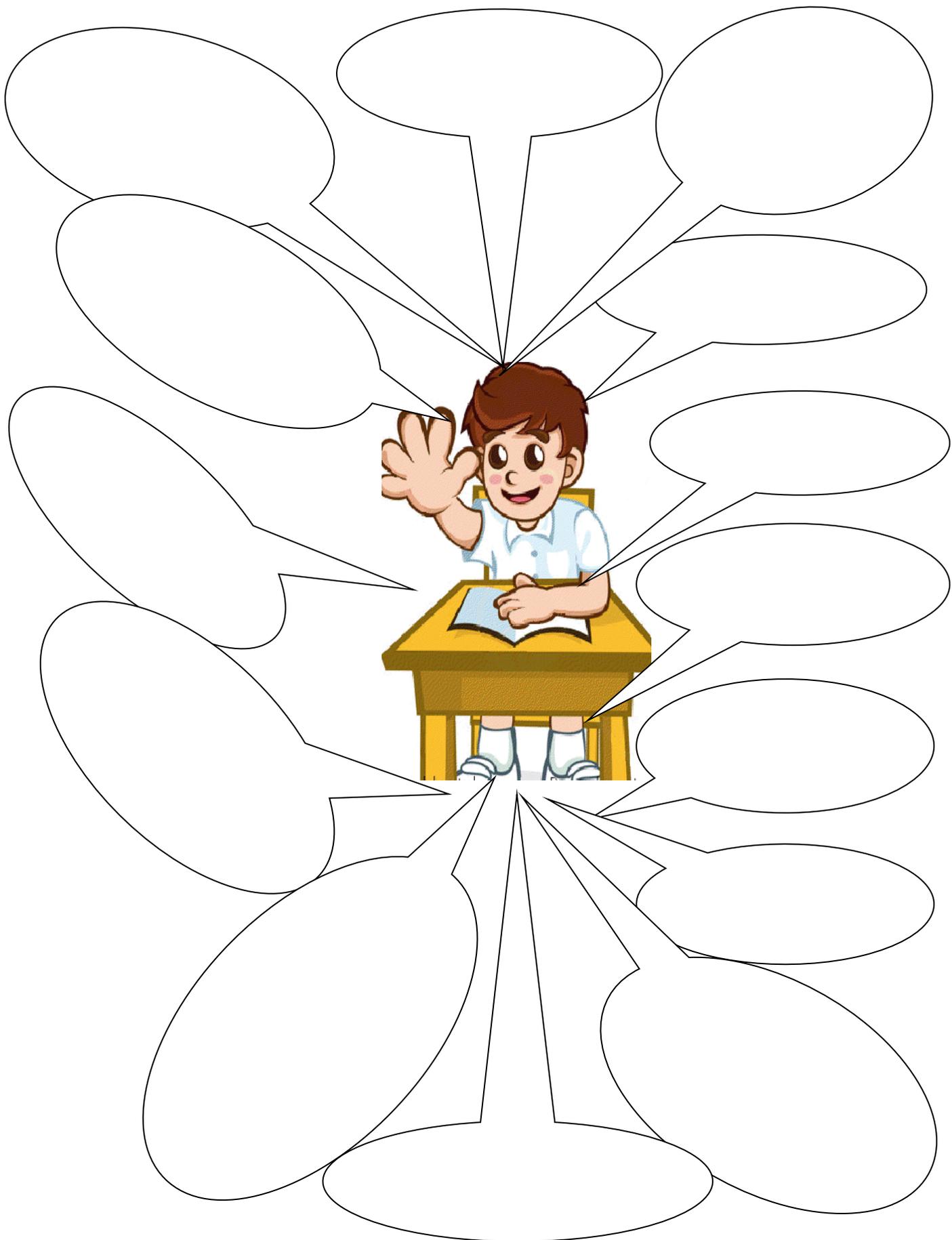
Task 2. A) Work individually first and write which language did your teachers use in your classes in order to…….(Uzbek, Russian, English, other?) and write 1-2 example phrases in English for each.

a)   …introduce the lesson

b)   …give feedback to learners

c)   …praise

d)   … give instructions

e)   …close the lesson

B) Get into groups of four and discuss the similarities and differences between your answers and discuss the reasons for this. And report your findings to the whole group.

Note: Teacher's instructions can be of different functions/purposes: **E.G.** instructions on grouping (form groups of 3; can you join that group; I would like you to work in groups of four), moving around (take your chairs and come to the middle of the room; come to the middle of the room and make a circle), doing tasks (read the text; underline the unknown words) etc

Task 3. Look at the examples of categories based on language functions and their samples. a) Fill in the table with missing examples A-J. And try to add one more your own phrase to match the objectives. Check the answers with your teacher.

A. That's interesting! That really is very kind of you. Don't worry about it. I was a bit disappointed with your results.	**D.** Can you all see the board? Have you found the place? Are you all ready?
B. Who would you like to read? Which topic will your group report on? Do you want to answer question 6?	**E.** Let me explain what I want you to do next. The idea of this exercise is for you to make...
C. What was the house like? What do you think about this problem? Yes, but now can you tell?	**F.** Could you try the next one. I would like you to write this down. Would you mind switching the lights on. It might be an idea to leave this till next time.
J. Good morning. Have a nice weekend. Thanks for your help. Happy birthday!	

Language functions related to	Objectives	Sample phrases
A. Organization A1 Giving Instructions	T. gives appropriate instructions related to recurrent classroom activities, e.g. using textbooks, group work	Open your books at page 73. Come out and write it on the board. Listen to the tape, please. Get into groups of four. Finish this off at home. Let's sing a song.
	T. can control the pupil's behavior by means of commands, requests, and suggestions. Usage should correspond to native-speaker usage.	**1.**
	T. can vary the form of instructions in order to show the range of possibilities in the foreign language.	Everybody, please. All together, now. The whole class, please. I want you all to join in.
	T. can offer the alternatives i.e. different working methods, themes, groups.	**2.**
A2. Sequencing	T. can sequence the lesson effectively and communicate this sequencing to the learners.	First of all today... Right. Now we shall go on to exercise 67. All finished? OK. For the last thing today, let's...
	T. can check what stage the learners have reached, whose turn it is, and so on.	Whose turn is it to read? Which question are you on? Next one, please. Who hasn't answered a question yet?
	T. can introduce the class to a new activity and new	**3.**

	stage of the lesson.	
	T. can set time-limits related to various activities.	You have ten minutes to do this. Your time is up. Finish this by twenty to ten.
	T. can check that all learners are equally capable of starting the next stage of the lesson.	**4.**
A3 Supervision	T. can direct pupil's attention to lesson content.	Look this way. Stop talking. Listen to what Alan is saying. Leave it alone now!
	T. can give warnings and threats.	Be careful of the lead... One more word and...
B Interrogation B1 Asking questions	T. can ask questions related to specific communicative tasks, e.g. giving a description, opinion, reason, or stimulating conversation.	**5.**
B2 Replying to questions	T. can give verbal confirmation of learners' replies and/or guide them to the correct reply.	Yes, that's right. Fine. Almost. Try it again. What about this word here?
	T. can give encouraging feedback both in controlled drill-type exercises and freer freer conversation.	Very good. That's more like it. Could you explain what you mean?
C Explanation C1 Metalanguage	T. can produce and also get the learners to produce a translation, a paraphrase, a summary, a definition, a correct spelling, a correct pronunciation and grammatical corrections.	What is the Swedish for "doll"? Explain it in you own words. It's spelt with a capital 'J'. Can anybody correct the sentence?
	T. can give written and spoken instructions for tasks.	Fill in the missing words. Mark the right alternative.
D Interaction	T. can express anger,	**6.**

D1 Affective attitudes	interest, surprise, friendship, appreciation, pity, sympathy, disappointment, etc. as needed by the classroom situation.	
D2 Social ritual	T. can use everyday phrases related to recurrent social situations, e.g. greeting, leaving, apologizing, thanking, congratulating, thanking, congratulating, and other seasonal greetings.	**7.**

(Hughes 1981:9-11)

Task 4. Read and translate the following expressions into English:

CLASSROOM EXPRESSIONS

IN RUSSIAN	AND UZBEK	IN ENGLISH
1. Повторите!	1. Takrorlang!	
2. Прекратите разговаривать!	2. Gapirishni to'xtating!	
3. Успокойтесь.	3. Tinchlaning!	
4. Выйди к доске.	4. Doska oldiga keling!	
5. Кто сегодня отсутствует?	5. Bugun kim yo'q?	
6. Всем внимание!	6. Diqqat!	
7. Закройте окно, пожалуйста.	7. Iltimos, derazani yoping!	
8. Кто вытрет доску?	8. Kim doskani tozalaydi?	

9. Откройте учебники на странице19.	9. Darslikning 19 betini oching!	
10. Сегодня/На сегодняшнем уроке мы будем проходить…	10. Bugun/ Bugungi darsda biz… mavzusini o'ta boshlaymiz.	
11. А теперь посмотрите на упражнение 3 настранице26	11. Endi 26 betdagi 3-mashqqa. qarang.	
12. Прочтите текст про себя.	12. Matnni ovoz chiqarmay o'qib chiqing.	
13. Когда закончите, поднимите руку	13. Tugatganingizda qo'lingizni ko'taring.	
14. Не выкрикивайте ответ.	14. Javobni baland ovozda aytmang.	
15. Как вы ответили навопрос2? Кто ответил по-другому?	15. 2-savolga qanday javob berdingiz? Kimning javobi boshqacha?	
16. Все согласны?	16. Hamma shu fikrga qo'shiladimi?	
17. Ещё варианты?	17. Boshqa javoblar bormi?	
18. Говорите громче, пожалуйста.	18. Iltimos, balandroq gapiring.	
19. На сегодня всё.	19. Bugungi darsimiz shu.	
20. Закончите это упражнение дома.	20. Bu mashqni uyda yakuniga yetkazing.	
21. Дома выполнитеупражнение3 письменно.	21. Uyda 3-mashqni yozma bajaring.	
22. Сдайте свои работы/ домашнее задание, пожалуйста.	22. Marhamat, ishlaringizni/ uy vazifalaringizni topshiring.	

Homeassignment

1. Translate the examples of classroom language into English.

1. Kitoblarni shkafdan ol va tarqat.

   _____

2. Daftarlarni javondan oling va uzatib yuboring.

   _____

3. Bu qog'ozlarni tarqating (gir aylantirib).

   _____

4. Bittadan olib qoling va qolganini uzatib yuboring.

   _____

5. Hamma bittadan olib qolishi uchun bularni uzatib yuboring.

   _____

6. Ularni o'zingiz bilan olib qolishingiz mumkin. (Вы можете их себе оставить)_____

7. Uchtangiz bitta kitob bilan ishlashingizga to'g'ri keladi.

   _____

8. Butun guruh uchun faqat bitta lug'at.

   _____

9. Har biringiz mashqni (nushasini) oldingizmi?

   _____

10. Bu safar Nodira bilan bo'lish ?

    _____

11. Keyingi safar uni uyda qoldirma.

    _____

12. Biror kim Shahloga kitob berib tura oladimi.

    _____

13. Har bir qatordan bittangiz turib test varaqalarini yig'ib chiqing.

    _____

2. Make up as many classroom phrases as possible.

Make sure		you hand in all your papers
Remember	to	you return all the papers.
Try	not to	put your name on it.
Be sure	(that)	hand in your answer sheet.
Don't forget		forget it next time.
		you write your name on it.

3. Change the direct Wh- questions into indirect questions using phrases as *do you know…, have you idea…, can you tell me…, let me ask …, do you think…* You can write several possible options.

1. Why is this answer better?
2. What does this word mean?
3. When did the lesson start?
4. Who invented the transistor?

Self-study work

■ Create your own book with the expressions of classroom language and collect them under the each headings. As

a) introduce the lesson
b) giving feedback
c) praise
d) giving instructions
e) close the lesson
f) Taking the register (= roll call)
g) Initial chitchat
h) Waiting to start
i) Getting started/ getting down to business
j) Unusual starting tactics
k) Stating your aims
l) Lateness
m) Tests
n) Commands
o) Questions
p) Students responses
q) Direction
r) Requests
s) Miscellaneous

§7. Classroom Language: *Questioning*

As the education has already welcomed the 21st century's dawn, we has entered the personal digitization information age, and it have appeared many changes in classroom teaching and in the students' activities since the educational reform. Teaching has become more scientific, interesting and vivid. Teachers' questioning has traditionally been viewed as an important component of teacher talk and the core of effective teaching in classroom context. Asking questions is one of the most common teaching tactics used. Qualitative questions directly influence the classroom activities. Effective questions depend on the using of teachers' skills.

➤ Read the quotation and express your opinion on it.

Teaching is more about asking the right questions than answering them.

Questioning is a universally used activation technique in teaching, mainly within the Initiation-Response-Feedback pattern.

Note that teacher questions are not always realized by interrogatives. For example, the question:

'*What can you see in this picture?*' *may be expressed by the statement:*

'*We'll describe what is going on in this picture.*' *or by the command:*

'*Tell me what you can see in this picture.*'

So perhaps a question, in the context of teaching, may be best defined as a teacher utterance which has the objective of eliciting an oral response from the learner(s).

Task 1. Reasons for questioning

There are various reasons why a teacher might ask a question in the classroom. Read through the list of possible reasons given below, and add any more that you can think of.

REASONS FOR QUESTIONING

- To provide a model for language or thinking.

- To find out something from the learners (facts, ideas, opinions).

- To check or test understanding, knowledge or skill.

- To get learners to be active in their learning.

- To direct attention to the topic being learned.

- To inform the class via the answers of the stronger learners rather than through the teacher's input.

- To provide weaker learners with an opportunity to participate.

- To stimulate thinking (logical, reflective or imaginative); to probe more deeply into issues;

- To get learners to review and practise previously learnt material.

- To encourage self-expression.

- To communicate to learners that the teacher is genuinely interested in what they think.

Effective questioning

There have been numerous attempts to identify characteristics of effective questioning techniques in the classroom. Questions have been classified according to various different criteria: what kind of thinking they try to elicit (plain recall, for example, analysis, or evaluation); whether they are 'genuine' or 'display' questions (does the teacher really want to know the answer, or is he or she simply checking if the student does?); whether they are closed- or open- ended (do they have a single right answer or many?); and many others.

However, in the present context, we propose concentrating on a few basic principles that would seem to characterize effective questions within the conventional IRF structure, defining 'effective questions' in terms of the desired response. As language teachers, our motive in questioning is usually to get our

students to engage with the language material actively through speech; so an effective questioning technique is one that elicits fairly prompt, motivated, relevant and full responses. If, on the other hand, our questions result in long silences, or are answered by only the strongest students, or obviously bore the class, or consistently elicit only very brief or unsuccessful answers, then there is probably something wrong.

CRITERIA FOR EFFECTIVE QUESTIONING

1.   Clarity: do the learners immediately grasp not only what the question means, but also what kind of an answer is required?

2.   Learning value: does the question stimulate thinking and responses that will contribute to further learning of the target material? Or is it irrelevant, unhelpful or merely time-filling?

3.   Interest: do learners find the question interesting, challenging, stimulating?

4.   Availability: can most of the members of the class try to answer it? Or only the more advanced, confident, knowledgeable? (Note that the mere addition of a few seconds' wait-time before accepting a response can make the question available to a significantly larger number of learners.)

5.   Extension: does the question invite and encourage extended and/or varied answers?

6.   Teacher reaction: are the learners sure that their responses will be related to with respect, that they will not be put down or ridiculed if they say something inappropriate?

Task 2. Critical analysis of teacher questions

Look at the exchanges in following box, which are loosely based on events actually observed in classrooms. Can you identify what the purpose of the teacher is in questioning, and comment on the way he or she went about it, perhaps applying

the criteria suggested above? See the Comments section below for my own criticisms.

TEACHER QUESTIONING

Exchange 1

T: Now today we are going to discuss circuses. Have you ever been to a circus?
Ss: (immediately) Yes, yes.
T: Yes. Where you see clowns, and horses and elephants and acrobats...

Exchange 2

T: Yesterday we learned various words that express feelings. Can you tell me...What does 'relief' mean?
(pause)
Well, when might you feel relief?
(pause)
Can you remember a time when you felt relief? Yes, Maria?
S1: When my friend was late, I thought he wasn't coming and then he came.
T: Good...Fran?
S2: I thought I will fail the exam, and then in the end I pass.
T: Good. Now: 'fear'?

Exchange 3

T: Right: what was the story about? Can anyone tell me? Claire?
S: Man.
T: Yes, a man. What did this man do? Can you tell me anything about him?
S: He...married.

Exchange 4

T: Here's a picture, with lots of things going on. Tell me some of them. For example: the policeman is talking to the driver, perhaps he's telling him where to go. What else?
S1: The little girl is buying an ice-cream.
S2: There's a woman, old woman, in the middle, she's crossing the road.
S3: A man...sitting...on chair...
T: OK, a man is sitting on a chair, there in the corner...What else?

Homeassignment

➤ **Read the article about classroom questioning and make a short report providing with examples.**

Classroom questioning is the main part of classroom teaching, and is one of the teaching methods to get the aim of classroom teaching. Teachers want to get students' responses and the first step is to answer questions. Through consistent dialog and communication again, the teacher can get the answers they want and evaluate the students. Questioning, as a general way used by teachers in class, plays an important role in classroom teaching. Questions are used to evaluate students' knowledge and understanding of subject matter. Questions can help to review essential content in a subject. Questions can be used to control the social behavior of students.

Types of Questioning in English Classes

Much of teachers' talk relates to questions[1] and substantial research exists demonstrating that questions can assist learners in improving their linguistic ability.[2] Chaudron goes further, warning that poor questioning practice can be counter-productive.

Studies of questioning have proposed various categories of questions, and questionscan be classified by the type of response they solicit or the purpose they serve. A taxonomy of question types is given as Table 1.

Question types	Explanation	Noted by
Closed	Have a short, fixed answer, for example "What day is it today?"	Barnes
Open	Typically require a longer, less limited response, for example "What did you do yesterday?"	
Display	Those to which the questioner already knows the answer and is merely testing the respondent's knowledge or understanding.	Brown
Referential	Those to which the questioner does not know the answer and is genuinely seeking information.	
Procedural	Relate to classroom, lesson and student control processes such as "Who is absent today?"	Richards and

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[1] Holland, R. and T. Shortall . Classroom Research and Research Methods. (Center for English Language Studies, Birmingham: Birmingham University, 1998).
[2] Mc Donough, J. and C. Shaw. Materials and Methods in ELT. (Oxford: Blackwell,1993).

Convergent	Often have short answers which "encourage similar student responses" and require low level thought processing, for example "Can you ski?" "Yes, I can." "No, I can't."	
Divergent	Necessitate more wide-ranging, long responses with higher level thought processing, for example "Why is the Beatle music so popular in Japan?"	
Rhetorical	Those which the questioner answers him/herself.	
Interaction	Comprehension checks: "elicits assurance from the listener that a message has been received correctly." Confirmation checks: assume a positive response and "allow the speaker to correctly interpret reactions by the listener." Clarification requests: similar to confirmation requests but with a more open answer.	Chaudr
Instruction al	Any question presented in the classroom presupposes that the question is intended to solicit learner production.	Van Lie
Conversati onal	Any question asked outside the classroom	

Table 1. A Taxonomy of Question Types[3]

All of these types of questions have their places in the interactive classroom. Among all the types of questions, the distinction between "display" and "referential" question is an important one given the emphasis on meaningful communication in the language classroom. That is, in social communication, people do not generally ask questions to which they already know the answer. Besides the fact that the questioner genuinely wants to know the answer in this case, the meaning of an utterance is also subject to negotiation between the speaker and the hearer. However, this kind of negotiation of meaning is often absent in the classroom. The meaning of the teacher's question and what constitutes an appropriate answer is usually predetermined by the teacher. Therefore, it is necessary to point out the advantages and the disadvantages of display and referential questions. A further classroom research study has been carried out into

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[3] Cited by Chaudron; (Note 6) Cited by Nunan (Note 7)

the use of display and referential questions in language classrooms. And it will be analyzed later in the part of "Skills of Designing for Questioning".

The Role and Function of Question

Questions in the class serve as different functions. According to Kauchak and Eggert, the functions can be basically grouped into three categories: diagnostic, instructional and motivational, but a single question can usually serve more than one function. As a diagnostic tool, classroom questions allow the teacher to glimpse into the minds of students to find out not only what they know or don't know but also how they think about a topic.[4] The instructional function means that questions can be used as a technique to facilitate learners to learn the new knowledge in the learning process. As to motivational function, skillful use of questions can effectively involve students in the classroom discourse, encouraging and challenging them to think.

In terms of its functions, there are several detailed reasons why questions are so commonly used in teaching and learning:

· They stimulate and maintain students' interest.

· They encourage students to think and focus on the content of the lesson. They enable a teacher to clarify what a student has said.

· They enable a teacher to elicit a particular structure or vocabulary items.

· They enable teachers to check students' understanding.

· They encourage student participation in a lesson. [5]

Besides its various functions, the author wants to draw attention to the point that questions can also contribute a lot to the classroom interaction structure. As a two-way interaction, questioning process has its potential to stimulate students' interaction, thinking and learning.[6] The use of questions can thus change the way of teacher monologue and involve students in the active classroom interaction, which is much helpful to the development of their language competence.

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[4] Kanchak, D. and P. D. Eggen. Learning and Teaching.(Mass: Allyn and Bacon, 1989)
[5] Cited from Richards&Lockhart (Note 9)
[6] Kindsvatter, R. W. Willen.& M. Ishler. Dynamics of Effective Teaching. (New York: Longman, 1988)

As for teachers' questioning, there are still many problems. First, many high school teachers are not fully aware of the effects of teachers' questioning on classroom interaction. Second, they pay little attention to the strategies of questioning in the classroom interaction. As a result, the teachers' questioning is only a superficial form of classroom activity, lacking in the practical value. It can't really stimulate students' initiatives, nor can it develop their interactive competence.

Skills of Questioning in English Classes

The validity of questioning relies on the skills of questioning. Norton and other researchers proposed some skills according to their research, they are sequence of questions, directing, probing, increasing waiting-time, encouraging student questions and so on. The skills of questioning involved four stages of questioning, they are preparation, asking question, students organizing answer, teacher providing the feedback. So the skills of questioning can be divided into four parts: skills of preparing, designing, controlling and evaluating for questioning in English classes.

Skills of Preparing for Questioning

Effective questions request teachers make preparation before class. Even if some teachers can ask questions extemporaneously, sometimes the arrangement of questioning lack logic in many situations, or there are problems in language organization and the questions cannot make students use the knowledge or skills to answer as expected. So before asking questions in class, the preparation is required as follows:

Deciding on the Purpose for Questioning

Teachers ask questions with several goals and aims: Different styles of lessons, teaching goals have corresponding questioning strategies. Teacher should take different skills and methods of questioning.

To lead learners in to the topic. The teacher should ask the students some preview questions to introduce the topic before the actual start of the classroom interaction. The purposes of doing so lie in two aspects: one is to arouse the learning interest and curiosity of the students for them to participate in the classroom activities promptly; the other is to direct the students to the actual process of the class interactions without having students feel bored and discouraged. And the students will automatically respond to the teacher with enthusiasm. Thus creating the satisfactory atmosphere in the classroom interaction is very important. To check or test the learners' ability of understanding, or practical skills of language. In any classroom interaction, the teachers should know beforehand the basic abilities of the learners or the students to make their teaching more effective. The questions should be the basic facts of the reading materials or the general development of the stories. By these questions, the teacher will know how much and how well the students have grasped the reading materials and how well they can do in the classroom interaction. And this also gives an idea to the students how they should do in the classroom interaction.

In all, with the goals in mind, teachers can predetermine the types of questions they are going to ask. And the goals of teachers' questioning will affect some other aspects of questioning skills, including question designing, question controlling and handling students' responses.

Selecting Content for Questioning

Teacher's questions give guidance to emphasis of students' study. It is very important for teachers to choose key contents to design questions. On the contrary, the questioning based on non-key contents will confuse students.

In classroom language teaching, students' learning is mainly based on teachers questioning, so the content teachers choose to question is quite important. This practice will lead the students to see the content that teachers view as important. If teachers have difficulties in building questions about all lessons, they should formulate questions prior to class, anticipating the range of students' possible

responses. Ask focused, clearly worded questions that give students a clear indication of expectations for responses. Teachers should be sure that the content of the questions requires responses, corresponding with the purpose of the question. Do not ask students to name an example when what the teacher really wants is an explanation of an example. It may be a problem that the teacher is unsatisfied with students' responses. Analyze the questions and determine the kinds and levels of your questions. Ask questions which conform to the students' development level. If students are not knowledgeable in the content, teachers ask concrete level questions rather than abstract level questions.

Phrasing the Questions

The answer to questions should be more than just Yes/No. Questions should be clear and the students should easily be able to see what you want for a response. Do not confuse the students. Ask questions with understandable vocabulary. If students are unfamiliar with the terms that you use, it is unlikely that they will give you back what you are looking for.

Use familiar terminology when phrasing questions. Be sure the questions you ask are clear in your own mind, and think through what you want from the students before you ask the questions. The questions teachers ask should be those that solicit student responses and provide instructional cues that convey the content to be learned or provide directions toward the content to be learned in a classroom setting. Questions are also used to help students know what they are to do and how they are to do it. Questioning should be challenging and interesting. It can stimulate the pursuit of knowledge and encourage passive students to get involved in. Answering questions should be brief, and try to avoid answering yes or no. Good question can stimulate students to discuss and think. Do not raise general questions, such as: What about foreign affairs? What did we say about chemical bending?

Anticipating Problems

The teacher can know the learners' inherent knowledge by asking them two kinds of questions: the one-word answer question and multi-answer question. (Note 12)The first question will show whether the students have grasped the knowledge. And the second question will show how well the learners can make

use of the knowledge that they have grasped, and to what degree the learners can demonstrate their ability in communicating with others. By comparison, the second question appears more conducive to classroom interaction than in the first one. Therefore, when the teacher aims at eliciting information from students, they had better ask the second kind of questions. Teachers should predict the students' possible answers, and prepare to give some guidance to the questions. And the teacher should prepare for the situation where students cannot give the answer and students refuse to answer questions and so on.

Skills of Designing for Questioning

Compared with question planning, question designing is more closely connected with questioning skills and techniques. It refers to choosing the proper ways of asking questions and selecting the types of questions. Questioning designing strategy refers to methods and skills teachers choose to raise appropriate questions. In this part, the methods and skills include simplifying, moderating, asking thought-provoking questions, asking challenging questions, asking follow-up questions, asking questions relevant to students, and asking divergent questions.

Increasing the Number of Referential Questions

Referential questions are those questions for which the answer is not already known by the teacher. Such questions may require interpretations and judgments on the part of the "answerer". Display questions refer to those questions for which the questioner knows the answer beforehand; such questions are usually asked for comprehension checks, confirmation check, or clarification requests. It was further observed that referential questions produced more classroom interaction.
Swain argues that output may be an important factor in successful second language acquisition. She suggests that output creates the necessity for the learner to perform a syntactic analysis of the language. She further notes that comprehending the input or getting the message is possible without such an analysis. Producing one's own messages, on the other hand, it may force the learner to pay attention to the means of expression to successfully convey his/her intended meaning. If it is true

that such questions increase the amount of learner output, and if output leads to better learning, then questions can be an important tool in the language classroom, especially in those EFL contexts where the classroom provides the only opportunity to produce the target language. It was inferred from the obtained data that display questions require short answers containing small pieces of information, such as part of speech, word stress, intonation, antonyms and synonyms, word pronunciation and meaning, comprehension checks, etc. Brock and Long and Sato have reported that classroom interaction was characterized by the use of display questions. However, it seems that the use of display questions can encourage language learners, especially beginners, to get interested. It may also help teachers provide comprehensible input for learners. Referential questions, typical of content classrooms and high proficiency language classrooms, and usually requiring long and syntactically complex answers contain, in fact, important points, e.g. interpretation, elaboration, giving opinions, etc.

So, it would be dangerous to generalize that referential questions are more useful for language teaming or display ones are useless. Each context requires an appropriate strategy for itself. It is important for teachers to adjust their teaching style to learners' strategies.

Asking Questions Related to Students

There are always silent students in the class, and the silent students will always be there in the class. They should be encouraged to participate in the classroom activities or the classroom interactions. In order to get the silent students to be active in the class interactions, the teachers should develop some methods to arouse the learning interest of the silent students. The teacher should begin by asking some tentative questions to arouse the silent students instead of asking them what their opinions can be about the reading materials or their personal ideas about the phenomenon in the world of practice. And the students can participate in the interactions actively accordingly. And the question must related to students or the

information known by students, if not, they will not interested in it or participate in it.

Skills of Controlling for Questioning

Since the focus of interactive teaching is interaction between teachers and students, in the course of teachers' questioning and students' answering, more efforts should be made on the controlling practice to enhance the interactive effect in language teaching. Some strategies employed by teachers are like these: sequencing, that is, arrange the questions from easy ones to more difficult; nominating after the question; nominating non-volunteers; question redirecting and probing; increasing wait-time and directing attention to all and so on. In this paper a few aspects are emphasized as follows:

1 Nominating after the Question

The way of questioning is asking questions first, giving students time to think and then ask nominating student to answer. If you nominate students before you asking question, there will be just the nominated student thinking this question, while the other students considered not involved.

2 Nominating Non-volunteers

Students become distracted easily or do something by their own. When teachers ask questions, they can ask silent students deliberately, it can let students pay attention to your class. Non- volunteers will think they are taken seriously when teachers ask a question to them. And they will feel very well and they will participate in classroom instructions after that, and they will feel spunky.

3 Probing

Probing is another important questioning skill. (Note 16)Probes are based on student responses. The initial response of students may be superficial. The instructor needs to use a questioning strategy called probing to make students explore initial comments. Probes are useful in getting students more involved in critical analysis of their own and other students' ideas. If the student does not provide a complete answer, he or she may know a partial answer. In some cases,

even though the question is perfectly clear to the teacher; it might need to be restated or broken down into smaller pieces. The teacher should not accept "I don't know" as the final response.

Probing is the use of further questions to force the student to put together his or her partial knowledge into a more complete answer. Probing often involves the use of follow-on or leading questions to help the students answer the initial question or to provide a more complete answer. Probes can be used in different ways. Probes can be used to:

· Analyze a student's statement, make a student aware of underlying assumptions, or justify or evaluate a statement.

· Help students deduce relationships. Instructors may ask student to judge the implications of their statements or to compare and contrast concepts.

4 Increasing Wait-time

An important dimension of teacher's questioning skills is halting time, or wait time, that is, the length of time the teacher waits after asking the question before calling on a student to answer it, rephrasing the question., directing the question to another student, or giving the answer. That is called wait time, and it is amazing how few teachers use this important questioning skill. In fact, when we consider the steps that are involved for a second language speaker in answering a question, an argument can be made that he needs an even longer wait time than a native speaker. In fact, it seems clear that if teachers asked questions, which they did not already know the answers, they would find it natural to wait for responses, and they would need time to think about the responses before reacting to them.

It takes time to answer questions, a lot of studies shown in their investigations that students were rarely given sufficient time to formulate their answers before the teacher repeated, rephrased, or went on to ask another student the question. Rowe found that teachers, on average, waited less than a second before calling a student to respond, and that only a further second was then allowed for the student to

answer before the teacher intervened, either supplying the required response themselves, rephrasing the question, or calling on some other student to respond[7].

In short, few teachers give their students enough wait-time to think about the questions or to form meaningful answers. The average wait time, when the teacher waits at all after a question, is less than a second. There should be at least 2 to 4 seconds after any question before any student is called on to answer it. Wait time allows the reflective student a chance to respond and well as the impulsive student or one who instantly knew the answer. If no one wants to tackle the question after 15 seconds, leave it unanswered. Tell the students to think about the answer and you will raise the question again at the beginning of the next class period.

5 Directing Attention to All

In actual classroom interaction, the teacher will automatically cover high achievers, focus on the students in the first few rows and choose the selected few students to answer questions. And the teacher may not sometimes realize this when asking students questions. All these will result in the improper distribution of the questions to the students.

The solution to the imbalanced distribution of the students is to keep the teacher aware of the whole class in teaching activities, and the teacher should cover all the students in the classroom while focusing on high-achievers and low-achievers at the same time, thus arousing the leaning interest of all the students. And the teacher will pay attention to the whole class when asking the whole class the questions, not only high-achievers and low-achievers but also students of middle levels in the class. On the other hand, the teacher will generally ask the students in the first rows and the selected few students questions in the class. Distributing questions in this way also results in negative effects on students in that some students feel that they are neglected, thus decreases their learning interest in classroom activities.

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[7] http://www.ou.edu/cas/english/comp/ASKINGQUESTIONS.htm

There are generally two approaches to these problems in class activities. One is that the teacher should pay attention to the whole class when asking students questions. The other is that the teacher should ask questions to the whole class from simple to complicated degrees instead of focusing on the few students with difficult questions. That is, the teacher should get to know well about the personalities and individual needs of their students so that they can treat them respectively.

Distribute questions among students so that all have a chance to respond. Call on non-volunteers; students may have become dependent upon you to provide answers. Avoid depending upon the same few students to answer questions all the time. Their responses may not necessarily be representative of the larger group. Tactfully thank them for their continuous contributions, and ask for other volunteers. Call upon non-volunteers in a friendly non-threatening manner.

Develop a questioning strategy: if you ask questions, do not allow only a few students to monopolize the responding. Opportunity to respond should be available to all. Note that teachers are likely to call on the same students, those who have the right answers to get the reinforcement of a correct answer. Engage many students; does not allow a minority of more confident or impulsive students to dominate the class. Present challenging and stimulating questions to all students, not just those perceived as having higher ability or knowledge. You may need to develop a plan if you want all students to participate.

Skills of Evaluating for Questioning

An important aspect of classroom interaction is the manner in which the instructor handles student responses. When an instructor asks a question, student can either respond, or give no response. The ways instructors handle students' responses are closely connected with the effect of the interaction. Teachers' feedback is very important. The feedback consists of positive feedback and negative feedback. Positive feedback is more helpful than negative feedback to

improve the students' behavior and study motivation. Moreover, students are involved in the positive feedback of questions actively.

1 Praising

Affective Cognitive feedback gives students information about the questions they use, while affective feedback serves as emotional support which facilitates communication to continue. It is beneficial to learners' language development. Accompanied by positive affective feedback that is neither too discouraging to proceed nor so encouraging that learners see no need to change their output. To be exact, with the optimal affective feedback, positive feedback in the cognitive domain will serve as reinforcement of the forms used and neutral or negative feedback in the cognitive domain will encourage students to try again. Therefore, teachers must provide learners with cognitive feedback as well as affective support.

English teaching is a process that the teacher interacts with students. Asking and answering are the primary ways to communicate with each other, so questioning plays a central role in English class. It urges students to think actively and develops their creative thinking. Of course, there is not a rigid method of questioning. In this paper the author discussed the skills of questioning and the benefit of skills of questioning in English class with some examples on the base of analyzing some basic knowledge of questions. It will contribute to the English teachers. However, putting the skill into practice should not be the final aim of the English teacher. They should devise questions carefully, considering the specific situations and using them correctly in class. Finally, developing feasible and rational questioning **skills and teaching skills can meet the need of the** country. As long as **they do like that, our society will develop rapidly and education will** become **more and more advanced.**
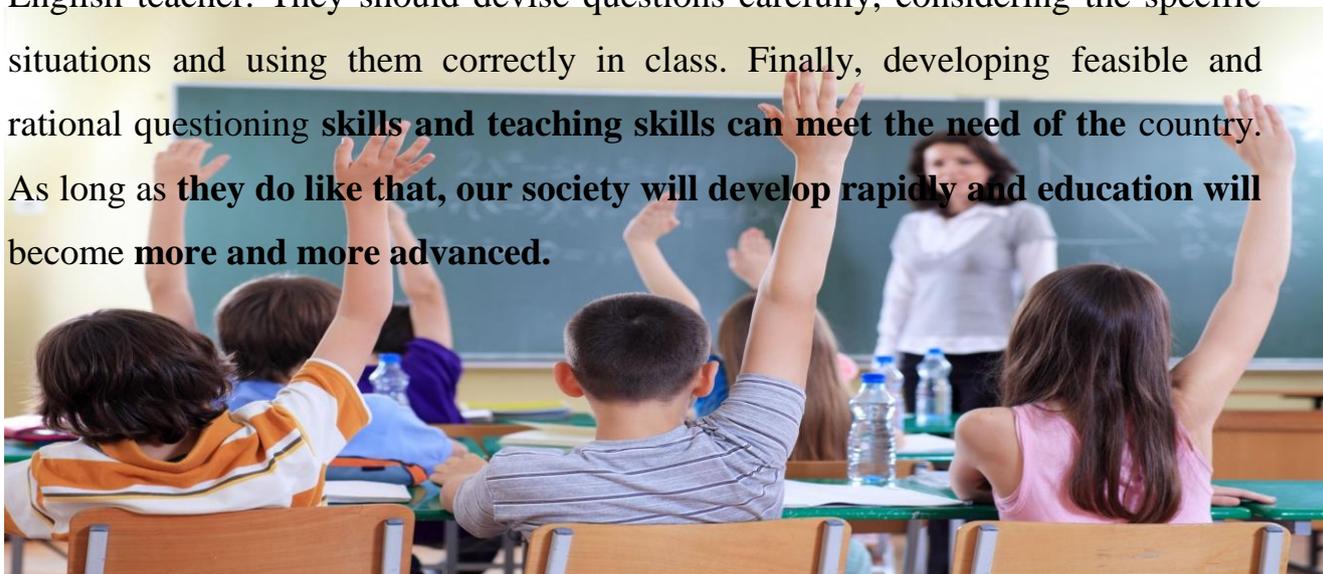
§8. Classroom Language: *Giving instructions*

This part addresses the various difficulties encountered when delivering oral classroom instructions to EFL young learners. It is essential for teachers to develop an awareness of the importance of clear oral instructions for good class management.

When introducing new material we often need also to give explicit descriptions or definitions of concepts or processes, and whether we can or cannot explain such new ideas clearly to our learners may make a crucial difference to the success or failure of a lesson. There is, moreover, some indication in research that learners see the ability to explain things well as one of the most important qualities of a good teacher.

One particular kind of explanation that is very important in teaching is instruction: the directions that are given to introduce a learning task which entails some measure of independent student activity. The task below is based on the experience of giving instructions, and the following Guidelines on effective explaining may be studied in the light of this experience. Alternatively, the Guidelines may be studied on their own and tried out in your own teaching.

Holmes groups teacher directives into three main categories: imperatives, interrogatives and declaratives

Speech Function: Directives		
1. Imperatives	Form	Example
	a. Base form of verb	*Speak louder*
	b. You + imp.	*You go on with the work*
	c. Pres. Part.	*Looking at me Hands up*
	d. Verb ellipsis	*Turn around, please Jo*
	e. Imp + modifier	*Let's try*

2. Interrogatives	a. Modals	*Will you read this page for me?*
	b. Non-modals	*People at the back are you listening?*
3. Declaratives	a. Embedded agent	*I want you to draw a picture*
	b. Hints	*Sally, you are not saying much*

It is evident that teachers' directives may be realized in a wide array of forms. Holmes found in her data that imperatives were the most frequent type in all its variants and these were explicit enough not to cause any misunderstanding except for those that contained elliptical forms. Indirect forms did not cause much trouble either special if they referred to required or proscribed activities. Most of the interpretation problems she found were related to contextual factors or behavioral expectations of the teacher.

Task 1 Giving instructions

➢ Most teachers use English a lot when giving instructions during classes. And this activity will be about giving effective instructions. Listen very carefully to the explanation below. **Read it out**.
NB *Check the pronunciation of every difficult word beforehand so that you do not make mistakes while reading. Make pauses when you read.*

If you want to prepare a delicious breakfast you should acquire an egg, wash it thoroughly in low temperature water until cleansed of any foreign or adverse substance. Obtain a heatable mug and situate the bathed egg in the procured mug for further treatment.

Douse the egg until it is completely covered with water and position the mug onto a combustible source, whereupon it should simmer for approximately one tenth of an hour until it obtains a durable quality.

Switch off the flammable source and position the mug with its contents under the cold water tap to lower the temperature of the ripened egg. Shed the outer wrapping from the egg and take immense pleasure in eating it.

➢ Answer the following questions:

~ *What did the instruction ask you to do?*

~ *Was it easy to understand? Why / Why not?*

➢ **Read out the second explanation**.

HOW TO MAKE A HARD BOILED EGG

1. Take a raw egg and wash it in cold water.

2. Take a metal mug.

3. Put the washed egg into the mug.

4. Pour cold water into the mug to cover the egg.

5. Put the mug with the egg onto the flame.

6. Boil it for 8-10 minutes.

7. Switch off the flame.

8. Put the mug with the egg under cold water to cool the egg off.

9. Peel the shell.

10. Enjoy your egg.

➢ Answer the following question:
     ~ *Which of the instructions is easier to understand? Why?*

➢ Compare the instructions and brainstorm the characteristics of effective classroom instructions and make a list of them.

Task 2.

➢ Now make instructions to the following tasks

A task.

Give your learners instructions for the following jigsaw reading activity.

A The White Cliffs of Dover are world-famous and have been of major historical importance for generations. They were formed in the Cretaceous Period (Mesozoic Era) about 65-80 million years ago, when dinosaurs walked the earth. In the sea lived billions of microscopic single-celled animals and plants, called plankton, with shells made of lime. When they died, their shells fell to the sea bed. The shells accumulated, very slowly, at a rate of around 0.015mm a year, which built up to a depth of 15 metre in one million years. The White Cliffs are a symbol of the

nation's strength against enemies and a reassuring sight to returning travellers. They have been immortalised in song, in literature and in art.

B '(There`ll Be Bluebirds Over) The White Cliffs of Dover' is one of the most famous of all the World War II era pop classics. It became a sensational hit in 1942, as it reflected the feelings of all the Allies towards the British people in their brave fight against Nazi Germany. Pilots flying to Germany from the airfields in south England would know that they had made it home safely when they saw the white cliffs of Dover, so this sight had a special significance at that time.

Originally the song was released in the U.S. by bandleader Kay Kyser. The most well known version of the song is probably the one recorded by Vera Lynn in 1942. Vera Lynn was one of Britain's leading entertainers during the war and kept up the spirits of the public when times were difficult.

B task.
Pictures – information gap

Give your learners instructions for the following information gap activity.

Task 3. Analyzing instructions

➢ You are going to analyze the instruction one of the teachers
Simon's instructions
Simon is teaching a group of pre intermediate students.

Simon: '*So what I would like you to do is this. First of all, I'd like you to imagine you're a waiter. Well, that's student A. If you were the waiter what would you do? And student B if you were the customer what would you say? Oh that's right, guys, you'll all need to look at the menu. Actually you both will. OK, so you do that and talk together. All right? OK, so what do you have to do?*

Students:[silence]

➢ give your feedbacks in written form using the questions and then share answers.

   a. *Do you think Simon's instructions are clear and easy to understand?*
   b. *Can you improve Simon's instructions? Rewrite them on a piece of paper.*
   c. *What grammar and vocabulary changes did you make to Simon's instructions?*

➢ now you will learn some hints for giving clear instructions

➤ look at each pair of sentences and choose the one that is **TRUE**

Sentences

1. a)You should use polite language otherwise students will get offended.

b)You should use simple language so the instructions are clear.

2. a)You shouldn't do a demonstration because it takes far too much time.

b)You should do a demonstration so students can see the activity in action.

3. a)You should use questions to check key aspects of the instructions.

b)You should use questions to check all aspects of the instructions.

4. a)You should hold up worksheets when giving instructions so that students look

at you.

b)You should hand out worksheets and then give instructions so students can

read what they have to do.

5. a) You shouldn't use gesture as this will distract students from what you are

saying.

b)You should use gesture because visual information can support what you are

saying.

6. a)You should never use the OHP (overhead projector) to help you give

instructions because it is awkward and it is really a bit like cheating if you do.

b)You could sometimes use an OHP to help you give instructions because you

can show a transparency of a worksheet clearly to your learners.

Task 4. Now in the following case you will search some ways of getting
instructions in the right order using the following exercise.

Put the teacher actions a – f in the left-hand column in the correct order 1-6,

so that you create a clear and logical instruction sequence.

Teacher actions	Order [1- 6]
a. give instructions	
b. hand out the work sheet	

c. hold up the work sheet	
d. gesture the interaction pattern to be used (e.g. work in pairs)	
e. get the students' attention	
f. check the instructions	

Home assignment. Checking instructions

Checking instructions

Each number below 1 – 6 is a learning activity. After each activity, there are 2 questions a) and b) that could be used to check the instructions. One question is effective, but the other is not. Choose the question that you think is most effective and write your comments on questions.

Learning activities	**Questions to check instructions**
1. role play	**a)** Are you going to write or speak together?
	b) Who speaks first?
2. mingle	**a)** Do you ask your partner or other students?
	b) Do you mingle around?
3. gist reading	**a)** Are you going to read or listen?
	b) How much time have you got?
4. information gap activity	**a)** Are you going to show your sheet to each other?
	b) So what are you going to talk about?
5. gap fill	**a)** Are you going to fill in the gap?
	b) Do you use only one word or more than one word?
6. dictation	**a)** How many times will I read the text?
	b) Who is going to write down the words?

§9. Classroom Language: *Giving oral feedback*

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

Feedback has two main distinguishable components: assessment and correction. In assessment, the learner is simply informed how well or badly he or she has performed. A percentage grade on an exam would be one example; or the response 'No' to an attempted answer to a question in class; or a comment such as 'Fair' at the end of a written assignment. In correction, some specific information is provided on aspects of the learner's performance: through explanation, or provision of better or other alternatives, or through elicitation of these from the learner. Note that in principle correction can and should include information on what the learner did right, as well as wrong, and why! - but teachers and learners generally understand the term as referring to the correction of mistakes.

Task 1. Read the thesis and discuss these questions in groups of six

1. Was the article ""**Oral feedback and other types of feedback in the classroom"** by *Noora Pirhonen informative for you?*
2. What are the types of oral feedback? Which of them is a more typical practice in our universities?
3. What is the author's idea about appropriate using of oral feedback?

Oral feedback and other types of feedback in the classroom

Feedback can be divided into different subcategories, such as written or oral feedback. We have quite substantial results concerning written feedback (for example Tainio et al. 2007, Hyland 2003). Written feedback is an area of its own, and one has to remember that feedback depends greatly on the type of task pupils

are assigned to perform. It is also significant to know in which area of writing the task is designed in the first place. For example, if the pupil is asked to use different tenses, one should mainly focus on those aspects when giving feedback, even if there are other mistakes or issues to focus on as well. Harmer (2001:110-111) has studied written feedback techniques and divided them into two groups: responding and coding.

Responding, as can be concluded from the name, is a type of a technique in which the teacher spends time reviewing the written text and writes down his/her impression about it. This might take time, but by using this technique teacher enables pupils to develop their skills for future writing assignments as well, while learning about the current task. Sometimes the responding technique can include suggestions of improvement, but the technique itself does not solely focus on writing errors. Coding appears to be more formal and error-focused. This approach includes the use of certain codes for different errors or other issues in the text. A teacher can without problems use short symbols to give feedback, and it might be easier for a pupil to read, when all the codes have been clarified earlier. Finally, a teacher can concentrate on only one or two main issues in the feedback by focusing. This resembles the practise of not everything needing to be commented on: one can only focus on one important factor, naturally informing pupils of this method as well.

In addition to the division made between written and oral feedback, feedback has been divided into other subgroups as well. For example Hargreaves et al. (2000:23, see also Arminen 2005) have divided feedback into two different subgroups on the basis of different feedback strategies: evaluative and descriptive. Researchers interviewed and examined 23 teachers and observed lessons to form conclusions about the use of feedback in a primary school. Evaluative feedback strategies included giving rewards and punishments or expressing approval and disapproval. Rewards could mean, for example, stickers or granting the pupil a chance to come and write on the blackboard, and a punishment could be, for example, taking away the reward. Approval and disapproval was made clear with different options: they could be written down, verbal or even gestures that the teacher made.

Descriptive feedback includes several points, all of them focusing on correcting an error or describing why the answer is correct, either with the help of the teacher or pupils themselves. Overall, it is in great part the teacher who decides what feedback strategy to use, and thus his/her values and beliefs can affect the end result. Moreover, the teachers in this particular study believed that pupils´ own perceptions about their learning also have an influence on their skills, so the

teachers wanted to use evaluative strategies to help them keep up their positive feelings about learning.

When focusing on oral feedback especially, a division can be made on the basis of a task type or activity. Harmer (2001:104-109) specifies oral feedback according to the situation it is being used in: if the assignment demands accurate use of a language, feedback from the teacher usually first indicates somehow that the answer is incorrect and, secondly, helps the pupil to fix the error if needed. It is essential to inform the pupil whether the phrase used was correct or not, so that the pupil learns from his/her mistakes and understands how to correct the error. Furthermore, if the task is communicative and the goal is to improve oral skills, the teacher should not correct grammatical errors, and should use gentle correction. Interfering with pupils´ fluent speech activity can cause more problems than help, because it can interrupt students´ flow of thought. In communicative tasks it is highly important to let pupils interact with each other: even if there are grammatical mistakes or other minor errors, they still learn to use the language and improve their skills. However, it is for the teacher to decide when it is profitable to interfere and help them to correct their speech. Sometimes it is the pupils that ask for help, which often indicates their interest in developing their language skills.

Task 2. Read and learn the research material and share your discussion by presenting your findings with your group.

Feedback categories

125 different oral feedback items were found from the data. They were divided into three basic groups: evaluative feedback, descriptive feedback (Hargreaves 2000:23) and other feedback (table 1.).

Table 1. Types of feedback.

Feedback type	Number of feedback events	Percentage %
Evaluative	69	55.2
Descriptive	25	20
Other	31	24.8
Total	**125**	**100**

Table 2. Evaluative feedback.

Evaluative feedback	**Number**	**Percentage %**
Approval, reward	58	84.1
Disapproval, punishment	11	15.9
Total	**69**	**100**

Evaluative feedback, according to Hargreaves (2000:23), is divided into two basic subcategories: feedback that shows approval and/or rewards, and feedback that shows disapproval and can include a punishment as well. The dominant category in evaluative feedback is clearly the one that shows positive feedback: out of the 69 evaluative feedback items 58 were showing approval. Moreover, only 11 out of the 69 can be considered as negative feedback. The results prove that the teacher indeed spend more time giving positive feedback to the pupils instead of showing disapproval or giving punishments, at least in this particular classroom. The results are more thoroughly analysed in the qualitative section with suitable feedback examples.

Table 3. Descriptive feedback.

Descriptive feedback	**Number**	**Percentage %**
Why the answer is correct	3	12
Help from the teacher or the pupils	22	88
Total	**25**	**100**

Hargreaves (ibid.) has divided descriptive feedback into two sections: someone describing why the answer is correctand help from the teacher or the pupils. Descriptive feedback formed the smallest subgroup of the feedback events, and it not only shows that teachers do not necessarily spend a great deal of time

explaining why something is correct or incorrect, but that they often want to involve other pupils in the discussion. 22 out of the 25 descriptive feedback items included help from the teacher himself or from the other pupils, whereas only three examples included the teacher explaining why the answer was correct. One can say that the teacher decidedly strives away from the teacher dominant class by activating the whole class.

Table 4. Other feedback.

Other	Number	Percentage %
Working atmosphere	10	32.3
General feedback	21	67.7
Total	**31**	**100**

In addition to evaluative and descriptive feedback, there were 31 feedback items that are listed in table 4. Some of this feedback was related to the working atmosphere, and the larger part was simply general feedback to the whole class: teacher giving positive feedback to the pupils for paying attention or teacher discussing with the pupils the previous classes or the assignments they had done. The general feedback was for the most part always positive, whereas the feedback related to working atmosphere was somewhat negative.

From approval to discipline

Evaluative feedback was the most dominant feedback type found in the data, consisting of approving feedback and disapproving feedback. The next example (1) is a common way of showing approval by the teacher. The class is going through grammar and the perfect tense, and the teacher has asked a pupil to translate the English sentence into Finnish. The teacher does not wait for someone to offer to participate, but instead instructs one pupil at a time to do it, giving out turns one after another.

Example 1: Evaluative feedback, approval.

Teacher	how about this one here. (.) now konsta are you feeling <wise> this morning?
Konsta	u:m (.) uh (.) m:inua (.) ei yleensä (.) kutsuta: (.) juhliin.
Teacher	**yeah. (.) that's good. (.) yeah. (.) that's a perfect as well.**

The way the teacher appoints the pupil to answer is somewhat indirect: he uses a question to point out the next pupil to read the sentence. Once the pupil answers,

and the answer is correct, one can see the approving answer from the teacher. Often he says *yeah* to confirm that the answer is indeed what he was looking for, but then he also continues with that´s good and that´s a perfect as well. Moreover, the teacher clearly wants to show that he is pleased with the answer and reveal that the pupil performed well. Out of the 125 feedback items found in the data, 58 can be classified as showing approval and/or rewards. The large amount can possibly be explained with the fact that teachers often feel obliged to comment on something after a pupil has given an answer. However, it also depends on how the teacher decides to react to the answer. In thiscase, the teacher often started with yeah, implying that a pupil is right, but he also continued with some words of compliment. This is a very positive way to react to pupils´ answers and, moreover, it creates a welcoming atmosphere and a feeling that no one needs to be afraid of answering.

In the next example (2) the teacher has asked the class to take out their notebooks, and is now checking whether everybody has them with them. One of the pupils admits that the notebook is at home, so the teacher reacts to the situation by showing disapproval and giving a slight punishment. To understand the next example better it is important to know that in this class the teacher uses "yellow cards" to maintain order. Yellow cards are given for example if one is late from class, has not done one´s homework or has forgotten books or assignments home.

Example 2: Evaluative feedback, disapproval and punishment.

Teacher	okay i've got <u>one</u> mo:re bit of paper. hope this isn't confusing (.) now >mauri< did you have you:r (.) notebook with you?
Mauri	uhh no. It's home.
Teacher	oh it´s home.
Mauri	yeah.
Teacher	**a:nd >if you forget your books<?**
Mauri	**yellow card?**
Teacher	**yellow ca:rd.**
Mauri	**jokay.**

This example shows that if rules are not followed, consequences follow. The pupil has not brought the notebook to the class, so the teacher uses his principle of giving a yellow card. It is clear that this system is already familiar with the pupil, as the teacher only has to ask if you forget your books?, he knows to answer yellow card. In this example one can see well how clear the rules are to the pupils, and that Mauri accepts the punishment without resistance. The yellow card rule does not seem to be too harsh on the pupils, since the teacher has made the rules

clear and follows them consistently. Disapproval is shown, even though he does not say anything about it directly. This system seems to be working well in this particular class, and is still a relatively kind way to punish the pupils.

In addition to evaluative feedback shown above, there were many situations in the data that are categorized as descriptive feedback. In example 3 below, the class is going through a handout aboutGreat Britain, and the teacher is asking whether there is a typical ending in the counties in the UK. Alma raises her hand, and answers the question correctly. However, the teacher wants to elaborate on that answer, and thus this example is classified as a type where teacher is describing why the answer is correct.

Example 3: Descriptive feedback, describing why the answer is correct.

Teacher	could anybody say what the typical ending is at the names of counties (.) in the uk.=alma.
Alma	uhh shire.
Teacher	**yeah, that's right. (.)**
Teacher	**normally they end in that >there that syllable<=** **often we: (.) we say shire when we say the names.** **hampshire (.) yorkshire (.) okay.**

First, the teacher comments on the answer with approval: yeah and that´s right, but second, will continue on the subject by explaining how this ending is often pronounced. In other words, he wants to expand the pupils´ knowledge on the topic. Furthermore, the answer is correct, but the teacher wants to explain this topic in greater detail. Few examples like these were found in the data, so one can say that it is not a very common strategy, at least in this teacher´s classes.

In example 4 below, one can see an example from the data where the teacher is helping the pupils. Most of the feedback listed as descriptive in the data actually consists of a dialogue that demands help from the teacher himself or the other pupils in the class. Often this help is guided through teacher: he directly asks help from the others, or then gives hints about the right answer in order to get the right answer from the pupil. In this particular example the class is talking about religions and the teacher asks one pupil what a Protestant is. The discussion followed shows that another pupil helps the first one and gives the right answer.

Example 4: Descriptive feedback, help from a pupil.

Teacher	okay tilda what's a protestant?
Tilda	<uhh it's uhh different uhh group of religion?>
Teacher	<y:eah> basically.=are they christians, or are they muslims or, (.) no sh-
Tilda	i don´t know.
Teacher	no worries. does anybody know? what's (.) basically what's basically the difference between protestants
Mauri	**uhh they're christian an' they ar::e uh it was- was it that uhh (.) uhh when henry the eight started his own church there#**
Teacher	**nice. yeah. (.) that's- yeah, basically it's connected with him.**
Mauri	**yeah.**

First, the teacher tries to ask more detailed questions to get a more precise answer, but as the first pupil does not seem to know, he expresses that it is okay by saying no worries. Then he moves on to aim the question for the whole class and directly asking does anybody know?. This leads to another pupil giving the answer that he was looking for. As one can see, the teacher quite easily moves from one pupil to asking the whole class for help, and the class reacts to this by offering their help.

Example 5 below also shows the structure of helping out, but in this case it is the teacher who then stands out and helps the one pupil he was asking the question from. The class is going through an assignment, and they are talking about Newcastle and what would happen if coal was brought there.

It is important to notice that the teacher does not actually give the right answer straight away, but instead tries to lead the pupil to change his original answer with a question.

Example 5: Descriptive feedback, help from the teacher.

Teacher	okay. (.) whaddo you think it means uh jouni in the corner, whaddo you think it means if you take coals to newcastle? (.) is that a good idea or a \bad idea\? (.)
Jouni	good.
Teacher	**>good idea. so if you take-< yeah if you- if you take coal (.) to somewhere where they already have lots an' lots of coal. (.) try the other answer.**
Jouni	**no.**
Teacher	**yeah, it's a bad idea.**

The question is relatively simple, demanding a one-word answer from the pupil. When the teacher notices that the answer is incorrect, he then asks a more detailed

question about the topic, leading the pupils to change his answer into a correct one. In my opinion this works well, and is much more fruitful when it comes to actually learning the issue, rather than immediately pointing out that the answer is wrong and telling the right answer himself.

Hargreave´s evaluative and descriptive feedback(2000:23) are major categories of the feedback types seen and analysed in the data, but in addition to these groups, I have defined a third one to include the rest of the feedback in the analysis. Into the other feedback groupI have chosen the type of feedback that concerns for example the working atmosphere in the class. There are few classes where the teacher does not have to control the overall focusing and atmosphere in any way. On the contrary, especially with younger pupils it is crucial to have the right ways to maintain a good, focused classroom environment. In example 6 below, the teacher attempts to talk about issues related to the day´s topic, but is interrupted by a noise coming from the class. He very directly shows that this noise is bothering him, and even names the one pupil who is responsible for the noise.

Example 6: Working atmosphere.

| Teacher | >sakari I've asked you to be quiet. =okay? so could you please be quiet?< (.) thank you very much there. |

As one can see from above, feedback can be relatively short, and constructed in a way that the pupil actually has to consider his actions by most preferably quieting down and giving the teacher a chance to continue.

The teacher is indicating that it is not the first time he has asked the class to be quiet, and follows with a direct question to the pupil so could you please be quiet?. This cannot be analysed as a command, but rather as a polite request to get back to work. The question is even followed with a thank you very much there, in order to show that it would be important to stay quiet and that the teacher really appreciates if his wishes are followed properly.

The last example (7) from the data is listed as general feedback. There were several moments in the data where the teacher clearly wanted to give feedback relating to some particular assignment or topic. Sometimes the feedback was more directed at one pupil, but mostly it was meant for the whole class. In example 7 the class have returned from their Christmas holiday and are on their first English lesson since before Christmas. They have gone through some grammar, and the teacher now wants to say something about their work for the whole class.

Example 7: General feedback for the whole class.

Teacher	now this is your <u>first</u> lesson of the year? (.) an' we've just done ten minutes of quite complicated (.) grammar? (.) so d<u>o</u>n't worry t<u>oo</u> much (.) if you h<u>a</u>ven't understood everything. (.) okay?

Right after the exercise the teacher is giving feedback to his pupils. Moreover, he also places himself into the role of a pupil. He realises that this grammar topic today must have been hard on the pupils, and wants to make sure that everyone gets some good feedback. The teacher wants to make clear that not everything has to be learned right away, and that it is fine if some issues still feel uncertain or complicated.

There are indeed several different feedback strategies one can take advantage of in the classroom. First of all, the teacher has to consider the situation and give accurate feedback according to it. Depending on the situation, some issues may demand more feedback than others, whereas others need to be discussed with the whole class. Secondly, feedback might not be considered amongst the most important topics in the classroom and in teaching, but the results of this study show that it forms a relatively large part of the teacher´s actions, and is a way of leading the discussion to where it needs to be led. Most importantly, one can never assume that giving feedback always follows the same patterns. I have divided the results of my study into different groups, but all the situations are somewhat different from each other, and it is always the teacher who decides what sort of feedback he or she considers to be appropriate for a certain situation.

[An extract is taken from Bachelor's Thesis by Noora Pirhonen "TEACHER´S ORAL FEEDBACK IN A CLIL CLASSROOM"]

■ **Homeassignment.**
➤ Observe the teachers' feedback given during the lesson and share your opinions.

§10. Classroom Language: The use of the mother tongue

Strategies and teaching methods applied by a teacher have great importance in development and capacity building of students while learning English foreign language. Therefore using mother tongue while teaching and learning English Language is not only learning strategy but also a communication strategy as well. This strategy has led researchers to explore more about its use during teaching, its impact on learning, reasons why and when this technique needs to be implemented, etc. Each native foreign language teacher during teaching consciously or unconsciously involves native language. This action is almost always conditioned by various factors which incite the teacher to use L1.

Task 1. Read two kinds of instructions and answer the questions.

🔸 *Think and write down two words in English and don't show to your partners. Now I'll tell you a story, while telling it I can stop and ask one of you to continue story with your word that is written already on your paper. And the chosen student will continue the story and this student also has to stop and should choose someone to continue with the same rule. In this way we will continue the story telling and the last student must end the story.*

🔸 *Инглиз тилида 2 сўз ўйлаб ёзинг ва шеригингизга кўрсатманг. Энди мен сизга ҳикоя сўзлайман, сўзлаётган пайтимда тўхтаб бирортангиздан дафтарингизга ёзган сўзингиз билан ҳикояни давом эттиришингизни сўрайман ва танланган талаба ҳикояни давом эттириб бир жойда тўхтатишга тўғри келади ва шу усулда давом этиши учун бирортангизни танлаши керак. Худди шу усулда ҳикоя сўзлашни давом эттирамиз ва сўнги талаба ҳикояни якунлаши керак.*

• **Questions:**
  * Which language have you understood well??
  * When and in what situations teachers can use their mother tongue in classroom and why?
  * What are advantages and disadvantages of using mother tongue in teaching English?
  Task 2
- Read about essentials and disadvantages of using mother tongue in teaching English and compare your opinions (Which you mentioned before) with the article

Using the mother tongue in the English language classroom

On the topic of language learning, there are many stories of students going abroad for a period of time and returning home fluent in the foreign language. The reason for this dramatic change is often attributed to the fact that the student was completely immersed in the culture and the language, and "nobody spoke my language so I had to learn theirs." Because of the seemingly huge success, many language schools and teachers all over the world (in English-speaking countries such as Canada, United States, and England, and non-English-speaking countries such as Costa Rica, Thailand, and France) choose to adopt and enforce an English-only policy to recreate that full immersion experience for their students. But does it really make a difference? And what are the benefits and repercussions?

Advantages of Using the Mother Tongue – L1 in the ESL Classroom

Advocates of this view would argue that, when learning another language, translation is a natural phenomenon. Even the student who went abroad to learn another language began the first few months translating everything into his/her mother tongue using a bilingual dictionary to acquire a knowledge base of vocabulary. In fact, research has shown that switching between languages and translation happens instinctively to all language learners and the L1 is actually an important resource in second language (L2) learning (Cook, 2001; Woodall, 2002). For these reasons, teachers should try to work *with* this innate tendency rather than *against* it.

Furthermore, in situations where the students' L1 was not even allowed in private spaces, and there were punishments for using the mother tongue, Goldstein (2003) found that students simply did not speak, used their L1 quietly, and felt a sense of shame when they were punished for using their own language. Learning another language should add richness to students' lives; it should not devalue their own language and culture. By allowing L1 use, students would get the sense that learning another language is a positive experience because they can have access to

a valuable resource that supports them, and they do not have to feel guilty for doing what comes naturally.

From the teacher's perspective, communicating with students in their mother tongue seems to improve teacher-student rapport (Harbord, 1992). Just saying, "Hello, how are you?" in the students' language can cause a fit of giggles and often draws students to the teacher to find out what else (s)he can say in their language(s). Also, being able to use the L1 with students can be more efficient and make time for more useful activities. For example, if instructions to an activity is complicated, and students do not seem to comprehend the English explanation, asking a student who does understand to translate for the entire class would create more time for the activity and prevent a lot of frustration for both teachers and students.

The advantages of using the mother tongue cannot be disregarded. Al- Hinai (2011: 1) highlighted some advantages of using L1 by summarizing researchers' ideas as below: 1. It reduces learner anxiety and creates a more relaxing learning environment, 2. It is a means of bringing the learners' cultural background knowledge into the class, 3. It facilitates checking understanding and giving instructions, 4. It facilitates the task of explaining the meaning of abstract words and of introducing the main differences in grammar and pronunciation between L1 and L2.

Disadvantages of Using the Mother Tongue – L1 in the ESL Classroom

However, it is just this kind of tendency that could lead to the development of an excessive dependency on the students' mother tongue (Harbord, 1992) by both teachers and students. Consequently, students lose confidence in their ability to communicate in English: They may feel that the only way they would understand anything the teacher says is when it has been translated, or they use their mother tongue even when they are perfectly capable of expressing the same idea in English. This can significantly reduce students' opportunities to practice English,

and students fail to realise that using English in classroom activities is essential to improve their language skills.

Translation also regularly creates the problem of oversimplification because many cultural and linguistic nuances cannot be directly translated (Harbord, 1992). For example, the sentence, "That's so cool!" in English means that something is amazing or incredible. This phrase is the product of the continual evolution of the English language that was affected by the specific culture at a certain time. A direct translation of this sentence into Chinese, for example, would not have the same meaning; in fact, it would not make sense at all.

While the argument from both sides are equally compelling, it is clear, that despite the numerous advantages of students using their L1 in English-language learning, they do not outweigh the disadvantages. Is it possible to maximize the benefits and minimize the repercussions? Part II will provide suggestions for using the mother tongue judiciously in the English-language classroom.

- **Complete the table with dividing opinions into advantages and disadvantages**

Advantages	Disadvantages

Task 3. Case study

Try to find out the solution to these problems and share your ideas

Situation # 1

A teacher who works at the language center, uses only English for elementary level. She explains even grammar rules in English. Some skilled students could understand and get success but others didn't. Is it right to use only English for elementary level?

- -

Situation # 2

Anvar wanted to learn English in abroad. But he was a beginner . He spent three months in England but couldn't get the success. Because, during his study he'd met difficulties and didn't understand speeches of teachers. What do you think what would he do firstly?

- -

Situation # 3

While preparing for the exam Guli's English teacher used only Uzbek . After entering the University she had some problems in her speech (lack of vocabulary , accent, incorrect pronunciation and etc).What must the teacher do when she taught her?

Home assignment

Read the article and give your suggestions on the issue.

From mother tongue to other tongue

Reinstating the mother tongue in Teaching Monolingual Classes (1993) Atkinson suggests 'a careful, limited use of L1' to help students get the maximum benefit from activities which in other respects will be carried out in the target language. The mother tongue may be useful in the procedural stages of a class, for example:-

- setting up pair and group work

- sorting out an activity which is clearly not working

- checking comprehension

Beyond these basically managerial functions of L1, Atkinson also suggests using the L1 for translation as a teaching technique. From my research with teachers, the overall rationale for this procedural use of L1 is that it is necessary to keep the lesson from slowing down or because things just can't be done any other way.

What about the learners?

But do the learners agree with such uses?

A questionnaire was addressed to 300 Greek students at three levels, beginner, intermediate and advanced. The students were, for the most part, adolescents or young adults. They were asked general questions to elicit their view on whether the teacher should know and, in principle, use the students' mother tongue.

<u>Survey result summary</u> 65% of students at beginner level and about 50% of students at intermediate and advanced level believe the teacher should know the students' mother tongue.

Should teachers USE the mother tongue in class? Here, the figures for beginners and intermediate are quite high (66% and 58% respectively) but only a minority of advanced learners (29%) find the use of L1 in the classroom acceptable.

The greatest differences arise when students are asked to approve particular uses of L1 in the classroom. Overall, the higher the level of the student, the less they agree to the use of the mother-tongue in the classroom. For example, with regard to the use of L1 to explain grammar, beginners are significantly in favour (31%) and intermediate and advanced are almost unanimously against (7% and 0%).

1. Explaining differences in use between L1 and L2 rules
   It seems that roughly 1 in 3 beginners and 1 in 5 intermediate/advanced students find using the L1 for 'contrastive discourse' acceptable.
2. Asking for vocabulary. 'How do we say (L1 word) in English ? ' The intermediate learner feels most strongly the usefulness of asking for the English equivalent of a mother-tongue word (38%).

In all other instances of L1 use in the classroom, most students of intermediate and advanced levels feel they should be hearing and using English. This feeling includes 'procedural' or managerial uses of the target language: giving instructions; checking listening and reading. The conclusion is that procedural language in the classroom is too good an opportunity to expose students to natural English to waste

on the mother-tongue. This contrasts very strongly with the view of Atkinson given above.

On the other hand, the general scepticism towards L1 in the ELT classroom shown by these particular students does not mean there is no place for the L1 at all. I will go on in the next section to illustrate a range of techniques for using the L1 to promote both learning and acquisition.

Beyond monolingualism

In response to the survey and in the light of my own feelings that the L1 language and culture are a valuable resource, I now make some suggestions for activities which use L1 in some way. I assume mono-lingual classes.

1. Awareness-raising activities

    A questionnaire such as the one I used opens up the debate concerning the use of L1 and so may help deal with some of the students' scepticism.

2. Contrasting L1 and L2

    Useful areas for study in this way are collocations, proverbs and idioms. Comparing verb-noun collocations across the two languages helps students understand how L1 interference can often give them problems. Comparing proverbs gives an insight into cultural as well as linguistic differences.

3. Research in L1, Presentation in L2

    For example, following textbook work on famous English writers, I asked the students to research famous people from their country (using L1 and L2) and to make a presentation in a later class, in L2. An alternative is a local history project, in which grandparents are interviewed in the L1, and a report is made in L2.

In these examples, the foreign language is a medium through which the students explore their own culture, using the mother-tongue as a bridge towards English. The English language can help you learn things about your own community.

Research on students under the question "When teachers can use mother tongue in teaching L2:

Survey results in full Survey:300 students

The figures refer to percentage (%) responses by students at beginner, intermediate and advanced levels.

1 Should the teacher know the students' mother-tongue?	65	53 53
2 Should the teacher use the students' mother tongue?	66	58 29
3 Should the students use their mother-tongue?	63	53 35

It is useful if the teacher uses L1 when:

4 explaining new words	25	35 18
5 explaining grammar	31	7 0
6 explaining differences between L1 and L2 grammar	27	4 6
7 explaining differences in the use of L1 and L2 rules	33	22 20
8 giving instructions	3	9 0

Students should be allowed to use L1 when :

9 talking in pairs and groups	22	3 3
10 asking how do we say '..' in English ?	13	38 6
11 translating an L2 word into L1 to show they understand it	18	13 6
12 translating a text from L2 to L1 to show they understand it	21	7 6
13 translating as a test	21	2 6

The teacher and students can use L1 to:

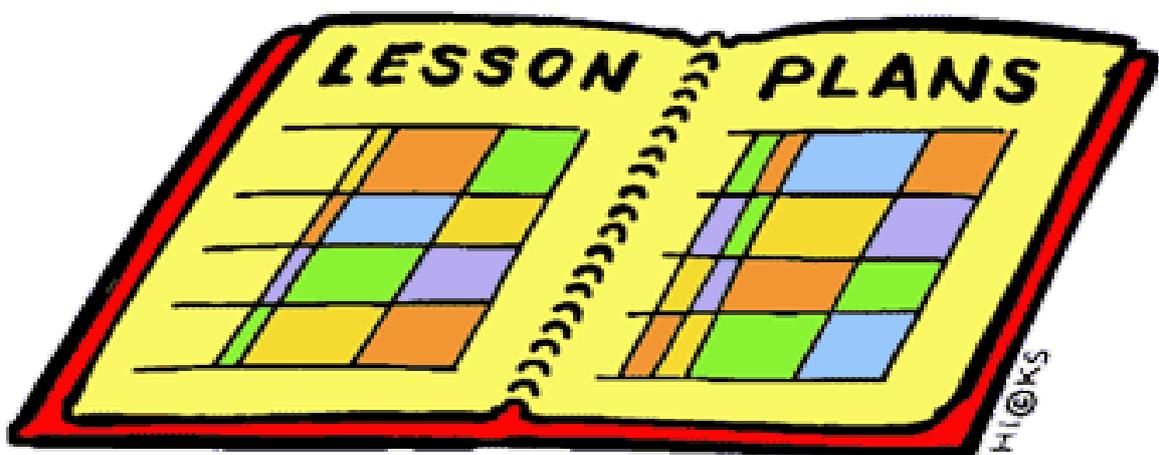|		
14 check listening comprehension	27	9 3
15 check reading comprehension	14	7 6
16 discuss the methods used in class	21	13 6

Luke

Prodromou - teacher, teacher trainer, writer British Council, Greece

Module 2

Planning for teaching and learning

Module 2 Planning for teaching and learning

Introduction

Planning and organizing skills are useful throughout life because whenever we have a major objective, we need to plan the steps that have to be taken to achieve it and organize the resources, actions and time required to accomplish each step. In planning to achieve an objective we must first identify it and do research to find out what steps to take along the way and what resources will be needed. Each step is a goal in its own right. Meeting a series of small goals helps show clear progress towards the objective.

Lesson planning is a special skill that is learned in much the same way as other skills. One of the primary roles that you will perform as a teacher is that of designer and implement or of instruction. Teachers at every level prepare plans that aid in the organization and delivery of their daily lessons. These plans vary widely in the style and degree of specificity but regardless of the format, all teachers need to make wise decisions about the strategies and methods they will employ to help students move systematically toward learner goals.

Being able to create your own lesson plans means you have taken a giant step toward "owning" the content you teach and the methods you use. Acquiring this skill is far more valuable than being able to use lesson plans developed by others. It is a skill that will help to define you as a teacher.

There are fundamental components of all lesson plans that you should learn to write, revise, and improve. The old adage, "Practice doesn't make perfect; perfect practice makes perfect" is at the core of learning this skill.

Good lesson plans do not ensure students will learn what is intended, but they certainly contribute to it. Lesson plans also help new or inexperienced teachers organize content, materials, and methods. When you are learning the craft of teaching, organizing your subject-matter content via lesson plans is fundamental. Like most skills, you'll get better at it the more you do it and think of ways of improving your planning and teaching based on feedback from your students, their parents, and other teachers. Developing your own lesson plans also helps you "own" the subject matter content you are teaching and that is central to everything good teachers do.

§11. Understanding and working with syllabi used in schools, lyceums and colleges.

Discussion the role and function of syllabus

Objective: to read and discuss **syllabus** belonging to the teaching language
Handout 1

A syllabus may consist of an independent publication - a book or booklet - if it is intended to cover all the courses in a particular context regardless of the actual materials used: a country's national syllabus for schools, for example, or the syllabus of a group of language colleges. However, a textbook that is designed to cover an entire course should also provide its own syllabus through the introduction and contents page or index. This unit relates mostly to the first kind: an 'official' and comprehensive document that usually includes the word 'syllabus' in its title.

Common characteristics of a syllabus

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

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

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

There are other, optional, features, displayed by some syllabuses and not others. A time schedule is one: some syllabuses delimit the time framework of their components, prescribing, for example, that these items should be dealt with in the first month, those in the second; the class should have completed this

much by the end of the year. A particular preferred approach or methodology to be used may also be defined, even in a syllabus that is essentially content-based. It may list recommended materials - course books, visual materials or supplementary materials - either in general, or where relevant to certain items or sections.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A SYLLABUS

1. Consists of a comprehensive list of:
   - content items (words, structures, topics);
   - process items (tasks, methods).
2. Is ordered (easier, more essential items first).
3. Has explicit objectives (usually expressed in the introduction).
4. Is a public document.
5. May indicate a time schedule.
6. May indicate a preferred methodology or approach.
7. May recommend materials.

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Different types of language syllabus

Objective: To search the right way of using syllabus.

Task 2

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

Types of syllabuses

Grammatical

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

Lexical

A list of lexical items *(girl, boy, go away …)* with associated collocations and idioms, usually divided into graded sections. One such syllabus, based on a corpus (a computerized collection of samples of authentic language) is described in Willis, 1990.

Grammatical-lexical

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

Situational

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

Topic-based

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

Notional

'Notions' are concepts that language can express. General notions may include 'number', for example, or 'time', 'place', 'colour'; specific notions look more like vocabulary items: 'man', 'woman', 'afternoon'. For an introduction to the topic of notional syllabuses see Wilkins, 1976.

Functional-notional

Functions are things you can do with language, as distinct from notions you can express: examples are 'identifying', 'denying', 'promising'. Purely functional syllabuses are rare: usually both functions and notions are combined, as for example in Van Ek, 1990.

Mixed or 'multi-strand'

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

Procedural

These syllabuses specify the learning tasks to be done rather than the language itself or even its meanings. Examples of tasks might be: map reading, doing scientific experiments, story-writing. The most well-known procedural syllabus is that associated with the Bangalore Project (Prabhu, 1987).

Process

This is the only syllabus which is not pre-set. The content of the course is negotiated with the learners at the beginning of the course and during it, and actually listed only retrospectively (Candlin, 1984; Clarke, 1991).

Using the syllabus

How teachers use the syllabus varies very widely between different countries and institutions, and depends on financial resources as well as on teaching

approach.

Where there is no lack of resources to invest in the drawing-up of very detailed syllabuses and the purchase of a wide variety of teaching materials teachers may find it most effective to work mainly from the syllabus as the basis of their programme, drawing on specific materials as they need them, as Anna does.

BOX 12.2: USING THE SYLLABUS

Anna: The syllabus of the language school where I teach is very comprehensive: it includes grammar, vocabulary, functions, notions, situations; and gives references to material I can use. I use it all the time and could not do without it. When preparing a teaching session or series of sessions I go first to the syllabus, decide what it will be appropriate to teach next according to its programme, plan how to combine and schedule the components I have selected, and take the relevant books or materials from the library as I need them.

Joseph: There is a syllabus, but we don't have to use it; nor is there any fixed coursebook, although the college recommends certain ones. Personally, I simply ignore the syllabus, since I prefer to do my own thing, based on the needs of my [adult] students. I use materials and activities from different sources (teacher's handbooks, textbooks, enrichment materials, literature) which are available in my institution's library in order to create a rich and varied programme that is flexible enough to be altered and adapted to student needs during the course.

Maria: They made us read the national syllabus in my teacher-training course, but I haven't looked at it since. What for? In my [state] school we use a class coursebook which lays out all the language I have to teach, as well as giving me texts, exercises and ideas for activities. I assume the Ministry would not have authorized the book if it didn't accord with the syllabus, so there's no reason for me to double-check if I'm teaching the right things.

Lilly: I possess the syllabus, and look at it occasionally, but mostly I work from the coursebook that my school chose for the class. It's just that sometimes I get a bit fed up with the coursebook and want to do something different: so then I 'do my own thing' for a bit, using the syllabus as a retrospective checklist, to make sure I'm still reasonably on target with the content . . . after all, I am being employed to teach a certain syllabus, I can't stray too far.

David: The school where I work cannot afford to buy coursebooks for the children, so I have the only book; I also have an officially authorized syllabus. Everything I teach I take either from the syllabus or from the coursebook. I don't add material of my own; for one thing, the authorities do not approve; for another, I am not confident enough of my knowledge of the language I am teaching – I might make mistakes.

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In other relatively affluent settings there may be a policy of allowing teachers complete freedom in designing their teaching programme; in such a case the syllabus may be non-existent or ignored, and teachers like Joseph may develop new, independent programmes, based mainly on the teacher's preferences and learners' needs. With a competent and creative teacher working with mature learners, this kind of situation can also generate a unique, exciting and satisfying teaching/learning experience. However, in most contexts the disadvantages outweigh the advantages: apart from a possibly prohibitive amount of work for the teacher, the abandonment of a carefully pre-planned syllabus may result in significant gaps in the language content taught. This may not matter so much in a situation where the target language is used predominantly outside the classroom (if the class is composed of immigrants learning English in Australia, for example); in other situations, however, it may seriously impair learning.

Home task. To learn some readymade lesson plans, compare them with one types of syllabus and give their views on them.

§12. Understanding and working with syllabi used in schools, lyceums and colleges. What goes into lesson planning and lesson plans

Task 1. Discussion metaphors of the lesson

1.Choose one of the following sentences and complete it.

a A good lesson is like a film because ...

b A good lesson is like a football match because ...

c A good lesson is like a meal because ...

d A good lesson is like a symphony because ...

Task 2. *Find somebody who chose the same sentence starter as you. Did you complete it in a similar way?*

Task 3. *Consider teaching a sixty-minute lesson on the past simple with an elementary class. How could you apply your metaphor to the design of the lesson?*

► **Handout 1 What does a lesson involve?**

The lesson is a type of organized social event that occurs in virtually all cultures. Lessons in different places may vary in topic, time, place, atmosphere, methodology and materials, but they all, essentially, are concerned with learning as their main objective, involve the participation of learner(s) and teacher(s), and are limited and pre-scheduled as regards time, place and membership.

There are additional characteristics or perspectives to a lesson which may be less obvious, but which are also significant. One way to become aware of these is to look at metaphors that highlight one or another of them.

Aspects of the lesson

1. Transaction, or series of transactions. This is expressed in the metaphors of shopping, a wedding and a meal, with the emphasis on some kind of purposeful give-and-take which results in a product: an acquisition or a definable mental or physical change in the participants. If you care about the transactional element, then what is important to you is the actual learning which takes place in the lesson.

2. Interaction. This is most obvious in the metaphor of conversation, but is also expressed in the wedding, the variety show, and, in perhaps a rather different way,

in the football game. Here what is important are the social relationships between learners, or between learners and teacher; a lesson is seen as something which involves relaxed, warm interaction that protects and promotes the confidence and happiness of all participants.

For a more detailed discussion of the transactional and interactional aspects of a lesson, see Prabhu (1992).

3. Goal-oriented effort, involving hard work (climbing a mountain, a football game). This implies awareness of a clear, worthwhile objective, the necessity of effort to attain it and a resulting sense of satisfaction and triumph if it is achieved, or of failure and disappointment if it is not.

4. A satisfying, enjoyable experience (a variety show, a symphony, eating a meal). This experience may be based on such things as aesthetic pleasure, fun, interest, challenge or entertainment; the main point is that participants should enjoy it and therefore be motivated to attend while it is going on (as distinct from feeling satisfied with the results).

5. A role-based culture, where certain roles (the teacher) involve responsibility and activity, others (the learners) responsiveness and receptivity (consultation with a doctor, a wedding, eating a meal). All participants know and accept in advance the demands that will be made on them, and their expected behaviors. This often implies:

6. A conventional construct, with elements of ritual (a wedding, a variety show, a performance of a symphony). Certain set behaviors occur every time (for example, a certain kind of introduction or ending), and the other components of the overall event are selected by an authority from a limited set of possibilities. In contrast, there is:

A series of free choices (a menu, a conversation). Participants are free to 'do their own thing' within a fairly loose structure, and construct the event as it progresses, through their own decision-making. There is no obvious authority figure who imposes choices.

Task 4. Lesson preparation

Search the best methods for lesson preparation

Aspects of planning language teaching
1. Establishing a certain classroom atmosphere
2. Motivating the students to take part in the lesson
3. Realistically contextualising language
4. Involving the students and drawing out passive knowledge

5. Lexis: how much to teach, what to teach, when and how to teach
6. Checking for comprehension and learning
7. Providing safe contexts for practice
8. Helping students to identify rules and organise
9. Shifting the focus and patterns of interaction
10. Setting up activities that promote communication
11. Establishing a framework in which students work without the teacher
12. The aids to be used in various parts of the lesson
13. How information to be organised
14. Integrating skills involved in the lesson
15. Ending the lesson and linking it to previous/future ones

A good lesson plan involves consideration of more than just what is going to be taught (the objective) and how it will be taught (materials, equipment, and activities). The following elements also need to be thought about and planned for:

- Sequencing—Do the activities move logically so learners are progressively building on what they already know? Do the activities flow well? Are transitions between activities smooth?
- Pacing—Are activities the right length and varied so that learners remain engaged and enthused?
- Gauging difficulty—Do the learners have enough skill and knowledge to do the planned activities? Are the instructions clear?
- Accounting for individual differences—Do the activities allow for learners of varying proficiency levels to receive extra attention they might need, whether below or above the norm? Are all students actively involved?
- Monitoring learner versus teacher talk—what is the balance between learner talk and teacher talk? Does the lesson allow a time for learners to interact, producing and initiating language?
- Timing—was the amount of time allotted for each part of the lesson sufficient? If the planned lesson finishes early, is there a backup activity ready? If the lesson wasn't completed as planned, how can the next class be adjusted to finish the material

Step 2.1 – individual work. What do you think are the benefits of preparing lesson plans?

Step 2.2 – individual work. What do you think are the difficulties of preparing lesson plans?

Step 2.3 – individual work Design a lesson plan for the topic *Shopping* –follow the stages mentioned above and don't forget to mention the objectives, materials /equipment and activities you will use to teach this topic. Look at the sample lesson plan format below:

Class _____   **Date**_____

Time:

Lesson Objective:

    <u>Language Skills:</u>

    <u>Life Skills:</u>

Materials: _Equipment:_

Stages of the Lesson

<u>Warm Up/Review</u>

<u>Introduction</u>

<u>Presentation</u>

<u>Practice</u>

<u>Evaluation</u>

Elements of Lesson Plans

☐ number of learners
☐ overall aims
☐ aims of each stage
☐ coursebook used
☐ number of activities
☐ what the learners do at each stage
☐ what the teacher does at each stage
☐ materials used
☐ homework
☐ groupings of learners
☐ aids used
☐ timing of each stage
☐ skills practiced
☐ page numbers
☐ anticipated problems

☐ new vocabulary
☐ extra activities
☐ age of learners
☐ the date
☐ interaction
☐ different colours for important points
☐ review of last lesson
☐ sex of learners
☐ short description of each activity
☐ level of class
☐ time of class
☐ name/ number of class
☐ length of class
☐ which learners work together
☐ abbreviations

§13. Setting aims, objectives and learning outcomes of a lesson or sequences of lessons

➢ Choose the statement(s) you agree with. Then find a partner who has made similar choices to you, and agree on their order of importance.

Lesson aims are important because ...

a trainers (and directors of studies) require them

b they make planning easier

c they make lesson plans look more professional

d they frame the criteria by which the lesson will be judged

e learners need to know the focus of the lesson

  f they set a goal that can be used to test the learners' achievement.

Types of aims

Task 1 Work in pairs. Read the following six lesson aims. Five of them relate to the same lesson. Which is the odd one out?

a To present and practice the form and use of the present perfect with *ever* and *never.*

b By the end of the lesson the learners will have talked about and compared past experiences.

c By the end of the lesson the learners will be able to express future plans and arrangements.

d The learners will take part in informal conversation.

e To develop my grammar presentation skills.

f The lesson will help to build a good classroom dynamic.

Task 2 Match aims a-f in activity Bl with the terms in the box.

Communicative aim (×2)

Linguistic aim

Interpersonal aim

Developmental aim

Skills aim

Task 3. Discussion an article

It's simple - **effective** lesson plans communicate, **ineffective** ones don't. Teachers create lesson plans to communicate their instructional activities regarding specific subject-matter. Almost all lesson plans developed by teachers contain student learning objectives, instructional procedures, the required materials, and some written description of how the students will be evaluated. All lesson plans begin, or should begin with an objective.

A lesson plan identifies the enabling objectives necessary to meet the lesson objective, the materials and equipment needed, and the activities appropriate to accomplish the objective.

Enabling objectives are the basic skills (language skills such as vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation) and the life skills (including cultural information) that are necessary to accomplish the objective.

Materials and equipment should be identified and secured well before class time to ensure that activities can be carried out as planned. These may include realia (real life materials like bus schedules and children's report cards), visual aids, teacher made handouts, textbooks, flip chart and markers, overhead projector, tape recorder, etc.

Activities generally move from more controlled (e.g., repetition) to a less structured or free format (e.g., interviewing each other). They should be varied in type (e.g., whole group, paired, individual) and modality (e.g., speaking, listening, writing).

Good lesson design begins with a review of previously learned material. New material is then introduced, followed by opportunities for learners to practice and be evaluated on what they are learning. In general, a lesson is composed of the following stages:

1. Warm-up/Review—encourages learners to use what they have been taught in previous lessons

2. Introduction to a new lesson—focuses the learners' attention on the objective of the new lesson and relates the objective to their lives

3. Presentation—introduces new information, checks learner comprehension of the new material, and models the tasks that the learners will do in the practice stage

4. Practice—provides opportunities to practice and apply the new language or information

5. Evaluation—enables the instructor and learners to assess how well they have grasped the lesson

FORMULATING GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

WHAT ARE GOALS AND OBJECTIVES AND WHAT IS THEIR RELATIONSHIP?

Goals

Goals are a way of putting into words the main purposes and intended outcomes of your course. If we use the analogy of a journey, the destination is the goal; the journey is the course. The objectives are the different points you pass through on the journey to the destination. In most cases, the destination is composed of multiple goals which the course helps to weave together. Sometimes, teacher and students reach unexpected places. When you do veer "off course," it may be because you need to adjust your course for a more suitable destination for your students and so you must redefine and refine your goals. On the other hand, goals can help you stay on course, both as you design the course and as you teach it.

Stating your goals helps to bring into focus your visions and priorities for the course. They are general statements, but they are not vague. For example, the goal "Students will improve their writing" is vague. In contrast, "By the end of the course students will have become more aware of their writing in general and be able to identify the specific areas in which improvement is needed" while general, is not vague. It also suggests that there will be other goals which give more information about the ways in which students will improve their writing.

A goal states an aim that the course will explicitly address in some way. If, for example, one of the goals of a course is to help students develop learning strategies or interpersonal skills, then class time will be explicitly devoted to that goal. Because class time is limited, and the number of goals is not, choice is important. While you may be able to think of many laudable goals, they should address what can be realistically achieved within the constraints and resources of your course, i.e., who the students are, their level, the amount of time available, the materials available. They should be achievable within the time frame of the course with that group of students (see Figure 5.1).

At the same time, goals are future oriented. In his book on curriculum design, J. D. Brown proposes that goals are "what the students should be able to do when they leave the program." (1995, p. 71). The following is an example of a goal from a writing course using computers which illustrates this point: "By the end of the course students will have developed the ability to use the computer for a variety of purposes." Finally, goals are the benchmarks of success for a course. The course can be deemed successful and effective if the goals have been reached. I suggest applying this "formula" to your goals: If we accomplish X goals, will the course be successful? This last question foreshadows the relationship between goals and assessment.

Figure 5.1: **Making Choices about Goals**

Objectives

Objectives are statements about how the goals will be achieved. Through objectives, a goal is broken down into learnable and teachable units. By achieving the objectives, the goal will be reached. For this reason, the objective must relate to the goal. For example, in a first pass at formulating goals for his course, one teacher stated one goal as, "Students will be able to interact comfortably with each other in English." One of the objectives he listed under that goal was for students to learn to tell stories. There is nothing wrong with students learning to tell stories, but telling stories generally does not require interaction, and so for this teacher's goal, learning to tell stories was not the most appropriate objective. The teacher asked himself, "Will achieving this objective help to reach the goal?" When he determined that the answer was no, he eliminated that objective and sought other, more appropriate objectives.

The following analogy was used by two teachers in an EFL reading class, Carolyn Layzer and Judy Sharkey, to help their students understand goals, objectives and strategies.

I told the students that a friend wanted to lose 10 pounds that she had gained over the winter. I wrote, "I want to lose 10 pounds" on the left side of the board. Then I asked the students for some advice on how to achieve her goal. I wrote their responses on the right side of the board. Some of their advice was very general, for example, "exercise" and "don't eat junk food." I told them my friend's schedule was very busy and asked what kind of exercise she could do given her time constraints. This led to some more specific suggestions, for example, "She should always take the stairs instead of the elevator." Students could see that the more specific the advice, the easier it would be to follow it.

Showing how the suggestions could cause the effect of losing weight illustrates the relationship between goals and objectives: If I work out at the gym and stop eating junk food, then I am likely to achieve my goal of losing 10 pounds. My first objective is to set up a regular gym routine; My second objective is to stop eating junk food.

Thus another aspect of the relationship between goals and objectives is that of cause and effect. If students achieve A, B, C objectives, then they will reach Y goal. Figure 5.2 tries to capture the cause and effect relationship between goals and objectives. In principle, this is a good idea. In practice, students may not achieve the goal or may achieve other goals the teacher hadn't intended. Using the losing weight analogy above, the workout at the gym may improve muscle tone and density, and because muscle weighs more than fat, weight loss due to the reduction in junk food may be minimized. However, the person may end up feeling more energetic and not care about the weight loss anymore! On the other hand, if the goal remains important and is not achieved through the means or objectives described above, then the objectives may need to be examined and changed or refined so that the goal can be reached.

Figure 5.2: Cause and Effect Relationship between Goals and Objectives

If these objectives are achieved | then this goal will be reached.
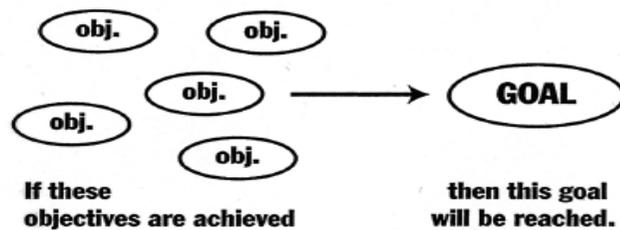
Objectives are in a hierarchical relationship to goals. Goals are more general and objectives more specific. Brown (1995) points out that one of the main differences between goals and objectives is their level of specificity. For every goal, there will be several objectives to help achieve it, as depicted in Figure 5.3. Goals are more long term, objectives more short term. To return to the weight loss analogy above, losing weight could be an objective if there is a larger goal, for example to improve one's overall health. Some teachers have found it helpful to have three layers of goals and objectives. The important point is that each layer is more and more specific.

Figure 5.3: For Every General Goal There Are Multiple Specific Objectives

The Australian Language Levels guidelines have four layers for their goals and objectives. The goals, which provide direction for the teaching and learning, are written from the teacher's perspective. They are divided into broad goals, which are the general aims of the course, and specific goals, which break down the broad goals and make them more tangible. Objectives spell out what the students will actually learn or be able to do by the end of the course. General objectives spell out holistic results and specific objectives spell out particular knowledge or skills the students will acquire (Vale, Scarino, McKay 1996). The relationship among these four layers is depicted in the chart in Figure 5.4 below for a syllabus module on "Self and others" at the senior secondary level.

Figure 5.4: A Four-Part Scheme of Goals and Objectives From the Australian Language Levels

*One of five **broad goals** is "learning-how-to-learn":*

Learners will take a growing responsibility for the management of their own learning, so that they learn how to learn, and how to learn a language

*The **specific goals** are to enable learners to develop the:*

- cognitive processing skills to understand and express values, attitudes, and feelings; process information; think and respond creatively
- communication strategies to sustain communication in the target language.

*Some **general objectives** for these goals are:*

Learners will be able to:

- take part in an interview and thereby talk about self, family, home; make suggestions, ask questions; state and ask opinions;
- keep a diary for a specified period of time

*Some of the **specific objectives** for the general objectives are:*

Learners will be able to:

- generate questions
- state and ask opinions
- record information

Formulating goals and objectives helps to build a clear vision of what you will teach. Because a goal is something toward which you will explicitly teach, stating goals helps to define priorities and to make choices. Clear goals help to make teaching purposeful because what you do in class is related to your overall purpose. Goals and objectives provide a basis for making choices about what to teach and how. Objectives serve as a bridge between needs and goals. Stating goals and objectives is a way of holding yourself accountable throughout the course. Goals are not a "wish list." For example, if one of your goals is for students to be able to identify areas of improvement in their writing, then you will need to design ways for students to evaluate their writing as well as ways to assess their effectiveness in identifying those areas they need to improve. Finally, a clear set of goals and objectives can provide the basis for your assessment plan.

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Goal: Develop scientific and technical writing skills and strategies through a variety of activities moving in sequence from simple to more complex.

Objectives: Students will be able to write:
- amplified definitions
- classifications
- abstracts
- description of a mechanism
- description of a process
- "mini" research paper of 5+ pages including: introduction, materials and methods, results, and a brief description
- organize and draft a one page outline with main points and include 2–3 discussion questions
- research a topic area using at least 3–4 sources
- critique peer products in regards to content and mechanics

Goal: Develop reading skills and strategies using a wide range of reading materials including: journals, texts, technical manuals, catalogues

Objectives: Students will be able to
- skim and scan material for information
- read for meaning
- derive vocabulary meaning from context
- use a dictionary

Goal: Develop speaking and listening skills and strategies specifically through public speaking and presentation activities involving technical writing products produced in the class.

Objectives: Students will be able to:
- deliver a 15–minute oral presentation on a technical topic of student's choice
- conduct and manage a discussion (10–15 minutes) afterward, discussing the pros and cons of the topic with audience
- speak with persuasion and express opinions in their presentations
- take accurate notes and paraphrase the presentations of peers
- ask for further information, repetition, and clarification of topic, vocabulary, and technical concepts presented
- critique peer presentations discussing specifically: presentation style, use of persuasion and supporting details, synthesis, and logical presentation of information

From: Graves, Kathleen. *Designing Language Courses: A Guide for Teachers*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle. 2000. Pp 75-79; 260. Print.

Hometask. To learn some readymade lesson plans and give their views on them

§14. Selecting frameworks for lesson planning

TASK 1. Discuss the steps of lesson planning and to work on the beneficial lesson preparation

Article discussion.

Lesson planning will help you teach with confidence. The longer your class session, the more important it is to have a good lesson plan. Here are some tips to consider.

- **Plan Alternative Activities** - always have one or two alternative activities in case the material you've selected doesn't take all the time you thought it would. How will you fill an extra 10 minutes? 20 minutes?
- **Build on Previous Material** - try to continuously practice material that you've covered recently. It's often possible to teach the same theme several sessions in a row which can help ingrain vocabulary and concepts.
- **Balance the Challenge of Content and Activity Type** -iIf your content is challenging, choose activities that are relatively easy to do like fill-in-the-blank exercises or guided discussion questions. If your content is fairly simple, try more challenging activities like role plays or problem-solving.
- **Create Your Own Materials** - build your own library of materials to support your lessons. You can find several ideas in the Lesson Preparation section of this guide. Be creative. If you invest some time into developing and collecting materials, you'll cut down on your preparation time when you are actually planning lessons.
- **Center Lessons Around the Student** - keep the focus on the learners and minimize the time you spend talking as a teacher. In other words, make the lesson as interactive as possible. Focus on communication.
- **Assess Needs** - periodically take time to think through your particular learners' needs. Think about cultural factors as well as language deficiencies. This can help you prioritize what you choose to study. Are any of your students dealing with culture shock? What kind of language skills might help alleviate it? Try asking the students themselves what they would like to learn.
- **Keep a Log** - after each class, write a brief log of what you did. Include notes about what worked or didn't with ideas for improvement. Write down specific page numbers you covered in a textbook. You could also keep your lesson plans collected together, making sure to write notes on them about the success of various activities and whether you modified the lesson during class.

PLANNING FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING

Activity 3, Handout 2a, Lesson plan analysis

Answer the following questions:

~ What are the stages of the lesson?
~ What is the aim of each activity?
~ Are the activities connected with each other?
~ Do the activities contribute to the overall aim of the lesson?
~ Do the activities go from simple to complicated?
~ Does the lesson cater for all learning styles?

~ What is the teacher's role in each activity?
~ Is there enough variety in terms of interaction?
~ Did you like the lesson plan? Why?/Why not?
~ Would you change anything in the lesson plan if you taught this lesson? If you would, what and why?
~ How similar is it to your way of planning lessons?

Lesson plan

	Aim of the activity	Stages of the lesson	Teacher-centred/ Learner-centred	Learning styles	Mode of interaction	Teacher's role
Activity 1						
Activity 2						
Activity 3						
Activity 4						
Activity 5						

Activity 3, Handout 2b, Lesson plan analysis

Lesson Plan

Date: May 22, 2006.
Subject: Integrated Skills
Topic: Cultural events
Group: 2D
Level: Intermediate

Procedure	Time
Introduction • Teacher introduces the topic and asks the following questions: ~ *What cultural events do we celebrate in our country?* • Teacher writes answers on the board. • Teacher distributes cards with description of events that are celebrated in the UK with questions and asks students to answer the questions on their cards. • Teacher elicits answers and crosses out similar events/festivals on the board.	5 min
Jigsaw reading • Teacher puts students into groups of three, gives each student a number (1,2,3) and gives each group different texts with a question. Teacher asks all groups to read their text, answer the question in their groups. After groups have read the text, teacher regroups students according to their given numbers. (number 1s will be in one group, number 2s will be the second group and so on.). Teacher asks new groups to share their information in their new groups.	10 min

Plenary discussion
• Teacher asks the following questions:
    • *What did you find out about holidays and festivals from each other?*
    • *Did you learn something new?*
    • *What are your answers to the question you had?*
	10 min

Vocabulary work • Students continue working in their groups. Teacher gives each group a word from the texts which they discussed before, gives a dictionary to each group and asks each group to give 2 phrases with the given word(s) in order to put them in context. • Groups present their findings to the whole group.	10 min

§15. Considering activities for different stages of a lesson: Beginning (warm-ups, lead-ins), Ending (making a summary, flashing forward, filling up the last remaining moments

Pre- planning lesson activities

Plan *for your pupils*. First of all you need to know as much as possible about the class before you decide what to teach. You have to consider their level of language, their background, their motivation and their learning styles. Besides knowing your pupils, you also need to know the syllabus.

In your lesson plan you will need to include four main elements: *activities, skills, language* and *content* (Harmer, 2001).

- Decide what the pupils will be doing in the classroom and how they will be grouped. Think what kind of activity would fit them at any particular point in the lesson. The activities should be chosen appropriately so that each pupil will be motivated and will be an active participant.
- Think of the language skill(s) you will develop in that lesson. Although your choice may be limited by the syllabus or the textbook, you still need to plan how the pupils will work on those skill(s).
- The next step is the language (e.g. lexical items, grammar structures) you need to introduce and practise.

The textbook should be a starting point so check it and select the content. You shouldn't consider the textbook as the teaching tool that will decide the direction of the lesson. Consider it as a guide, you shouldn't feel compelled to use all the activities in it etc. You can replace what is given in the textbook with something else. You are, after all, the class teacher who knows the pupils personally and can predict which topics will be found interesting and which boring. Remember however, that the most interesting topic will become boring if the task set for the pupils is uninteresting and that, on the other hand, topics that are not particularly interesting can become very successful if you assign a task that your pupils find engaging.

Step 1. Choose a textbook and identify a certain lesson. Baring in mind the information presented above, think of the activities you will keep and those you will add, of the skills, language and content you will teach.

According to Scrivener(Learning Teaching 2005), formal lesson plans are often divided into three sections:

- background information about the class, the teacher, the materials and the overall aim of the lesson;
- language analysis of items that will be worked on in the class;

- a detailed chronological stage-to-stage description of the intended procedure for the lesson

Most formal lesson plans need to include:

- a clear statement of appropriate aims for the whole lesson;
- a clear list of stages in the lesson, with a description of activities, their aims and estimated timing;
- a list of specific target language items(if it is a language that includes language system work)

After writing the background information, an important part of the plan is a "statement of the intended procedure of the lesson"(Scrivener). This means writing a list of separate stages containing indications of what the teacher and students will do, the duration, interaction, the aims of the stage etc. Each stage can be numbered or named as mentioned earlier (warm-up, introduction, presentation, practice, evaluation/ feedback).

The plan should give simple and clear outlines for each stage and should include (Scrivener):

- the essential steps of each stage;
- classroom management information, such as pair-work, group-work, individual , who will talk etc.;
- assumptions regarding certain problems.

It's not advisable to:

- give long descriptions of everything that will happen;
- describe in detail the routine actions (e.g. "stand up" etc.);
- give word-for-word texts of all the instructions and explanations

Here we have a sample of a formal lesson plan (short version) - the blank form is taken from Scrivener's **"Learning Teaching".**

Teacher's name	Greta
Class name	5th B-Elementary
Date/ Lesson start time	12th May
Length of lesson	50 minutes

Main lesson aims	By the end of the lesson the pupils will be able to: • compare school subjects, using the long adjectives in the comparative and superlative forms • use the verb "to have" in discussions about their timetable and compare it with other pupils' • form accurate oral and written sentences using comparative and superlative forms of long adjectives
Personal goals	In this lesson I'm going to use visual aids to teach degrees of comparison of long adjectives as well as a Power Point presentation. I want to have my pupils motivated and active, so I'll try to use a game with school subjects and adjectives
Timetable fit	Pupils have been practicing degrees of comparison of short adjectives for the past two lessons. They have listened to a description of several persons and they have checked the correct information in a table for example, they have formed sentences with degrees of comparison of short adjectives, they have studied vocabulary related to physical appearance. Talking about degrees of comparison of irregular adjectives will be the next step
Assumptions	Pupils already have some knowledge about the verb "to have", so discussing and comparing timetables using this verb should not be a problem.
Predicted problems	Incorrectly using the word "than" in superlative sentences. Using "more" in superlative sentences and "the most" in comparative ones.
Materials used	Power-Point presentation, worksheets with exercises, flashcards, timetables of different pupils in UK

On the other hand, Harmer says in his "The Practice of English Language Teaching" that no one can say exactly what a formal plan should look like, or what information should be given. However, a formal plan should have the following (some of them can be seen in Scrivener's version above):

Aims – the results which we will try to achieve. Aims should represent what a teacher hopes the pupils will be able to do (by the end of the lesson), not what the teacher is going to do.

A lesson will have more than one aim, usually an overall objective (for example practicing listening skills) and specific aims (for example listening for specific information, guessing or predicting the content)

Assumptions: teachers should assume what the pupils know and can do.

Personal aims: these are what teachers try out (which they have never done before) or try to improve a teaching techniques. An example of such personal aim can be read in the table above.

Skills and language focus: naming the structures, functions, vocabulary or pronunciation

Timetable fit: this means the lesson which is about to be taught needs to be placed in a sequence of classes, what happens before and after it. An example can be found in the table above.

Assumed problems and possible solutions: Every teacher should take into considerations the *weak spots* of the lesson, what the pupils might find difficult and should also come up with possible solutions. For example the pupils might find it difficult to understand the use of Present Perfect Simple, in which case the teacher should bring extra exercises which should focus on it.

Post-planning considerations

A lesson plan may not work as well as expected due to a number of extraneous circumstances. Teachers should not get discouraged – it happens to even the most experienced ones! No one can move forward without some reflection and improvement and a desire to evolve. So the last step a teacher needs to do is to have a short post-lesson reflection time by asking himself/herself questions such as:

What went well in the lesson?   What problems did I experience?   Are there things I could have done differently?   How can I build on this lesson to make future lessons successful?

Identifying successful and less successful organization of class time and activities would make it easier to adjust to the contingencies of the classroom. For additional feedback on planning and managing class time, you can use the following resources: *student feedback, self-reflection, peer observation, viewing a videotape of your teaching* and *consultation with a staff member.*

Student feedback

Receiving student feedback in the middle of the semester can help you know what you are doing that facilitates the learning of the students and it will help make you aware of any difficulties they may be having with your instruction. It allows you to make adjustments needed by students in your class before the end of the semester and will foster a feeling among your students that you care about your teaching. Often minor adjustments on your part can make a tremendous difference in the classroom.

Self Reflection

Keeping a teaching journal can be a useful tool to help you reflect on your teaching and can assist you as you work to develop your own personal teaching style. Following are some ways you might use such a journal

- As you are planning your instruction, write in your journal the goals of a class session and how you plan to reach those goals. If you articulate what you want students to be able to do after a particular class period, it will help you design more effective instruction.
- Immediately after a class session, reflect on whether you reached the goals, what worked, what didn't work as well as you would like, and alternative things you might try another time. Also write down anything you learned: e.g., observations about a particular student, a combination of students in small groups that worked well, or something that you learned about yourself as a teacher.

Peer Observation

Having another teacher sit in on a class period can be a rich source of information. As an observer, this person often can help you understand the dynamics of your classroom. Many teachers find it beneficial to pair up with another teacher and sit in on each other's classes--this paves the way for discussion about teaching that can be beneficial to both teachers.

Home task: To learn some readymade lesson plans and give their views on them with presentation.

§16. Linking and Timing activities within a lesson

In each lesson the teacher has to consider the time that is in hours in short term planning and weeks in long term planning, so time is important because it "is the key variable in teaching", another important element in planning is space, by space the room and facilities available are meant (in medium term planning), while in short term planning; it refers to the use of space within lessons.

In a lesson which is entirely taken up with one kind of activity, interest is likely to flag: learners will find it more difficult to concentrate and may get bored and irritable which will detract from learning and may produce discipline problems in some classes. A varied lesson, besides being more interesting and pleasant for both teacher and learners, is also likely to cater for a wider range of learning styles and strategies, and may delay onset of fatigue by providing regular refreshing changes in the type of mental or physical activity demanded.

Task 1. How many different ways of varying language-learning activity within a lesson can you think of? It helps to think in terms of contrasts: for example, rapid-moving versus leisurely activities; or individuals versus pair/group versus full-class organization. Write down, or pool ideas in groups;

Selection and organization

Variation of components within the programme of a lesson is a good principle, but it is not enough. Varied activities flung together in random order can result in a feeling of restlessness and disorder; it is therefore worth defining some principles of selection and organization of components to construct a smooth, coherent programme. Which components should come earlier, which later in a lesson? Which are likely to fit together well to form a coherent sequence? And so on.

Below are some guidelines for the combination of different components that we have found useful and relevant in teaching.

WAYS OF VARYING A LESSON

1.   Tempo

Activities may be brisk and fast-moving (such as guessing games) or slow and reflective (such as reading literature and responding in writing).

2.   Organization

The learners may work on their own at individualized tasks; or in pairs or groups; or as a full class in interaction with the teacher.

3.   Mode and skill

Activities may be based on the written or the spoken language; and within these, they may vary as to whether the learners are asked to produce (speak, write) or receive (listen, read).

4.   Difficulty

Activities may be seen as easy and non-demanding; or difficult, requiring concentration and effort.

5.   Topic

Both the language teaching point and the (non-linguistic) topic may change from one activity to another.

6.   Mood

Activities vary also in mood: light and fun-based versus serious and profound; happy versus sad; tense versus relaxed.

7.   Stir-settle

Some activities enliven and excite learners (such as controversial discussions, or activities that involve physical movement); others, like dictations, have the effect of calming them down (see Maclennan, 1987).

8.   Active-passive

Learners may be activated in a way that encourages their own initiative; or they may only be required to do as they are told.

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Guidelines for ordering components of a lesson

1.   Put the harder tasks earlier

On the whole, students are fresher and more energetic earlier in the lesson, and get progressively less so as it goes on, particularly if the lesson is a long one. So it makes sense to put the tasks that demand more effort and concentration earlier on

(learning new material, or tackling a difficult text, for example) and the lighter ones later. Similarly, tasks that need a lot of student initiative work better earlier in the lesson, with the more structured and controlled ones later.

2.   *Have quieter activities before lively ones*

It can be quite difficult to calm down a class - particularly of children or adolescents - who have been participating in a lively, exciting activity. So if one of your central lesson components is something quiet and reflective it is better
on the whole to put it before a lively one, not after. The exception to this is when you have a rather lethargic or tired class of adults; here 'stirring' activities early on can actually refresh and help students get into the right frame of mind for learning.

3.   *Think about transitions*

If you have a sharp transition from, say, a reading-writing activity to an oral one, or from a fast-moving one to a slow one, devote some thought to the transition stage. It may be enough to 'frame' by summing up one component in a few words and introducing the next; or it may help to have a very brief transition activity which makes the move smoother (see Ur and Wright, 1992, for some ideas).

4.   *Pull the class together at the beginning and the end*

If you bring the class together at the beginning for general greetings, organization and introduction of the day's programme, and then do a similar full-class 'rounding-off' at the end: this contributes to a sense of structure. On the whole, group or individual work is more smoothly organized if it takes place in the middle of the lesson, with clear beginning and ending points.

5.   *End on a positive note*

This does not necessarily mean ending with a joke or a fun activity - though of course it may. For some classes it may mean something quite serious, like a summary of what we have achieved today, or a positive evaluation of something the class has done. Another possibility is to give a task which the class is very likely to succeed in and which will generate feelings of satisfaction. The point is to have students leave the classroom feeling good.

Questions; think and share:

~ *Are they appropriate for your own teaching context as they stand, or would you wish to omit, add to or change any of them?*

Task 2. Read and share your ideas

Timing: Note that the lesson plan includes an estimated time for each activity. Initially, you may have trouble accurately estimating how much time any given activity will take. However, planning an approximate time for activities, and even writing the time into your lesson plan, is still a good idea. Doing so allows you to see how your actual chronological progress through the lesson period is matching up with what you had planned, so that you are more quickly alerted to the need to begin taking remedial measures, such as speeding the activity up, slowing things down, or preparing plan B.

Good lesson design begins with a review of previously learned material. New material is then introduced, followed by opportunities for learners to practice and be evaluated on what they are learning.

What Are Some Practical Considerations in Planning Lessons?

A good lesson plan involves consideration of more than just what is going to be taught (the objective) and how it will be taught (materials, equipment, and activities). The following elements also need to be thought about and planned for:

• Sequencing—Do the activities move logically so learners are progressively building on what they already know? Do the activities flow well? Are transitions between activities smooth?

• Pacing—Are activities the right length and varied so that learners remain engaged and enthused?

• Gauging difficulty—Do the learners have enough skill and knowledge to do the planned activities? Are the instructions clear?

• Accounting for individual differences—Do the activities allow for learners of varying proficiency levels to receive extra attention they might need, whether below or above the norm? Are all students actively involved?

• Monitoring learner versus teacher talk—What is the balance between learner talk and teacher talk? Does the lesson allow a time for learners to interact, producing and initiating language?

• Timing—Was the amount of time allotted for each part of the lesson sufficient? If the planned lesson finishes early, is there a backup activity ready? If the lesson wasn't completed as planned, how can the next class be adjusted to finish the material?

Sample : Lesson Plan: Intermediate Level

Class: <u>Intermediate ESL</u>

Date_____

Time: We are assuming the class period is a minimum of two hours. Times listed for the activities are approximate. Times for each of the activities will vary depending on number of students in the class, literacy level of the class, and other factors. A specific lesson plan will always occur in the context of prior and subsequent lessons and objectives and other class activities. The following is a sample plan using a commercially published textbook. It is included because it contains an activity for interpreting a weekly homework form, a type of document literacy that most parents will need to read and fill out for their children. Also, we want to show that it is not necessary to create all your own activities in your lesson plans; textbook exercises can often be adapted or even used as is to meet your objectives.

Lesson Objective: Interpret elementary school weekly homework form.

<u>Language Skills:</u>

Read a simple chart and explain the following orally:

• Days of the week
• School subjects
• Other vocabulary: daily, weekly, each, comments (new)

<u>Life Skills:</u>
Cultural information: parents are often expected to monitor or help with children's

homework

Materials:
Equipment:

• Sample homework forms from local schools   •Overhead
projector
• Transparency of one form   •VCR
• A Day in the Life of the Gonzalez Family(text, page 49
and video scene 6), by C. Van Duzer & M. Burt (1999).
Available from the Center for Applied Linguistics, at
http://calstore.cal.org/store/
Used with permission.

Stages of the Lesson:

Warm Up/Review(10 minutes)

Review school subjects by asking learners what their children are studying in school
and which subjects and skills are listed on their children's report cards (This is a review
of a previous lesson on interpreting report cards). Review days of the week by asking
learners if their children study these every day or only on certain days. Ask what days
the learners study English and what they do other days.

Introduction

"Elementary school teachers often prepare weekly homework forms so parents can help
their children with homework. Today we are going to learn how to read and fill out
these forms."

Presentation(20 minutes)

1. Play the video, scene 6 (Class has previously seen this during a lesson on permission
slips and report cards). Ask the learners what Maria can do to help her daughter do
better in school. Elicit the suggestion that she can review the weekly homework sheet.

2. Show the Sample Homework Form A (page II–39) on the Overhead Projector. Have
the learners read the form silently and note any words they don't know. Ask what
words they noted and write them on the board. Have the learners discuss the meanings.
Hand out copies of the form to the students. Then ask the following comprehension
questions:

• What do the children have to do every day?
• How often do they have a math worksheet?

- How often do they create a special project?
- What is Catalina having difficulty doing?
- What does her mother ask the teacher to do?

Practice(30 minutes)

1. Have the learners open their books to page 49 of the textbook. Have them read the form silently and then work in pairs to answer the discussion questions on the page.

2. Hand out Sample Homework Form B to each pair (page II–40). Have them write questions about this form. Have them exchange papers with another pair and answer the questions that the pairs have written. Discuss as a whole group.

3. As a whole group, have the learners list the homework assignments that their children usually have and write them on the board.

4. In pairs, have the learners create a homework form for their children.

Evaluation(30 minutes)

1. Ask the learners to bring their children's weekly homework forms to the next class and to prepare a short oral presentation that gives information about what their child needs to do for homework that week, how often, and any help needed from family members.

2. During the presentations, evaluate each learner on the inclusion and accuracy of the information stated above.

Sample II–20: **Homework Form A**

(See the sample lesson plan on page II–37-38 for general instructions.)

Directions: Read the form and answer the questions below about it.

Carter Elementary School Weekly Homework Plan – Fifth Grade		Child's Name *Catalina Gomez* Teacher *Mr. Peepers*				
Students will:	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Fri.	
• read 20 minutes each night.	X	X	X	X	X	
• complete a math sheet (M-W-F).	X		X		X	
• complete a spelling activity (Monday-Thursday) and study for a quiz on Thursday night.	X	X	X	X		
• prepare a Science or History project once a month. Instructions will come home 2 weeks before the Friday it is due.	X	X	X	X		

Parents: Please help your child every day. After finishing the homework each night, check the appropriate boxes. Return the folder each Friday. You can write any comments you have below.

Parent Comments *Cati had trouble with the math on Wednesday. Can you explain how to subtract fractions again? Thank you.*

_____

Parent Signature *Eliana Flores Gomez*   Date: Friday *9/17/04*

- What do the children have to do every day?
- How often do they have a math worksheet?
- How often do they create a special project?
- What is Catalina having difficulty doing?
- What does her mother ask the teacher to do?

Sample II–21: **Homework Form B**

(See the sample lesson plan on page II–37-38 for general instructions)

Directions: With a partner, write questions about this form. Then exchange papers with another pair and answer the questions that the pairs have written. Discuss as a whole group.

Carter Elementary School Weekly Homework Plan –Third Grade	Child's Name _____ Teacher _____				
Students will:	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Fri.
• read 20-30 minutes each night.					
• complete a math sheet (M-T-W-Th).					
• complete a nightly spelling activity and study for a quiz on Thursday night.					
• prepare a Book project once a month. Instructions will come home 2 weeks before the Friday it is due.					

Parent Comments _____

_____

_____

Parent Signature _____ Date: Friday _____

Homeassignment.

1. Observe one or two foreign language lessons, noting down in detail what observation the components are and how they are organized. The lessons should task preferably be given by a teacher you do not know, or a video recording can be used.

2. Create your own lesson plans and give your views on them

§17. Setting a homework
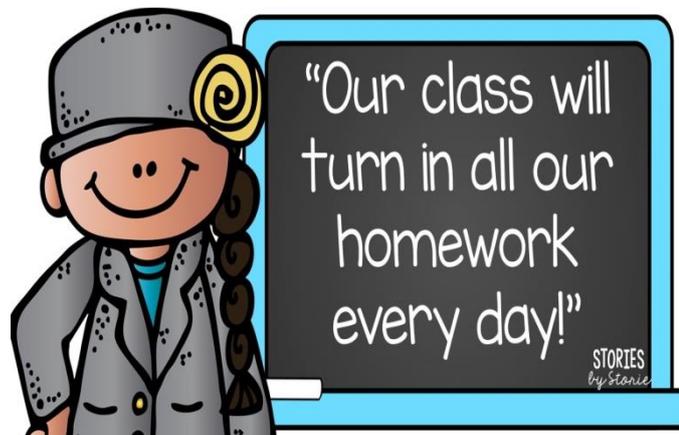
Value of homework

■ **Read the material and present in groups your opinions on it**

Why do we as teachers give homework? Some reasons that have occurred to me are:

- ✓ *Preparation for next class*
- ✓ *Revision of work done in that day's or previous classes*
- ✓ *Consolidation and practice of work done in that day's class*
- ✓ *Extension of language knowledge*
- ✓ *Further skills practice*
- ✓ *Acquisition of further language, style, etc from extensive receptive skills wor*
- ✓ *Finishing off work started in class or to save class time for more communicative activities*
- ✓ *To allow students to work at their own pace.*
- ✓ *To allow us to check that students have understood what we have tried to teach.*
- ✓ *As a diagnostic tool to identify gaps in students' knowledge.*

We are sure this list is not exhaustive.

Now, what about students? What do they see as the value of homework?

The most common reasons that students gave for its value were the opportunities for revision and practice of what they had been taught that day. Some felt that they would not study outside class unless homework was set and others appreciated being able to work at their own speed. Somebody pointed out that they understood more when they studied by themselves and another student said it was a useful way to find out your own weaknesses. Other reasons given were more independence, a chance for your teacher to check if you have understood the lesson, extra hours for studying and the only time to really memorize vocabulary.

Those who were less enthusiastic about homework generally felt that self-study was more useful, or that the time was better spent out with friends practicing English with a more communicative purpose.

Types of homework

What types of homework can we give students to do? Here is a list of some:

- ✓ *Exercises from the workbook or from grammar or vocabulary books.*
- ✓ *Controlled writing, using a model or strict guidelines.*
- ✓ *Free writing e.g. Compositions*
- ✓ *Writing diaries* - here students can be factual or more expressive. Barton and Walton suggest that we "leave a space for both creativity and lack of creativity".
- ✓ *Intensive or extensive reading,* maybe of graded readers, magazines or reports
- ✓ *Memorising, vocabulary, grammar, phonemic symbols etc.* for a test
- ✓ *Listening.* This could involve students taking EFL tapes home (though we must abide by copyright law if copying tapes for them). Or the listening could be from the media: soaps, news, programmes that interest them etc (though we must be aware that students living with host families may not be able to choose what they watch on TV). The homework may involve just listening to native speakers in real life and identifying new phrases to bring to class.
- ✓ *Speaking.* This could take the form of interviewing somebody or chatting more informally to them about a subject. Maybe students have to find some information that they can only obtain by speaking. The task may be to try to use a certain recently-learnt phrase in a real-life situation and then report back on whether it was understood, what the context was, etc. The students may be asked to audio tape their conversations.
- ✓ *Project work* – this could involve any of the skills.

- ✓ *Preparing oral presentations.*
- ✓ *Organising classwork notes or vocabulary records.*

So homework can take many forms beyond the traditional gap-filling type of exercises. We have found that some very communicative students perform poorly in these types of exercises, while others can produce very accurate work, but are poor communicators. A wide variety of homework types seems the best answer. We should consider carefully whether homework tasks should be contextualized and communicative or if we should be asking the learners to work on one discrete area, rather like doing reps in the gym, working one muscle at a time. Again, a balance is desirable

Setting homework

How can we make sure that students are fully prepared for the homework we have asked them to do? Here are some suggestions

- ✓ *Write instructions for homework on the board.*
- ✓ *Write instructions on an A3 sheet drawn up as a table on the wall* – like a timetable that students can refer to.4
- ✓ *Agree at the beginning of the course where students will note down homework instructions.*
- ✓ *Prepare students for the work.* For example, if you want them to do a particular type of writing it would be useful for them to see a model first or have input on structure or relevant discourse markers.
- ✓ *Start the homework in class to make sure everyone knows what they are doing and has a few correct answers to refer back to.* This safety element can be reduced as the course goes on.
- ✓ *For freer work, let students know what you will particularly be looking for when you mark it.* You could say "Impress me with your use of ... (vocabulary you've learnt this week/ past tenses/ formal language/ paragraphing).

- ✓ *Give your students an exercise book at the beginning of the course for all of their writing.* They could write diaries starting from the front and other written work from the back. Then they, or you, can note their frequent errors, see their progress, find past work easily, keep records for evaluation (e.g. for report writing) without extra paperwork on your part.

For most general English classes, a total each day of about an hour seems manageable and reasonable, still leaving plenty of time for socializing and self-study. This can be negotiated with students.

-Optional work may be offered.

-Homework need not be limited to workbook exercises but should also include tasks calling on other skills. Contextualized and communicative homework should play a major part.

-Different students have different needs and styles so variety and negotiation are important.

-Students need to be carefully prepared for homework and should always know what is expected of them.

-Collaborative homework tasks are useful but the teacher needs to check that there is a balance of input from each student.

-If the teacher marks homework she needs to be encouraging and allow opportunities for students to process the returned work in some way.

-Students should be encouraged to edit their own work to foster independence.

-Homework should be returned to students promptly. (Johanna Stirling Feb 2000)

<u>Home assignment</u>

- ➢ Create valuable homework for your lesson plan

<h1>§18. Making use of available materials and resources</h1>

Task 1. Brainstorm on how learner styles can affect using appropriate resources

Task 2. Read the following material and give your own ideas about lesson resources.

Making use of available materials and resources by learner styles

When we are teaching English to kids, as teachers we need to be aware of the differences in learning styles of our students so that we can incorporate all of these learning styles and available materials and resources into our lessons. Being able to identify which types of learners our students are will help us to make sure they don't get left out of learning effectively.

Below are the 6 different learner types and details on different activities to suit their learning styles.

Visual Learners

Visual learners learn best by looking. The enjoy reading (and often prefer to see the words they are learning) and seeing pictures.

Visual learners respond well to:

information on the whiteboard
<u>flashcards</u>
colorful pictures
videos
story books with pictures
computer graphics
maps (e.g. treasure maps)
charts
cartoons
posters
board games
worksheets
puzzles

When teaching kids, we can ensure our visual learners are well catered for by having lots of visuals and a wide variety of things to look at. If you can, fill your

classroom with colorful, attractive posters. Make use of flashcards (<u>we have lots on our website</u>) and pictures when teaching new vocab. Use readers with lots of colorful illustrations. If you have the resources, use video and computer graphics. Whenever you are planning your lesson, think how you can visually stimulate your learners.

Auditory Learners

Auditory learners learn best by listening. They work well with spoken instructions and learn quickly by listening to stories and songs. They will not need to see written words to learn.

Auditory learners respond well to:

<u>songs</u>
listening to stories
poems and riddles
verbal instructions and explanations
listening activities
participating in oral activities

As audio learners tune in to sounds, try and provide as many opportunities to have sound and noise added to your lesson. Songs are an obvious source and encourage your learners to listen and sing along. If you can find a song which fits your lesson theme or target vocab, all the better – we have a growing selection of <u>theme based ESL songs on our website</u>. Using stories in lessons is something all kids love. There are lots of readers available, but you can also make up your own stories to fit in with your lesson (also try to add pictures for your visual learners).

Always think how sounds can be added to lessons, such as teach animal noises along with animal vocab, sounds of cars, airplanes, trains, etc. when teaching transportation, and so on. You'll be surprised at the amount of sounds you can teach! Concentrate on pronunciation of sounds as well, from the letters of the alphabet to words and sentences – your audio learners will really pick up on this if you provide the opportunity. Also, do listening exercises which require students to listen to your instructions in order to complete a task (see our section on <u>Top 10 listening activities without a CD</u>).

Always allow for oral communication during activities – set up pair or groups work together where your students have to talk and listen to each other to complete the tasks.

Tactile Learners

Tactile learners learn physically by touching and manipulating objects.

Tactile learners respond well to:

drawing
songs with gestures
playing board games
making models (e.g. with play doh or lego)
craft activities
feeling in the bag activities
following instructions to make things

Tactile learners need to feel and touch – without this they won't internalize new vocab / structures as easily. Let them touch and feel everything! When using flashcards, always pass them around (you'll see the tactile learners really come to life at this point). Have lots of objects available to teach new vocab (cars, plastic fruit, animal toys, blocks, colored paper, etc.) so when you teach new words you can let your students touch and play with the objects.

Use puppets for role playing structures and let your students touch, cuddle, tickle and even use the puppet themselves. Also, try setting up feeling type activities – place an object in a bag and have students feel and guess what it is, use blindfolds and have students feel things or find their way around the classroom.

Let your tactile learners express themselves by drawing and making things. Have them draw a scene with new vocab that they have just learned, or build and make things with lego or play doh. Crafts are also a great way to teach and reinforce new vocab.

Kinesthetic Learners

Kinesthetic learners learn physically by moving around.

Kinesthetic learners respond well to:

songs with gestures
playing games in which they need to use their whole body (e.g. Charades)
doing exercise type activities which require running and jumping

movement activities

making models (e.g. with play doh or lego)

<u>craft activities</u>

following instructions to make something

setting up experiments

Kinesthetic kids always want to be on the go. Just sitting and watching/listening won't keep them interested for long. Have lots of gestures to use with songs and let them act out new vocab (e.g. teach "horse" and let your students run around like a horse, teach "eat breakfast" and have them pretending to eat cereal and toast, etc.).

Set lots of action activities which lets them express themselves with movement (see our <u>Top 10 Flashcard Exciting Games & Activities</u>). Include craft and model making activities (your tactile learners will also thank you for this) and always encourage your students to experiment actively when learning new things – if a student wants to roll around on the floor like a ball when you are teaching the word ball, let him.

Analytic Learners

Analytic learners focus on the details of language, such as grammar rules, and enjoy taking apart words and sentences.

Analytic learners respond well to:

well-structured and clear lessons
information and instructions given in steps
clearly stated goals and objectives of tasks
activities which require thought, such as matching exercises, puzzles, missing letters, etc.
Your analytic learners will enjoy activities and tasks where they need to think and work on the specifics of the language. Play games like concentration with flashcards when learning new vocab, do worksheets with matching and word scramble activities. Play games on the whiteboard where student have to guess the missing letters of a word (hangman is a great choice). Give out alphabet letter blocks and have your students put the letters in alphabetical order and make words. When giving instructions, always take care to be clear and give step-by-step details.

For even very young learners they are a lot of things you can do which require some analytical thought: put colored fruit and colored paper around the room and ask your students to match the fruit with their colors (red paper with red apple,

etc.); put objects of different sizes and tell students to put large objects in one box and small objects in another (or soft / hard, heavy / light, etc.). Most activities can have a thoughtful element.

Global Learners

Global learners focus on the whole picture and do not care so much about specific details. They do not want to get bored with slow moving lessons and enjoy interesting and attractive materials.
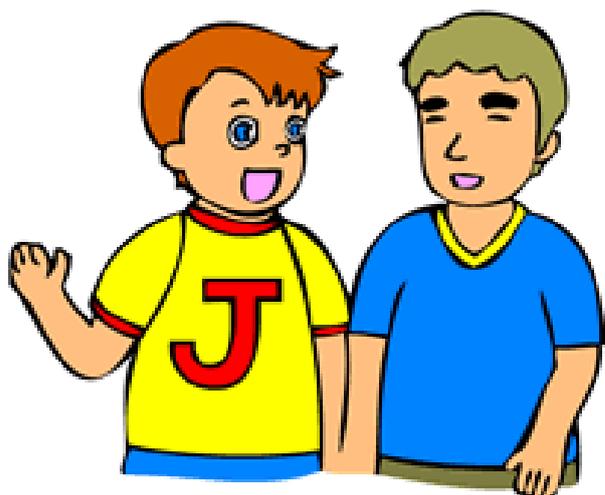
Global learners respond well to:

games
group activities
story writing
lots of action based activities
computer games
talking without being interrupted for correction

Make sure to include lots of fun games and activities for your global learners where the language learning objective is not so forced or obvious. Let them play with the objects or write stories simply for the fun of doing them (although they are still learning they won't realize it). Get them working in pairs or groups to complete tasks and let them move around the class as they do their activity.

Global learners tend not to like being interrupted when doing their activity (why would they? It stops them doing what they are trying to do!) so correcting can be done at the end of the task or you could chat to the students during the task asking questions which are based on checking their understanding of the main teaching point.

Conclusion

You may have read the above and thought "How on earth do I include all of these different learning styles in all of my teaching points and activities?". Yes, there are a lot of different styles and many contradict each other – Analytic and Global learners, for instance, are at opposite ends of the spectrum. The key is to include different styles at different points of the lesson.

For example, when you teach some new words use flashcards and get all of the kids to listen to you and say the words clearly with associated noises (for the Visual and Auditory learners), then have the students run around acting out the

words (for the Kinesthetic learners), next do a feel in the bag activity to guess the objects and then have your students do a drawing activity (for the Tactile learners), after that have your students in teams make models of the objects with play doh with a prize for the best team (for the Global learners) and finally have a worksheet activity where students need do matching or guessing activities (for the Analytic learners – be sure to clearly explain how to do the task).

You don't have to include all learning styles for each teaching point, but try to include a variety of styles throughout the lesson so all of your students get catered for at some point.

Finally, if you are able to identify the type of learners you have in your class you can adapt your lesson on the spot if you see some are having trouble understanding or losing interest. For example, if a student is looking puzzled at your big / small presentation, have him or her stand up big or curl up small, make a big play-don ball and small ball, color in a worksheet with big and small objects, etc.

Having a wide variety of styles included in your lesson will really help your students understand, internalize and enjoy your lessons.

§19. Anticipating problems (including ways of dealing with disruptive behavior)

Task 1. Read and discuss article belonging to the classroom behavior problem and 10 strategies

Reducing Problem Behaviors through Good Academic Management: 10 Strategies

Students who are confrontational or non-compliant frequently have poor academic skills, a low sense of self-efficacy as learners, and a very negative attitude toward school (Sprick, et al., 2002). Misbehavior often stems from academic deficits. Educators who work with these behaviorally challenging learners, however, often make the mistake of overlooking simple academic strategies that have been shown to shape student behavior in powerful and positive ways (Penno et al., 2000). Here are ten research-based ideas on academic management that no teacher of difficult-to-manage students should be without!

1. **Be sure that assigned work is not too easy and not too difficult.** It is surprising how often classroom behavior problems occur simply because students find the assigned work too difficult or too easy (Gettinger & Seibert, 2002). When assignments are too simple, the student may become bored and distracted. When work is too hard, the student is likely to feel frustrated and upset because he or she cannot complete the assignment. As a significant mismatch between the assignment and the student's abilities can trigger misbehavior, teachers should inventory each student's academic skills and adjust assignments as needed to ensure that the student is appropriately challenged but not overwhelmed by the work.

2. Offer frequent opportunities for choice. Teachers who allow students a degree of choice in structuring their learning activities typically have fewer behavior problems in their classrooms than teachers who do not. (Kern et al., 2002). Providing choices gives students a sense of autonomy and voice in their learning. It should also be remembered that no teacher could possibly anticipate each student's idiosyncratic learning needs in every situation. If students are offered choice in structuring their academic activities, however, they will frequently select those options that make their learning easier and more manageable. In sum, students who exercise academic choice are more likely to be active, motivated managers of their own learning and less likely to simply act out due to frustration or boredom.

As an example of choice at the group level, an instructor may let the entire class vote on which of two lessons they would prefer to have presented that day. Choice can be incorporated into individual assignments too. In independent seatwork, for example, a student might be allowed to choose which of several short assignments to do first, the books or other research materials to be used, the response format (e.g., writing a short essay, preparing an oral report), etc. One efficient way to promote choice in the classroom is for the teacher to create a master menu of options that students can select from in various learning situations. An instructor, for example, may teach the class that during any independent assignment, students will always have a chance to (1) choose from at least 2 assignment options, (2) sit where they want in the classroom, and (3) select a peer-buddy to check their work. Student choice then becomes integrated seamlessly into the classroom routine.

3. Select high-interest or functional learning activities. Kids are more motivated to learn when their instructional activities are linked to a topic of high interest (Kern et al., 2002). A teacher who discovers that her math group of 7th-graders loves NASCAR racing, for example, may be able to create engaging math problems based on car-racing statistics. Students may also be energized to participate in academic activities if they believe that these activities will give them functional skills that they value (Miller et al., 2003). One instructor assigned to work with a special-education classroom of high school boys with serious behavior problems related that she had great difficulty managing the class-until she realized that each of them wanted to learn to drive. So the teacher brought in copies of the state driver's education manual and that became the instructional text. The students were much better behaved because they were now motivated learners working toward the pragmatic real-world goal of learning to drive (R. Sarsfield, personal communication).

4. Instruct students at a brisk pace. A myth of remedial education is that special-needs students must be taught at a slower, less demanding pace than their general-education peers (Heward, 2003). In fact, a slow pace of instruction can actually cause significant behavior problems, because students become bored and distracted. Teacher-led instruction should be delivered at a sufficiently brisk pace to hold student attention. An important additional benefit of a brisk instructional pace is that students cover more academic material more quickly, accelerating their learning (Heward, 2003).

5. Structure lessons to require active student involvement. Here is a powerful concept in behavior management: it is very difficult for students to be actively engaged in academics and to misbehave at the same time! When teachers require that students participate in lessons rather than sit as passive listeners, they increase

the odds that these students will become caught up in the flow of the activity and not drift off into misbehavior (Heward, 2003). Students can be encouraged to be active learning participants in many ways. A teacher, for example, may call out questions and have the class give the answer in unison ('choral responding'); pose a question, give the class 'think time', and then draw a name from a hat to select a student to give the answer; or direct students working independently on a practice problem to 'think aloud' as they work through the steps of the problem. Students who have lots of opportunities to actively respond and receive teacher feedback also demonstrate substantial learning gains (Heward, 1994).

6. Incorporate cooperative-learning opportunities into instruction. Traditional teacher lecture is frequently associated with high rates of student misbehavior. There is evidence, though, that when students are given well-structured assignments and placed into work-pairs or cooperative learning groups, behavior problems typically diminish (Beyda et al., 2002).Even positive teacher practices can be more effective when used in cooperative-learning settings. If students are working in pairs or small groups, teacher feedback given to one group or individual does not interrupt learning for the other groups.

7. Give frequent teacher feedback and encouragement. Praise and other positive interactions between teacher and student serve an important instructional function, because these exchanges regularly remind the student of the classroom behavioral and academic expectations and give the student clear evidence that he or she is capable of achieving those expectations (Mayer, 2000).

Unfortunately, in most classrooms, educators tend to deliver many more reprimands than they do praise statements. This imbalance is understandable: after all, teachers are under pressure to devote most of their class time to deliver high-quality instruction and tend to interrupt that instruction only when forced to deal with disruptive behavior. A high rate of reprimands and low rate of praise, however, can have several negative effects. First, if teachers do not regularly praise and encourage students who act appropriately, those positive student behaviors may whither away through lack of recognition. Second, students will probably find a steady diet of reprimands to be punishing and might eventually respond by withdrawing from participation or even avoiding the class altogether. A goal for teachers should be to engage in at least 3 to 4 positive interactions with the student for each reprimand given (Sprick, et al., 2002). Positive interactions might include focused, specific praise, non-verbal exchanges (e.g., smile or 'thumbs-up' from across the room), or even an encouraging note written on the student's homework assignment. These positive interactions are brief and can often be delivered in the midst of instruction.

8. Provide correct models during independent work. In virtually every classroom, students are expected to work independently on assignments. Independent seatwork can be a prime trigger, though, for serious student misbehavior (DuPaul & Stoner, 2002). One modest instructional adjustment that can significantly reduce problem behaviors is to supply students with several correctly completed models (work examples) to use as a reference (Miller et al., 2003). A math instructor teaching quadratic equations, for example, might provide 4 models in which all steps in solving the equation are solved. Students could refer to these models as needed when completing their own worksheets of similar algebra problems. Or an English/Language Arts teacher who assigns his class to compose a letter to their U.S. Senator might allow them to refer to three 'model' letters while they write.

9. Be consistent in managing the academic setting. Picture this (not-uncommon) scenario: A teacher complains that her students routinely yell out answers without following the classroom rule of first raising their hand to be recognized. She invites an observer into the classroom to offer her some ideas for reducing the number of call-outs. The observer quickly discovers that the teacher often ignores students who have raised their hand and instead accepts answers that are blurted out. Because she is inconsistent in enforcing her classroom rules, the teacher is actually contributing to student misbehavior!

As a group, students with challenging behaviors are more likely than their peers to become confused by inconsistent classroom routines. Teachers can hold down the level of problem behaviors by teaching clear expectations for academic behaviors and then consistently following through in enforcing those expectations (Sprick et al., 2002). Classrooms run more smoothly when students are first taught routines for common learning activities--such as participating in class discussion, turning in homework, breaking into cooperative learning groups, and handing out work materials-and then the teacher consistently enforces those same routines by praising students who follow them, reviewing those routines periodically, and reteaching them as needed.

10. Target interventions to coincide closely with 'point of performance'. Skilled teachers employ many strategies to shape or manage challenging student behaviors. For instance, a teacher may give a 'pre-correction' (reminder about appropriate behaviors) to a student who is about to leave the room to attend a school assembly, award a 'good behavior' raffle-ticket to a student who displayed exemplary behavior in the hallway, or allow a student to collect a reward that she had earned for being on time to class for the whole week.

It is generally a good idea for teachers who work with a challenging students to target their behavioral and academic intervention strategies to coincide as closely as possible with that student's 'point of performance' (the time that the student engages in the behavior that the teacher is attempting to influence) (DuPaul & Stoner, 2002). So a teacher is likely to be more successful in getting a student to take his crayons to afternoon art class if that teacher reminds the student just as the class is lining up for art than if she were to remind him at the start of the day. A student reward will have a greater impact if it is given near the time in which it was earned than if it is awarded after a two-week delay. Teacher interventions tend to gain in effectiveness as they are linked more closely in time to the students' points of performance that they are meant to influence.

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Home task:

➢ Search case studies relevant to the classroom behavior problem and present them with the solution to the next lesson.

§20. Critical evaluation of ready-made lesson plans from Internet

This kind of scenario has many educators concerned about using of the Internet as a reliable resource for academic information. The fact is that almost anyone can now publish on the Internet, while only a few years ago, nearly everything that you read was filtered by editors and presented based at least on its economic value if not for its scholarly worth. Today, anyone with an axe to grind can do so over the Internet and with a look of authority. At the same time the

Internet is increasingly becoming the first and preferred source of information for many of us.

In response to this concern and the scenario above, I believe that the presence of inaccurate and biased information on the Internet is not our primary problem. The information and points of view have not really changed; it is the tools that have changed. Today, our students use professional and sophisticated information tools and global electronic networks to complete their assignments while most of us used pencil and paper and the information resources that existed in our school library.

The real problem with the scenario above is the assignment. The problem is that we are still, by and large, giving Lincoln Log assignments -- "Write a report about the Holocaust." These advanced and powerful capabilities that are increasingly available to our students beg for a different kind of assignment. Writing a report about something has as its goal the demonstration of gained knowledge. Yet gaining knowledge becomes only a small part of what students should be learning to prepare them for a world where knowledge changes and information grows at dizzying speeds.

In fact, in the information world, their jobs will be to help in growing knowledge by becoming information builders.

From the perspective of the builder, our students have aisles of information processing tools to choose from and an Internet warehouse from which to choose building materials. The difference is that the builder, in the middle of Builder's Supply, has a task or project in mind, something that he or she plans to build for the enjoyment and convenience of others. Our builder has a goal behind his or her selections of tools, lumber, and nails.

Likewise, as students browse through the Internet, looking for information raw materials, they should have goals for their work. The difference between "Lincoln Log" assignments and what students should be doing today, is that our young high school junior should have had a goal for her report beyond that of just earning a grade. Because she can produce such impressive work and it can potentially be published for others to see and use, her goal should be behavioral. **Students should be building their information products to affect impressions, decisions, beliefs, support or defeat positions, or create new knowledge.**
Goals-based projects have a variety of benefits:
- Goals-based projects provide a context for the student's work that is authentic. They are collecting, synthesizing, processing, assembling and

expressing information for a reason that is real and beyond the pursuit of just a grade.

- Students are less likely to simply copy and paste large chunks of text as they would if they were writing about something. They will find and copy smaller chunks of information and then carefully assemble them to produce information products that are designed to accomplish something. They will also provide mortar between these building blocks to hold them together and lend them relevance to the expressed goal.

- Goals-based assignments also lend themselves especially well to the use of rubrics. The student's goals can become part of the rubric's goals, with teacher or student defined benchmarks.

Goals-Based Evaluation

What do goals-based assignments have to do with evaluating Internet resources? Let's return to the builder's analogy. One of the many things that my father taught me is that when you are building something in the workshop, the number one key to success is using the appropriate tools and materials. Walk into any "Builder's Supply," and you have a virtual Internet of tools and building materials available to you. As you examine them individually, they are not judged as good or bad, but simply appropriate or inappropriate for specific building projects. Our task, as the shopper, is to select the tools and materials that are appropriate to our goals.

Traditionally, Internet resources have been evaluated from the perspective of the information itself and its source. This usually involves some type of checklist that puts all Internet information through the same sieve, evaluating each based on the same criteria. Here is part a checklist that I developed several months ago after reviewing some of the many evaluation forms available on the Internet.

Does the author have the authority to present this information?	Yes [ ] No [ ]
Does the author have anything to gain by presenting this information?	Yes [ ] No [ ]
Does the publishing organization have anything to gain by making this information available?	Yes [ ] No [ ]
Is the information consistent with other published material on the topic?	Yes [ ] No [ ]

It is implied that if you end up with a sufficient number of "Yes" checks, then the information is good and you use it. If not, then the information is bad and you never use it. Some of these evaluation forms can be quite long and picky, asking researchers to check spelling and grammar. But the result is the same. The resources is either stamped "Good" or "Bad," and this approval has little to do with the work that the student is doing.

As students' information products should be based on teacher or student established goals, evaluating the material that they consider using in their products should also be goals-oriented. Rather than judging the material based solely on itself via an examination instrument that has nothing to do with the students work, it should be judged from the perspective of what the student wants to accomplish.

From this standpoint, we would not ask, "Is the author qualified?", but, "What aspects of the author's background help me accomplish my goal?" Under certain circumstances, a web page published by a neo-nazi organization might actually be appropriate for an assignment, while other resources, produced by people with credential would not. It depends on what the student wants to accomplish.

This approach actually serves three interesting purposes.

- The student is focused on drawing supporting or appropriate information into the project rather than just filtering "bad" information out.
- The student gathers information about the information.
- As students approaches information with their goals to accomplish, they are less likely to be influenced by the goals of those who generated and published the information, which has interesting implications for *media literacy*.

§21. Planning for mixed-ability classes

Planning for mixed-ability classes

You may often be teaching a class which has students who are clearly of different levels. They may have different starting levels of English or they may learn at very different speeds - for any number of reasons.

These are several strategies that a teacher can use to deal with this situation.

Discussion and needs analysis
It is easy for students to get frustrated in a class of mixed ability. Stronger students may feel held back, weaker students may feel pressured. The teacher may feel stressed. The best solution to this is to have an open-class discussion about the classroom situation - to ensure the best for everyone it is better to acknowledge the situation and for everyone to agree how to deal with it. It is probably best to stage and structure the discussion.

Needs Analysis

Use a needs analysis to prompt the students to reflect upon their learning style, learning strategies, language needs, learning enjoyment, motivation, language strengths and weaknesses. Questions that might be included are...

- What kinds of class activities do you enjoy / benefit from?

- Which language skill do you most wish to develop?

- Do you prefer working individually or with a partner?

- Would you rather sit and listen to the teacher all lesson or participate in group work?

Students compare their answers in pairs or small groups. You should collect the information and prepare a statistical representation of the key questions and answers. This will help to develop the sense of shared community in the class.

Explain and discuss

Explain the mixed-level situation to the students and give a list of possible approaches to the teaching and learning. In pairs, the students rank the approaches/ideas according to their suitability for the situation.

Following feedback, you should highlight the strategies you plan to use.

A student contract

Developing with the students, or perhaps writing it yourself, a contract of behavior for activities is a useful device. 'I will help and support my activity partner.' 'I will participate in group work.'

Tell them what you are going to do
If you think your students are not mature enough to carry out this kind of reflection, explain the situation to the class and tell them what strategies you will be using. If students know what to expect, you can hope that they will cooperate.

All of the above work could be done in the mother tongue, although I feel it is best done primarily in the target language (as it draws attention to the fact that this is a learning language issue.)

Student self-awareness : Encourage students to develop an awareness of their own language abilities and learning needs. What are their strengths and weaknesses, and how can they focus on these? How can they measure their own progress

This may take the form of a learner's diary, regular self-assessment, keeping records of mistakes, keeping a record of things learnt.

Work groupings

Varying the way students work in the class will help meet the variety of levels in the class.

Pair work

You can pair strong with strong, weak with weak, or strong with weak. Perhaps in a very controlled activity, the strong with weak will work well. In a freer activity, perhaps strong with strong will be of benefit. Variety in the pairings is the key here - and you should also be sensitive to the general relationships between different students, and learn to note who works well with whom.

Group work

These groups could be of mixed levels or similar ones. The hope is that in a smaller group, the weaker student will feel more able to contribute. Also, if the group is working with a set of information, divide the information between the students, forcing them to work together.

You may consider dividing your class into groups by level for the whole lesson, enabling you to give a different level or number of tasks to each group. Discussion of this strategy with the class should help prevent stigmatisation.

Whole class – mingles

This is a favoured strategy of mine. A mingle activity involves students talking or interacting with many different members of the class in a short period of time in order to achieve a task. This means that any one student will work with students at different levels - experiencing stronger and weaker levels of communication. This supports the weaker students and provides opportunities for the stronger ones.

A classic activity is a 'Find someone who...'

- In this activity the student has to survey the class to find people who…(for example)

…have got something - Do you have a CD player? Or…

…have done something - Have you eaten fish and chips? Or…

…like something - Do you like tennis?

If a student answers yes to a question, then the other student should ask for more information. If a student answers no, then the other should find a new person to ask, and may come back to the first student with another question later on.

The potential for this is endless. It is a great way to provide practice of a particular language structure/area (10 questions all using the past simple) and provides controlled practice as well as the opportunity for further freer discussion. It also creates a lively classroom dynamic.

Mingles can take many forms - students may have to find the person who has a matching word to theirs, or the second half of a split sentence. The students may all have the same or different questions, or a mixture. The key is the general principle of an information gap or communicative need. Overall, variety in the types of working groups, and an open discussion of the class situation will help to deal with some of the difficulties that are present in mixed ability classes. The aim of these strategies is to create a positive working environment, which is all part of ensuring better learning.

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§22-23. Micro teaching (Reflection on microteaching) and requirements

ASSESSMENT SPECIFICATIONS

FOR MICRO – TEACHING

You will be involved in micro teaching that focuses on language skills based practice activities. Work out a learner profile (age, level) and context (school, kindergarten, university, college; name of the course) for which you are planning to conduct this activity. You will be preparing a 40 minute lesson in pairs and each of you will be responsible for delivering 20 minutes of it.

Note that your target audience will be your group mates who will be playing the role of your students. You can use available sources (books on methodology, language areas, internet, films and songs) with appropriate referencing. And you are also encouraged to adapt existing materials or to create your own activity. Your micro teaching should show the evidence of awareness of the following areas:

- ☐ Teaching receptive and productive skills
- ☐ Planning for teaching
- ☐ Appropriate use of materials
- ☐ Classroom language and management

Afterwards you will be required to write a reflection (450-500 words) on the lesson you have delivered. Your reflective writing should also refer to the mentioned above areas. Consider the following questions while writing your reflection:

1. Did your lesson go according to the plan? If not, why?

2. How did you select and develop the materials?

3. What language skills were practiced in your lesson?

4. How did you feel as a teacher? Did you face any problems in managing the class?

5. How helpful was your partner in preparing the lesson plan?

6. If you were given an opportunity to deliver this lesson again what would you have changed?

Criteria for reflection on micro teaching

1. Task response (keeping to word limit, giving reasonable answers, providing examples)

2. Organization (demonstrating appropriate organization of ideas)

3. Quality of reflection (evidence of critical thinking, self-evaluation)

Consider the following criteria while preparing and delivering your micro teaching lesson. Your work will be evaluated based on these criteria.

Look for evidence of some or all of the following statements.	
1. Relationship between planning and teaching • Evidence of achieving lesson objectives • Making changes from the original plan due to circumstances • Making smooth transitions between activities • Demonstrating appropriate time management	Total score: 25% Gained score:
2. Classroom language and management • Demonstrating appropriate teacher presence (voice, body language and movement) • Varying interaction patterns according to the context • Using appropriate questioning and elicitation techniques • Making effective use of teaching aids • Clear instructions	Total score: 25% Gained score:
3. Materials development • Evidence of authenticity and cultural appropriacy • Catering for the level of students • Demonstrating adequate design (eye catching, appropriate layout)	Total score: 25% Gained score:
4. Teaching language skills for communication • Evidence of skills integration (more than one) • Providing sufficient practice of language skills • Encouraging use of authentic English	Total score: 25% Gained score:
Comments	
Name:	Total score:100% Gained score:

Module 3

Teaching and integrating language skills

TEACHING AND INTEGRATING LANGUAGE SKILLS

§24. Introduction to and overview of the course: Historical overview of skill segregation and skill integration

Syllabus of the course
Introduction
This course provides an introduction to the ways and means of teaching and integrating language skills. The course focuses on the practicalities of communicative language teaching theories and issues related to communicative methodology.

Aim
To equip students with means of practicing language skills in an integrated way promoting proficiency in all four skills, and demonstrating the importance of skill integration in EFL teaching.

Objectives
By the end of the course students will

- be familiar with the skills of language that are used in communication; be familiar with significant modes of skills integration (content based learning, task -based learning, and project based learning);
- identify the means of teaching listening, speaking, reading, writing on the basis of good practice in communicative methodology;
- know how to provide learners with practice in each language skill within an integrated framework;
- understand the importance of fluency in teaching the four language skills within a integrated framework;
- be familiar with principles of integrated skills where the focus is on one skill that leads to practice in another.

Indicative content

Introduction to and overview of the course

- Historical overview of skill segregation and skill integration

Listening as an interactive process

- Improving listening proficiency

- Introducing real life aspects of listening
- Dealing with factors influencing the listening process
- Creating pre-, while-, post- listening activities
- Integrating phonology in language skills classes

Speaking as an interactive process

- Providing successful oral fluency practice
- Designing discussion activities
- Distinguishing fluency and accuracy activities
- Distinguishing spoken interaction from spoken production
- Kinds of spoken interaction as a part of classroom process relating to all skills

Reading as an interactive process

- Creating pre, while, post reading activities
- Choosing appropriate reading materials
- Role of authenticity
- Getting students to read purposefully
- Improving students' reading comprehension
- Teaching specific sub skills and strategies
- Critical reading as a basis for successful writing

Writing as an interactive process

- Factors affecting EFL writing development
- Introducing strategies of competent writers
- Introducing purposes in writing
- Authenticity in writing process
- Giving feedback in writing
- Applying process writing
- Sample writing activities

Integrating Skills

- Modes of integrating all four skills
- Content-based learning
- Task based learning
- Project based learning

Task 1. Article discussion. Group A

Read an extract taken from article and present its content and be ready to answer questions of another group.

TWO FORMS OF INTEGRATED-SKILL INSTRUCTION

Two types of integrated-skill instruction are content-based language instruction and task-based instruction. The first of these emphasizes learning content through language, while the second stresses doing tasks that require communicative language use. Both of these benefit from a diverse range of materials, textbooks, and technologies for the ESL or EFL classroom.

"Content-Based Instruction." In content-based instruction, students practice all the language skills in a highly integrated, communicative fashion while learning content such as science, mathematics, and social studies. Content-based language instruction is valuable at all levels of proficiency, but the nature of the content might differ by proficiency level. For beginners, the content often involves basic social and interpersonal communication skills, but past the beginning level, the content can become increasingly academic and complex. The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), created by Chamot and O'Malley (1994) shows how language learning strategies can be integrated into the simultaneous learning of content and language.

At least three general models of content-based language instruction exist: theme-based, adjunct, and sheltered (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). The theme-based model integrates the language skills into the study of a theme (e.g., urban violence, cross-cultural differences in marriage practices, natural wonders of the world, or a broad topic such as change). The theme must be very interesting to students and must allow a wide variety of language skills to be practiced, always in the service of communicating about the theme. This is the most useful and widespread form of content-based instruction today, and it is found in many innovative ESL and EFL textbooks. In the adjunct model, language and content courses are taught separately but are carefully coordinated. In the sheltered model, the subject matter is taught in simplified English tailored to students' English proficiency level.

"Task-Based Instruction." In task-based instruction, students participate in communicative tasks in English. Tasks are defined as activities that can stand alone as fundamental units and that require comprehending, producing, manipulating, or interacting in authentic language while attention is principally paid to meaning rather than form (Nunan, 1989).

The task-based model is beginning to influence the measurement of learning strategies, not just the teaching of ESL and EFL. In task-based instruction, basic pair work and group work are often used to increase student interaction and collaboration. For instance, students work together to write and edit a class newspaper, develop a television commercial, enact scenes from a play, or take part in other joint tasks. More structured cooperative learning formats can also be used in task-based instruction. Task-based instruction is relevant to all levels of language proficiency, but the nature of the task varies from one level to the other. Tasks become increasingly complex at higher proficiency levels. For instance, beginners might be asked to introduce each other and share one item of information about each other. More advanced students might do more intricate and demanding tasks, such as taking a public opinion poll at school, the university, or a shopping mall.

Article discussion. Group B

Read an extract taken from article and present its content and be ready to answer questions of another group.

ADVANTAGES OF THE INTEGRATED-SKILL APPROACH

The integrated-skill approach, as contrasted with the purely segregated approach, exposes English language learners to authentic language and challenges them to interact naturally in the language. Learners rapidly gain a true picture of the richness and complexity of the English language as employed for communication. Moreover, this approach stresses that English is not just an object of academic interest nor merely a key to passing an examination; instead, English becomes a real means of interaction and sharing among people. This approach allows teachers to track students' progress in multiple skills at the same time. Integrating the language skills also promotes the learning of real content, not just the dissection of language forms. Finally, the integrated-skill approach, whether found in content-based or task-based language instruction or some hybrid form, can be highly motivating to students of all ages and backgrounds.

INTEGRATING THE LANGUAGE SKILLS

In order to integrate the language skills in ESL/EFL instruction, teachers should consider taking these steps:

* Learn more about the various ways to integrate language skills in the classroom (e.g., content-based, task-based, or a combination).

* Reflect on their current approach and evaluate the extent to which the skills are integrated.

* Choose instructional materials, textbooks, and technologies that promote the integration of listening, reading, speaking, and writing, as well as the associated skills of syntax, vocabulary, and so on.

* Even if a given course is labeled according to just one skill, remember that it is possible to integrate the other language skills through appropriate tasks.

* Teach language learning strategies and emphasize that a given strategy can often enhance performance in multiple skills.

Home task.

1) Please read the article by Eli Hinkel "Current Perspectives on Integrated Teaching" " and give the main perspectives of Integrated Teaching.

2) Analyze the ideas of the linguists from the article and say in what conditions of teaching you can apply their findings and why?

Current Perspectives on Integrated Teaching

With the spread of English as a lingua franca and as the medium for world-wide dissemination of information and knowledge, in many cases, the pragmatic objectives of language learning underscore the importance of integrated and flexible instruction. In many regions around the world, learning English has the objective of enabling learners to gain access to social, vocational, educational, or professional opportunities (CelceMurcia, 2001; Kaplan, 1986; 1988; 1991). In common perspectives on contemporary language curricula, teaching reading is typically connected to instruction on writing and vocabulary, teaching writing can be easily tied to reading and grammar, and speaking skills readily lend themselves to teaching listening, pronunciation, and cross-cultural pragmatics (Hinkel, 1999; 2001).

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001: 165), integrated language instruction that engages learners in meaningful communication and enables them to attain their learning objectives can be found in an "unlimited" array of models, teaching

materials and techniques. A few examples of such integrated models with a communicative and contextualized focus are: content-based (sometimes also called theme-based), task-based, text-based (also called genre-based), discourse-based, project-based, network-based, technology-based, corpus-based, interaction-based, literature-based, literacy-based, community-based, competency-based, or standards-based.

With the current emphasis on both fluency and accuracy in language production, it seems clear, however, that integrated language teaching and learning, as well as integrative instructional models, will need to continue to be refined and developed (e.g., Breen, 1991; Swain, 1991). For instance, exposure to and experience with L2 speaking and meaningful interaction, but without the benefit of explicit and focused instruction, leads to learners' developing high degrees of fluency but not necessarily of accuracy and advanced L2 proficiency (e.g., Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Swain, 1991).

In regard to communication-oriented principles that guide much of integrated language teaching, critics have contended that with its focus on communication-ininteraction, second or foreign language instruction frequently lacks depth and substance.

As Howatt and Widdowson (2004) note, naturalistic and integrated language learning tends to meet the communicative needs that people would have as tourists in, for example, simple service transactions and casual conversational exchanges. Widdowson (2003: 24) explains, for instance, that "coping with written language is also a communicative objective," but the contemporary focus on face-to-face encounters lacks a teaching focus on "an understanding of writing, literary and otherwise, of the past." He also points out that, outside English-speaking areas where English is taught as a school subject, current methodologists would do well to consider "what kind of language is to be specified for the subject to fulfill its educational objective" (2003: 27).

On the other hand, in recent years, standards- and outcomes-based language teaching curricula have become one of the foremost educational priorities in a number of English-speaking nations. To this end, innovative integrated methodological models have been proposed to concentrate on advancing learner proficiencies in a range of language skills. Specifically, the objectives of these models are geared toward clearly defined language competencies that students need to achieve within the educational system. Stern (1992) is to be credited with the first set of guidelines for an integrated curriculum that address the major goal of advancing students' language proficiency. His model effectively combines the

learning of the central language skills with the achievement-oriented syllabusi in culture learning, communicative skills, and general education. Stern also notes (1992: 76) that "as useful expressions of proficiency, however, the 'four skills' continue to be important categories in language pedagogy."

In Canada, for example, the instructional model is based on Stern's "proficiency as competence" (1992: 73) and on communicative competence together with "the mastery of such skills as listening, speaking, reading and writing." Canadian Language Benchmarks and common sets of proficiency standards have been a recognized success in nation-wide second language teaching. Canadian language assessments and national achievement standards also account for the fact that many learners' language proficiencies vary from skill to skill. In part, the effectiveness of the Canadian achievement-oriented curriculum can be attributed to its design supporting learners with different levels of mastery in the four skills (Breen, 2001). Other types of integrated syllabus are currently adopted in national educational movements and in the U. S.,

Australia and New Zealand. These standards-based curricula reflect an ongoing work in the refinement and elaboration of integrated instruction that can raise learners' language proficiency and the quality of production in the contexts of real-life communication. (See, e.g., McDonough & Shaw, 2003 for detailed discussion.)

Used Literature
Eli Hinkel (1999-2001)"Current Perspectives on Integrated Teaching"

§25. The analysis of integrated language skills.

Features all 4 language skills:

- <u>Reading</u> (comprehension skill)
- <u>Listening</u> (comprehension skill)
- <u>Speaking</u> (production skill)
- <u>Writing</u> (production skill)

Listening vs. Reading	
Spoken Language	**Written language**
• Tends to be informal and colloquial, • Text is gone quickly; so you often can't refer back to check it, • Often unplanned and unorganized with repetition, hesitations, and interruptions, • Vagueness and ambiguity are allowed and often preferred, Use of weak forms and contractions make some parts hard to perceive; • Stress, intonation, and pauses show emphasis and groupings of ideas; • Body language (e.g. facial expressions and gestures) helps understanding.	• Tends to be more formal, • Text stays on the page; you can refer back to it, • Usually planned and organized with little repetition, • Precision and clarity are preferred, and often required, All text is equally visible on the page. There are no strong and weak forms; • Punctuation and spaces between words show word, sentence, and paragraph boundaries; • Text often has little or no visual support.

How are the four skills used in the language classroom?

Through daily activities, teachers provide learners with opportunities to develop each skill: students *listen*(to the teacher use the target language, to a song, to one another in a pair activity), *speak*(pronunciation practice, greetings, dialogue creation or recitation, songs, substitution drills, oral speed reading, role play), *read* (instructions, written grammar drills, cards for playing games, flashcards) and*write* (fill-in-the-blank sheets, sentences that describe a feeling, sight or experience, a dialogue script, a journal entry).

This approach, however, does not combine the four skills so that they can be used together to reach the same end (i.e. language development that is well-rounded).

How can the four skills be used together effectively?

The four skills work in tandem when the activities that require their use are designed to support learners in the *process* of learning, creating and producing a specific product. Four approaches in particular are structured so that the four skills can be used simultaneously. These approaches are: the focal skill approach, content-based instruction, task-based instruction and the project-based approach.

The Focal Skill Approach

The goal of the focal skill approach is studying in the SL in order to acquire it. This second language curriculum stresses the balanced development of listening, speaking, reading and writing by measuring competency in each skill and then focusing on the development of the weakest skill. Resources like those developed by the International Center for Focal Skills (ICFS) use placement tests to identify weak skill areas.

Content-based Instruction(CBI)
Oxford (2001) describes approaches to CBI, which include theme-based & adjunct learning. Theme-based CBI focuses on a theme of high interest to students and develops a wide range of language skills around that theme. The learning of the content requires considerable exposure to a variety of forms of information, which, in turn, requires the use of all four modalities.

In the adjunct form of CBI, language and content courses are taught separately but are carefully coordinated so that literacy, oral language development and thinking skills are positively enhanced. In this approach, the content teacher presents content to students while the language teacher brings vocabulary, grammar and subskill development to students' attention through typical exercises, all of which focus on the lexicon of the content.

Task-based Instruction(TBI)

According to Nunan (1999), task-based instruction (TBI) uses tasks or stand-aline activities which require comprehending, producing, manipulating or interacting in the target language. The amount of listening, speaking, reading and writing

involved to complete the problem posed by the task is dictated by the task itself; however, most complex (multi step) real-life tasks that take learners into the world outside the classroom will utilize all four skills. TBI helps learners explore the multitude of communication opportunities provided in their surroundings. The tasks themselves are scaffolded according to the cognitive demand required to complete them and can be carried out individually, in pairs or in small cooperative groups.

Project-based approach

This approach concretizes the integration of not only the four skills but also language, culture, experience and learning strategies (Turnbull, 1999). With the careful selection of a final project that requires learners to demonstrate what they have learned through both oral and written production, the teacher plans backwards to identify what aspects of language, culture, experience and learning strategies are required to complete the end project.

What are some examples of activities that integrate the four skills?

Two activities that make use of all four skills in tandem are Self-introduction and Reading and Retell.

Self-introduction takes the answers to a series of personal questions (name, age, grade level, where you live, members of your family, favourite sports, animals, colours, subjects, etc.) and sequences them into a self introduction. Students are given large visuals to trigger each component of the self introduction. The teacher can point to each picture while modeling a self-introduction (students are *listening*) and then invite learners to introduce themselves (*speaking*) to one or two if their peers. Some of the visuals can then be changed and the students can be invited to introduce themselves to others in the class to whom they have never spoken. This activity can be adapted to become a regular (daily, weekly) warm-up activity to get learners talking in the target language. Having covered *listening* and *speaking* in the oral self-introduction, a scenario can then be created wherein learners must *write* a self-introduction to a potential homestay host. The same picture cues can be used, reconfigured to show a salutation, closing and signature. The picture cues provide learners with support without giving them a text to memorize.

In multilevel SL classes, graded readers can be excellent springboards for another activity that integrates the four skills- a **reading and retell**. First, learners select a book or story at their own level and *read* it. Learners are then given a template to

follow to summarize their thoughts about the story (*writing*). The summary is designed to help learners gauge the amount of detail required in a retell. After additional practice *reading* the summary silently and aloud several times, learners are asked to select two or three illustrations from the book to help them tell the story. They then practice telling the story by using the pictures and remembering what they wrote in the template. Students find a partner who has not read the same story and retell (*speaking*) their story to one another using the selected illustrations. Partners not only listen to the retell but also complete a feedback checklist (*writing*) about the retell. After *reading* the feedback, partners switch roles.

Why are four skills activities useful?

Four skills activities in the language classroom serve many valuable purposes: they give learners scaffolded support, opportunities to create, contexts in which to use the language for exchanges of real information, evidence of their own ability (proof of learning) and, most important, confidence.

Task.   Article discussion.

- Read a scientific lecture « **Integrated Skills**» in group.
- Brainstorm on the ideas of the given material and discuss the following aspects:.
  - ~   *Why should we integrate the four skills?*
  - ~   *How can we integrate the four skills?*
  - ~   *What are the implications for teaching?*
  - ~   *What are the limitations of integrating the four skills?*

12.1 Why should we integrate the four skills?

There are many situations in which we use more than one language skill. For this reason alone, it is valuable to integrate the language skills, but there are other reasons why integration can enhance the students' communicative competence.

Many educationalists stress the importance of building new knowledge and skills on to what students already know and can do. So, if students are able to read a short story, this skill will help them to write their own story. In the same way, if they can understand a dialogue about buying things in a shop, they can use this as a model for practicing their own speaking skills in a similar situation. Also, integrating the kills allows you to build in more variety into the lesson because the range of activities will be wider. Instead of just having listening, the students can

have speaking, reading and writing practice. This can raise their motivation to learn English.

Above all, integrating the skills means that you are working at the level of realistic communication, not just at the level of vocabulary and sentence patterns. Realistic communication is the aim of the communicative approach and many researchers believe that handling realistic communication is an integral part of essential conditions for language learning:

Conditions For Language Learning

Exposure	**Use**	**Instruction**	**Motivation**
to a rich but comprehensible input of real spoken and written language in use	of do things (i.e. exchange meanings)	in language (i.e. chances to focus on form)	to listen to and read the language and to speak and write it (i.e. to process and use the exposure)

Essential and desirable conditions for language learning

Integrating the four skills emphasizes the focus on realistic language and can therefore lead to the students' all-round development of communicative competence in English.

12.2 How can we integrate the four skills?

The essential form of integration is within the same medium (either oral or written), from receptive to productive skills.

	Receptive Skill		Productive Skill
Oral Medium	**listening**	→	**speaking**
Written Medium	**reading**	→	**writing**

In other words, we would use a listening text as a model for the students' speaking, and a reading text as a model for the students' writing. This is common practice among teachers, and we will call it simple integration. The information

that the students get from the reading is useful in the oral activity, while the writing activity is based on information from the oral activity.

The fill-in-blanks activity that the students are asked to carry out in completing the dialogue is actually a form of reading comprehension. As the comprehension questions take the form of a realistic dialogue, the students can then practice their oral skills as well as their reading skills. The dialogue can then be used as a basis for the students' own conversations.

12.3 What are the implications for teaching?

As we noted earlier, integration of the four skills is concerned with realistic communication. This means that we are teaching at the discourse level not just at the level of sentences or individual words and phrases. Discourse is a whole unit of communicative text, either spoken or written.

Focus on discourse: The main implication for teaching is that we need to be aware of the discourse features of a text and to be able to make students aware of them. This helps the integration of skills because it makes clear the teaching points and, for simple integration, the discourse features are the main language aspects that we transfer from one skill to the other. Discourse features include aspects such as:

the way that the text is organized

its layout (for written text)

the style of the language (formal or informal)

the register (the vocabulary that is commonly found in such discourses).

As teachers, we have to use our professional judgment, based on our knowledge of the students, to decide how much detail we should include in our lesson. It is important to keep a balance. Too much information may confuse them. Too little information may mean that they are not clear about the features of a particular type of discourse.

Adjusting the textbook contents: Another aspect of our teaching that requires attention if we adopt an integrated approach is the use of the textbook. Although many modern textbooks have some integration of the four skills, we may still need to make some changes to the contents.

This could involve altering the order of the contents. If the discourse of the writing activity is closely related to the reading passage, but is placed in a different part of the unit in the textbook, we could focus on the writing straight after we finish the reading passage.

For simple integration, we can design a listening or reading comprehension activity that becomes a plan for speaking or writing. For complex integration, it could mean making changes to the activities in the textbook.

Adjusting timetable: There also are practical implications for integrating the four skills. One is related to timetabling. In some schools, a whole lesson I given to

teaching one skill. For example, there is a "listening" lesson one day, a "reading" lesson another day, and so on. Sometimes this is encouraged by the arrangement of materials in the textbook. We have to make the timetable arrangements more flexible so that we can integrate the skills better.

12.4 What are the limitations of integrating the four skills?

While integrating the four skills can help the development of students' communicative competence, we must not overlook the useful role that a separate focus on individual aspects of vocabulary, grammar and skills can play. If taught well, these aspects can accelerate the students' language learning. It is therefore necessary for teachers to maintain an appropriate balance between integration and separation.

Integrating the four language skills can be demanding of the teacher. We need to have a good understanding of discourse, and to be able to use textbooks flexibly. This can also be time-consuming, requiring a lot of preparation. Sometimes teachers are so busy that they cannot spare much time for extra preparatory work.

Another limitation is the problem of designing suitable materials that take account of students' different skill levels. The four skills tend to develop at a different pace: receptive skills are stronger then productive skills, for example. This means that teachers have to be skillful or designing integrated activities for their students.

✂ ---

Task 2. Solutions of four skills problems.

Answer the following questions using your creativeness and express your ideas in your posters.

How are the four skills used in the language classroom?
How can the four skills be used together effectively?
What are some examples of activities that integrate the four skills?
Why are four skills activities useful?

Home assignment

1) Read Spolsky's theory of second language learning.
2) After completing the reading create your own tree about the

branches of integrated skills

The Tree: Branches

The tree has six branches which represent what the learner needs to learn in a language. The branches can be divided into three categories: Oral Language, Written Language and Culture. Spolsky's theory of second language learning (1989) recognizes that learners will have differing levels of ability in each category. Receptive language (listening and reading) generally develops prior to and to a higher level than productive language (speaking and writing). Thus, teachers must consider that their language learners may not be at a uniform level of language proficiency across the four domains. This pattern may also be reflected in their native language proficiency.

Oral Language

Listening (or oral comprehension) involves processing, understanding, interpreting and evaluating spoken language in a variety of situations.

Speaking (or oral production) involves engaging in oral communication in a variety of situations for an array of purposes and audiences. The goal of language is communication and the aim of speaking in a language context is to promote communicative efficiency; teachers want students to actually be able to use the language as correctly as possible and with a purpose.

Written Language

Reading (or written comprehension) involves processing, interpreting and evaluating written language, symbols and text with understanding and fluency. There are many benefits to developing excellent reading skills in the target language one benefit is the culture that one gains by reading in the target language

Writing (or written production) involves engaging in written communication in a variety of forms for an array of purposes and audiences. Writing is an integral and

necessary skill when learning a second language as communication is not only done orally. Writing also results in increased practice using the language.

Culture

The final two branches belong to the category of **C** or culture and consist of cultural knowledge and cultural experience. One can learn about a culture without experiencing it. Trips abroad or contact with native speakers constitute cultural experience. Stories, audio visual presentations and use of the target language in class also offer students invaluable exposure to culture.

Cultural knowledge- Knowledge of facts or information about a certain culture such as knowledge of holidays, art, literature, and food.

Cultural Experience- Experiences that involve the culture and allow the learner to learn about the culture first-hand such as through field trips, guest speakers and community visit.

Literature:
1. Sarah Johnson, Timesaver London, Mary Glasgow Magazine. Pp-18-25.
2. Liz Driscoll, Reading Extra, Cambridge University Press 2004. P-67.

Unit 1 Listening as an interactive process

§26. Listening as an interactive process: Improving listening proficiency

- Brainstorm the notions of "receptive skills" and "productive skills"

~ Receptive skills   ~ Productive skills

Reading   Listening   Speaking   Writing
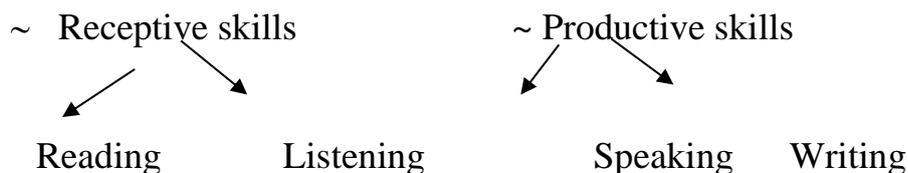
~ Why do we call reading and writing Receptive Skills? (

~ Why Productive?

So listening is considered as a receptive, which is one of the most problematic and challenging. Learners with good commands of other three skills (reading, writing and speaking) might have a big problem with listening. In order to improve the listening skill learners should make an objective. The objective can be different kind of listening for specific information, listening for general idea. Some sources call the objective by listening tips. So the above mentioned types of listening have different functions, for instance, table completion, summary completion multiple choice, gap filling and so on.

Task 1.

➢ *While learning the L2, certainly you have faced the problems with listening. Without doubt, you found out your strategy of improving, whereas each strategy is not exception from the problems. Complete the following table with the strategy that you did in order to improve your listening skill, with the problem that you faced and the solution that you suggest.*

Strategy	Problem of this strategy	your solution
Listening to music	Difficult and different pronunciation	To find the lyrics

Task 2. Read the material and get ready to discuss it in group.

Members from team 1 retell the problem of listening from the article and opposite team should retell the suggestion

Group 1.

Problem 1: Too much faith in first language research

Fourteen years ago, Anderson and Lynch (1988: 21) noted that there was very little research into listening in a second language. Because of this gap in research, applied linguists, textbook writers, and teacher trainers have gone to research in first language listening for guidance. As a result, listening comprehension exercises are greatly (and in my view inappropriately) influenced by what is known about successful first language listening.

First language research has established that successful listening is characterized by:
• listening for a purpose
• making predictions based on contextual information
• making guesses when things aren't clear
• inferring what is meant where necessary
• not listening ('straining') for every word (adapted from Brown 1990: 148)

Teacher trainers and textbook writers have made appropriate use of some of these findings, and inappropriate use of others. In particular they have taken the last of these points ('they don't listen for every word') and have made it an article of faith. They advocate 'top-down' activities and urge the avoidance of any activity which could be characterised as 'bottom-up'. Of course, we should be careful about this particular issue: we don't want learners to strain so much to hear every word that they cannot understand anything. In my view though, it is a mistake to abandon, as we have, bottom-up activities which introduce learners to the essential characteristics of speech.

From first language research comes the teacher's standard advice in a listening lesson: 'You won't be able to understand every word, and you don't need to'. I find this explanation illogical: the 'reasoning' goes something like this:
1. non-natives don't understand
2. natives understand without paying attention to every word
3. therefore, in order to understand, non-natives should not try to pay attention to every word

The first statement describes the problem which all listening classes address in some way; the second is a research finding; the third is the false deduction. It is not reasonable to deduce from the first two statements that 'improvement in listening skills follows from not trying to pay attention to every word'. In acting (as we do) on this illogical deduction, we confuse goals and methodology: we require learners

to simulate the goal of native listener behavior instead of teaching learners how to acquire progressively native-like abilities in perception and understanding. We have made the mistake of allowing the goal to become the method: we should recognize that the skill of understanding without attending to every word is a goal to be reached, not a means of getting there.

Adopting the goal-as-method procedure conveniently allows us to ignore the fact that native speaker listeners have great advantages over non-natives particularly in terms of perceptual ability, it allows us to avoid grasping the nettle of fast speech. Activities which encourage bottom-up processing, which target learners perceptual abilities, have become taboo.

Problem 2: Too much hope in listening out for 'stresses'

Listening exercises are also characterized by the hope which often appears in the following words of encouragement: 'Just listen to the stresses, they'll be in the most important words, then you'll understand'.

There are three problems with this view: first, very often, 'important' words such as negatives are often unstressed, and so-called 'unimportant' grammatical words such as prepositions and pronouns are stressed; second, research indicates that it is difficult to pick out stressed words in a language which is not your own (c.f. Roach, 1982); third, the concept of stress is loosely defined and fails to distinguish between word-level stress, and stresses associated with higher order phenomena such as tone units.

Problem 3: Too much help

Although many listening comprehension recordings boast that they are 'natural', few of them are truly so. Many (though not all) are scripted and artificially slow. The reasons for this can be found in statements such as the following from Penny Ur:

Students may learn best from listening to speech which, while not entirely authentic, is an approximation to the real thing, and is planned to take into account the learners' level of ability and particular difficulties. (Ur, 1984: 23)

I myself find nothing wrong in what Penny Ur says here but I would argue that listening comprehension materials are often over-charitable in leaning towards 'the learners' level of ability' and not taking account of the level of ability required to understand spontaneous fast speech. The gap between the learners' level and the target level (fast spontaneous speech) is a gap that we as teachers and materials writers must help learners bridge. But we cannot help them bridge this gap if we continue with our charitable focus on what learners can manage at their current level.

In recent years, listening materials in main course textbooks at upper-intermediate and advanced levels have featured spontaneous speech, and this move is a good

one. However, the methodology (crudely, give the answers, and move on) has remained much the same, and teachers are not trained to explain what the features of fast spontaneous speech are.

We have to help learners cope with speech which is above their current level, and to arrive at a description of 'above current level', we need a description of the topmost level - a description of the features of 'difficult' (fast spontaneous) speech. We need such a description for use in teaching so that we can have an equal focus on both where our learners are, and where they have to get to: this description should form part of teacher training - it should be part of every teacher's tool-kit.

Problem 4: Rushing to the follow-up

We offer too little help in the post-listening phase. My impression is (and this is backed up by research by Field 1998) that of the four phases of a listening lesson it is the post-listening phase which has the least amount of time devoted to it. The first - warm-up - phase (with contextualization and personalization) and the fourth - follow-up - phase (often a discussion or writing task) have the most time devoted to them. It is at this point that avoidance is at its most obvious worst, and the reasons for it can be found in the standard training of communicative language teachers.

Our training predisposes us to obey a communicative imperative which demands rapid movement to the next activity to keep the variety, interest, and motivation high: we are anxious to see and hear learners enjoying social interaction in English. We prefer this high level of social 'buzz' to staying with and helping learners through the difficulties of a recording: when there might be silent private struggles to perceive and understand the acoustic blur of speech.

Group 2.

Suggestion 1: Research into L2 listening in the classroom

Fry(1) (personal communication) advises, where circumstances permit, allowing learners to control the tape-recorder so that they can work on, and re-hear, those passages of the recording that they have problems with. Fry's experience is with classes of adult learners of English: he divides the class up into small groups and, after having done the warm up phase and set the listening task, he gives each group a tape-recorder, and the tape, and leaves it to the group to control the tape-recorder. He reports being very surprised at what they found easy, and what they find difficult in listening.

My experience of working with learners with computer controlled access to recordings (reported in part in Cauldwell, 1996) is also one in which I learned a great deal about their powers and weaknesses in perception and understanding. It

brought home to me the fact that their difficulties lay in what were for me 'surprising' places.

So there are two benefits to allowing learners to control of the tape recorder: they can focus on their own needs; and for the teachers it amounts to research into second language listening - teachers discover where gaps in understanding and perception   lie.

Suggestion 2: A fast speech phonology

Teachers should be trained in 'observing' speech, and particularly the authentic speech that now is a feature of many listening comprehension and general textbooks. This training does not currently take place. The training they get is in the area of fixed position phonology for the teaching of pronunciation. This training is typically concerned with the articulation of minimal pairs of consonants and vowels so that teachers can explain to learners how they can improve their pronunciation.

But these current approaches to 'phonology for pronunciation' do not give adequate preparation for dealing with the features of authentic fast speech, not even in the areas where they might be thought to do so: elision, assimilation, sentence stress, and intonation. The 'rules of speech' presented in such materials are derived from introspection concerning how decontextualized written sentences might be read aloud. These 'rules of speech' are inadequate to account for what happens in fast spontaneous speech.

There is therefore a need for a 'fast speech phonology' which prepares teachers to observe and explain the variability of fast speech. A major element of this training would be to encourage teachers to rid their minds of the expectations and rules they have inherited from fixed position phonology. As for what else might be included, Field (1998: 13) suggests features such as 'hesitations, stuttering, false starts, and long, loosely structured sentences'. To this list one can add all the features of speech described in Brazil (1994; 1997) - prominences, tone units of different sizes, tones, pitch height. One can also add the differences between citation and running forms of words, turn taking, accent, voice quality, and   the   effects   of   speed   on   speech.

Suggestion 3: Grasping the nettle

Learners will claim that fast speech is too difficult for them: and teachers will naturally feel tempted to give them easier, slower, scripted materials that they feel comfortable with. If this solution is adopted however, learners will be under-

prepared to cope with the fast spontaneous speech that will come their way when they meet native speakers of English.

It is necessary to allow learners to feel challenged, and it may be necessary for them to feel frustrated by the demands of the listening task. I took a survey of one class of seven advanced learners of English (teachers of English from Japan) at the moment when they were deeply immersed in a difficult recording, and attempting to answer questions relating to the recording. I asked them to score their feelings on a five point scale with 'A' as 'happy' and 'E' 'unhappy'. Some time later, after doing the post-listening exercises I asked them to make judgments on the same scale. The results are shown in Table 1

Table 1 Survey of learners' feelings before and after post-listening activities

	Happy			Unhappy	
	A	B	C	D	E
Before	0	0	1	1	5
After	3	3	1	0	0

Table 1 shows that there was a major shift in feeling between the end of the while listening phase and the end of the post-listening phase: learners moved from being broadly 'unhappy' to broadly 'happy'. (The means by which this change was brought about will be described in the next section.) Here, it is important to note that it is vital for teachers to be prepared for periods of learner frustration, and to have the methodological training and knowledge base to help learners through periods of discomfort and frustration to increasingly sophisticated levels of perception and understanding. If the goal is to help learners become better listeners, it is vital that they learn to be comfortable handling fast speech.

Notes
(1) John Fry of the British Council, Hong Kong

Suggestion 4: The Post-Listening phase: the importance of handling speech

What is involved in 'handling' fast speech? When we invite learners to do a reading task, we ask them to inspect sequences of words of varying sizes (paragraphs, clauses, phrases) for evidence to help them complete the tasks we have set. The same should be true for listening tasks: we should ask learners to inspect sequences of words (in speech units of different sizes) for answers to the tasks. However, there are important differences between reading and listening tasks: with the written language perception is not an issue, the words occur and remain for

inspection on the page; with the spoken language the words are not available for inspection in the same way, they are available only for inspection in the short-term memory of the learners, and here perception is an issue. Perception - particularly the ability to hold sounds in short term memory long enough to inspect them for meaning - is a skill that is a pre-requisite for understanding.

One feature of any post-listening phase, therefore, is to give learners the experience of handling sequences of speech while inspecting them for clues to understanding. It is therefore necessary for the learners to re-hear and spend time (this may be private, or in discussion with a partner what they hear) with the crucial answer-bearing moments of a recording, and this must be done before the learners see the written transcript, so that the ears are doing the work, not the eyes. It is vital therefore that the points chosen to be the focus of the listening task should be both central to the 'meaning' of the recording, and challenging in terms of perception. One way of doing this is to select those parts of the recording which are both using software such as 'Motormouth' (Cauldwell & Batchelor, 1999) and 'meaningful'.

At some stage (after an appropriate amount of 'ear-handling') learners should see the written transcript so that they can get feedback on the accuracy or waywardness of their perceptions. This is the point in the listening class when we have the opportunity of actually teaching listening (which Field 1998 argues for): we can help the learners bridge the gap between the known and the unknown, but paradoxically it is the part of a listening comprehension class that is most often omitted, or to which least time is devoted.

Then comes the second vital stage in handling speech, the one that made my learners turn from being 'unhappy' to being 'happy'. This stage involves the learners imitating short, fast, challenging extracts of the recording at the same time and the same speed as the speaker. The teacher chooses an extract and first asks learners to look at a written version and to say it repeatedly to themselves, gradually increasing the speed at which they say it. The teacher then plays the selected extract repeatedly (by skillful use of the rewind button) and the learners try to imitate as accurately as possible the features of the original. Such extracts should not be long: the longest sequence of words I use for such work lasts just over two seconds and is spoken at 408 words per minute, with two prominent syllables in the places indicated by upper-case letters:

this is ONE i'm going to be looking at in slightly more DEtail in fact

My (advanced level) learners find it an exciting challenge to handle speech in this way, to be able to match native speaker speeds, and I believe it is important to give learners at all levels practice of handling fast speech in the two ways outlined in this section: handling by ear - repeated listening to the fastest meaning-bearing

extracts; and handling by speaking - imitating the features of the fastest extracts. It is important to refrain from looking at written versions of the extract too early (ear-handling should precede eye-handling), but it is equally important to inspect written versions of the extracts at some stage.

Homeassignment..

> *Imagine that you have a student with good commands in English. He always works hard on his language and does different tasks, whereas he could not gain good scores in listening, despite his five years learning experience. Once he has a chance to work at the International Language Center, where they require 7 band in listening. Therefore, he addressed to you for advice. Give your advice to improve his listening within 200-250 words.*

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Assessment Specification:

Task response (word limit, accuracy, coherence and cohesion)	1 point	
Ability to critical analyzing	1 point	
Adequate suggestion	1 point	

Recommended Literature

1. Woodward, T (1989). Observation task for pre-servise trainees. The Teacher Trainer, 3,1,25.
2. Graham Palmer *Writing Extra* Cambridge University Press pp: 40-41.

§27.Introducing real life aspects of listening

➢ Real-life situations where people listen to other people in their native language.
  • Radio news, Interviews, Instructions Gossip/chatting, Telephone conversation,Story-telling

Task 1. Pictures

Look at the pictures and say where the scene is set and who the people are.

Task 2/ Tape scripts. You are going to listen to two different listening situations and be ready to answer the questions after listening to the recording:

~ *Which of the pictures illustrates listening text 1 and 2?*
~ *What kind of listening situations are presented in the recordings? Were your guesses right?*
~ *Which of the recordings do you think is taken from real life and which of them has been specifically recorded for classroom purposes? Give reasons for your answer.*

In a hotel (at the reception desk)

Guest: Good morning. Can I have two single rooms with a shower, please?
Receptionist: We are rather full up, but I'll see. How long do you intend to stay?
Guest: I expect we'll be here for a week or so.
Receptionist: You can have a double room with a shower on the second floor.
Guest: How much is it?
Receptionist: It's sixty pounds a night, including breakfast.
Guest: All right, I'll take it. Can I pay by credit card?
Receptionist: Yes, you can. Will you fill in the form, please?

Guest: Surname, Christian name, nationality, permanent address, place and date of birth, signature. Is that all right?

Receptionist: Yes, that's all, thank you. Here is your key.

Guest: Can you wake me up at 6 a.m.?

Receptionist: Yes, I can.

Guest: Thank you.

In a café (talking about favourite books)

Tapescript symbols:

[…] means that the speakers overlap each other

.. pause

Rod: Hi Alex, good to see you again.

Alex: Good to see you as well.

Rod: Er you know, we were talking last time about er about reading you know, I was wondering what kind of books you read?

Alex: Well these days I don't read much fiction, but I think it is mostly like military things military literature, documentaries different sorts.

Rod: Really! Military literature? What kind of military literature?

Alex: For some reasons I've got a fixation on the Japanese army, maybe it is a bit weird but that's…

Rod: Wow wow the Japanese army erm so do you find a lot of books in English on that topic?

Alex: Well not so much, the only books in English I've got I think I've got my collection of Iris Murdoch.

Rod: Ah, Iris Murdoch. That's not exactly the Japanese army.

Alex: No no, but that's the only thing of fiction which I am reading … from time to time at least.

Rod: And Iris Murdoch… a particular liking for her, why?

Alex: I don't know really … maybe it is one of the first books in English that I've read and it made sense to me.

Rod: Aha…

Task 3 Article discussion. Group work/

Read the article in 3 groups and present the content of the article.After presenting the article answer following questions.

- *How you can imagine the real meaning of authentic materials?*

~   *According to Gebhard classification can you add some more sources to them.*

Group 1

Authentic materials

The notion of authenticity has been much discussed. Marrow's definition will serve us well. He relates it to "a stretch of real language, produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and designed to carry a real message of some sort."(1977:13) Harmer (1983 : 146) says that authentic texts (either written or spoken) are those which are designed for native speakers: They are real text designed not for language students, but for the speakers of the language in question. Nunan (1989 : 54) thinks that a rule of thumb for authenticity here is any material which has not been specifically produced for the purposes of language teaching.

Based on these definitions, we can find the real meaning of authentic materials: they are real language; produced for the native speakers; designed without the teaching purposes. In this sense, there are a large amount of authentic materials in our life such as newspaper and magazine articles, TV and radio broadcast, daily conversations, meetings, documents, speech, and films. One of the most useful is the Internet. Whereas newspapers and other materials date very quickly, the Internet is continuously updated, more visually stimulating as well as interactive.

If we want to introduce authentic materials in language teaching, we need to classify them first, because some of them are suitable for the teaching of reading and some are effective when prepared for the teaching of listening and speaking. According to Gebhard (1996), authentic materials can be classified into three categories.
1.Authentic Listening-Viewing Materials: TV commercials, quiz shows, cartoons, news clips, comedy shows, movies, soap operas, professionally audio-taped short stories and novels, radio ads, songs, documentaries, and sales pitches.

2.Authentic Visual Materials: slides, photographs, paintings, children' artwork, stick-figure drawings, wordless street signs, silhouettes, pictures from magazine, ink blots, postcard pictures, wordless picture books, stamps, and X-rays.

3.Authentic Printed Materials: newspaper articles, movie advertisements, astrology columns, sports reports, obituary columns, advice columns, lyrics to songs, restaurant menus, street signs, cereal boxes, candy wrappers, tourist information brochures, university catalogs, telephone books, maps, TV guides, comic books, greeting cards, grocery coupons, pins with messages, and bus schedules.

Here, we mainly focus on the authentic listening materials. In literature, phrases like "real speech" "the spontaneous speech" "live or natural language" "genuine instanced of language use" "natural conversation" "what people say in real life" "what native speakers say when talking to each other" have been used to define authentic listening material. The present author thinks the suitable definition should be that authentic listening materials is unscripted, natural and spontaneous spoken language materials, such as interviews, lectures, dialogues, discussions, and conversations etc.

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Group 2

Advantages of using authentic listening materials

A. Exposing students to the real language

Compared with inauthentic listening materials, authentic listening materials have the advantage of exposing students to the real language—language used in real life. This can be seen clearly by looking at the different features of the two kinds of materials. According to other people' research, these different features can be summarized mainly into four aspects.

1. Different redundant features

We know that in the ordinary conversation or authentic listening material speakers tend to say a great deal more than would appear to be necessary in order to convey his message, which appears less in inauthentic listening materials. This is called redundancy. Ur (1984) clearly describes the features of redundancy as redundant utterances which may take the form of repetitions, false starts, re-phrasings, self-corrections, elaborations, tautologies and apparently meaningless additions or fills such as I mean or you know, well, err. Because of the occurrence of these redundancies, the authentic listening materials are often not well organized. Speakers tend to hesitate, to go back to the beginning of an idea and start again, to repeat themselves, to produced ungrammatical utterances, to change their minds in mid-sentence and go off at tangents. The following extract from the utterances of a pop singer may show many of the characteristics of redundancy:

"Yes, <u>um</u>, <u>it</u>, <u>it</u>, <u>it's</u> very demanding, <u>um</u>, it's probably like a, an executive job, <u>um</u>, where you can't come home at a certain nine-to-five, you can't spend a lot of your time with people around you, you feel detached because <u>you know</u>, it's like, <u>I</u>, <u>I... I</u> don't necessarily have a schedule, I might work weekends, <u>um</u>, <u>but...</u> I don' t actually mind, but it's like your family, your boyfriend, or your husband, or whatever, they can't go to see you, it's like last night, I, <u>er</u>, it's like I was suppose to be going out to dinner with the old friend, you know with some old friends, and, I ended, I was still at the studio, and I said, oh I should be finished around seven, and of course eleven o'clock came, and I was still at the studio, and everybody was raving mad, and I got there <u>while the...everybody</u> was getting ready to leave the restaurant... Things like that does happen, <u>you know you can't, you...you are not tied to</u> that, and because of that sometimes you feel you can't do things that other people, nine-to-five, can do. You might have a day off at Tuesday, and all your nine-to-five friends have got to get up to work, so they don't necessarily want to go out on the town the way you might want to on a Saturday, and so you find that a lot of the time, to fit into this <u>you're fr...you, you change</u>, and because their schedules all fit yours..."

<div align="right">(Harmer and Elsworth, 1989:75)</div>

The following forms of redundancy occur in the above extract:
⑴ Tautology: you know
⑵ Hesitation (filled pauses and empty pauses): um, er...
⑶ False starts: while the ...everybody; you're fr...you, you change
⑷ Repetition or stutter: it, it, it's; I, I, I...
⑸ Self-correction; you can't, you...you are not tied to tha

By comparison, many inauthentic listening materials show nothing of these forms of the redundancy as shown in the above extract.

2. Different grammatical features

The differences in grammar between authentic and inauthentic listening materials can be reflected in the differences between the spoken language and written language. Brown and Yule(1983) summarize these as : a) most speakers of English produce spoken language which is syntactically very much similar than the written language(e.g. few subordinate clauses);b) speakers often use incomplete sentences;

c) the vocabulary of spoken language is usually much less specific than that of written language; d) interactive expressions like well, oh, uhuh features are used in spoken language; e) information is packed very much less densely in spoken language than written language. This means that the vocabulary used in authentic listening materials is different from that used in the inauthentic listening materials. The former tend to use the general nouns, thing, person, animal and the verb get, do, make, have, etc. and conjunctions and. It also tends to use colloquial vocabulary. In addition, in the natural communication, the speaker pays less attention to the cohesions and always uses the ungrammatical structures. Sometimes, the referents of cohesive markers such as this, these, and you are omitted in speech. For example,: "well you know, there was this guy, and here we were talking about, you know, girls, and all that sort of thing ...and here's were what he says..."(Richard, 1983:226)

If we compare the following two extracts （A and B）, it is not hard to see some of the differences in grammar between spoken language and written or between the authentic listening material and the inauthentic listening material. Extract A is from an authentic interview taken from Listen to This, book2, Teachers Book. (He etc. ， 1993), and may show some of the ungrammatical features of spoken language or the authentic listening materials, while extract B is from the existing textbook Step By Step 2000, book 2, Teachers Book. (Zhang， 2001 : 80),and may show the grammatical features of written language or the inauthentic listening materials:

Extract A

Interviewer: ... Mrs. Bradly, you and your husband smoke cigarettes I see. <u>What about cigars ...a pipe ... do your husband...?</u>

Mrs. Bradly: Oh he's never smoked a pipe. He's is the restless, nervy type. I always associate pipe-smoking with people of another kind...the calm contented type... As for cigars I suppose he never smokes more than one a year-after his Christmas dinner. Of course I only smoke cigarettes.

Interviewer: Right. Now let's keep to you Mrs. Bradly. When and why –if that's not asking too much-did you begin to smoke? Can you remember?

Mrs. Bradly: Yes... I remember well. I'm third-two now...so I must have been...er...yes...seventeen...when I had my first cigarette. It was at a party-<u>you know</u>- at that age you want to do everything your friends do. So when my boyfriend-not my husband-when he offered me a cigarette I accepted it. I remember feeling awfully grown-up about it.

Then I started smoking...<u>let's see now</u>...just two or three a day... and I gradually increased.（He etc.，1993:82）

Extract B

Nearly all the sports practiced nowadays are competitive. You play to win, and the game has little meaning unless you do you utmost to win. On the village green, where you pick up slides and no feeling of local patriotism involved, it's possible to play simply for fun: but as soon as the question of prestige arises, as soon as you feel you and some larger unit will be disgraced if you lose, the most savage combative instincts are aroused. Anyone who has played even in school football match knows this. At the intermediate level, sport is frankly mimic warfare. But the significant thing is not the behavior of the players but attitude of the spectators: and, behind the spectators, of nations who work themselves into furies over these absurd contests, and seriously believe-at any rate for short periods-that running, jumping and kicking a ball are tests of national virtue. (Zhang，2001：80)

The following is the result of the comparison of the above two extracts:

Extract 1
Language: informal
Incomplete sentence: What about cigars ...a pipe ... do your husband...?
Interactive expressions: you know; let's see it now

Extract 2
Language: formal
Full of completed sentences
No interactive expressions

3. Different stylistic features

Just as we mentioned, the authentic listening material contains elements of natural and spontaneous spoken language, which seems variable, and is very different from one dialect area to another and very different from people of different identities. We may see the varieties of real and spontaneous spoken language from the following example (spoken by the landlord of a Cambridge pub in England, who has a southern English accent):

"the man you have to watch is the one who becomes quietly belligerent, and <u>you sort of take</u> him gently by the elbow to lead him to the door and the next

thing you know is thump-you've been you've been landed one, and of course without warning you have to collect your senses pretty quickly before he lands you another one!''

<div align="right">(Harmer and Elsworth, 1989:75)</div>

Looking at the underlined parts we can see the informal form (you sort of take) and some idioms and slang in the speech of the pub landlord which is consistently with his identity: to land one in you've been landed one and he lands you another one is a slang meaning to hit somebody. However, the inauthentic listening material that has the characteristics of written language does not change very often.

4. Different environmental features

Authentic listening materials have background noise while inauthentic listening materials have no background noise. According to Ur (1984), "Noise" is the opposite of redundancy. It occurs when the listener cannot receive or understand information because of interference. "Noise maybe caused not only by some outside disturbance, but also by a temporary lack of attention on the part of the listener or by the fact that a word or a phase was not understood because it was mispronounced or misused or because the listener simply do not know it. In any case, a gap is left which is filled, as far as the listener is concerned, by a meaningless buzz". In an informal conversation the listener may request a clarification and redundancy may often help him to construct the meaning. However, the inauthentic listening materials are all graded to suit the level of the foreign language learners without any "noise".

We can see that authentic listening materials reflect the naturalness of spoken language, which can narrow the distance between the learners and the actual social reality. If students constantly receive the authentic listening input, they will find it easier to communicate with native speakers in real life, and their true listening ability can be developed.

B. Stimulating students' motivation

Authentic listening materials, especially the current popular ones such as clips from media always dealing with topics that are familiar to students and relevant to their personal experience, hence, have been found appealing. Introducing and utilizing natural materials can be a very meaningful experience for students and can capture the interest and stimulate the imagination of students. So students will be more motivated to learn. (Ma, 2005)

C. Accumulating students' knowledge

Authentic materials contain quite an amount of information covering almost every field of human life. Therefore, applying such materials in language teaching can provide students opportunities to accumulate their world knowledge.

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Group 3

Factors to consider when selecting authentic listening materials

A. Learner's language proficiency level and the linguistic demands of the listening text

Teachers need to bear the following questions in mind:

1. Is the critical vocabulary in the recording (words central to an understanding of a topic) likely to be familiar to the listener?

2. To what extent does the task rely upon the ability to decode the linguistic content?

3. To what extent can the task be achieved without a full understanding of the linguistic content?

Learner level is an important factor in selecting authentic listening materials. According to Driven (1981), spontaneously spoken language is too complex to be introduced in the classroom in the first stage of foreign language learning, but in the second or intermediate stage of foreign language learning, all the factors of the spontaneously spoken language come into action. So for the lower level learners, we should provide easier materials such as the short headline type reports, audio and radio advertising, or short news broadcasts or children's songs.

For the intermediate levels, there is a wider range of choices. Four or five minutes TV or radio news reports, the slightly adopted movies, or even whole TV programs can be included. As for the advanced level students, they have learned the target language for years and have the ability of dealing with the possible difficulties with their linguistic competence and world knowledge. Teachers now can choose some political speeches, ceremonial formulae, gossip, family quarrels etc. as the teaching materials. These materials are either very formal (ceremonial formulae, political speeches) or fairly informal (gossip, family quarrels), which are considered very difficult for foreign language learners.

B.   Learners' interest and the intrinsic interest of the topic

Teachers have to think how easy it is to create interest in the topic at a pre-listening stage and how familiar the topic is to the students. Learner's interest is another important factor that should be taken into consideration when selecting authentic listening materials. An applied linguist once said that it's no good trying to get your students fascinated by a text on the latest art movies if they are all fans of action films. You might as well save your time and energy and just use the textbook. So it's necessary for teachers to know students' likes and dislikes on listening materials and it's wise for them to make a survey among students before the selection. For example, the teacher gives each student a form like the following one, and asks them to fill it, and then makes a summary of the survey. In this way, the selected materials may be accepted by most of the students and successful listening teaching may achieve.

Likes	dislikes	reasons

C.   Cultural appropriateness

If there is any cultural specific content in the recording,, the teachers should consider whether they can reduce its comprehensibility to the listeners from other cultural backgrounds or whether it can potentially cause cultural offence.

D. Cognitive demands

How complex are the ideas in the recording? How dense are they? How complex are the relationships between the ideas? How complex is the overall argument structure ?

E.   Exploitability

Can you design any learning tasks based on the text to ensure the learners' comprehension? There are other factors need to be considered: the information density, the accent, the speed of the speaker, the relevance of the listening material to the syllabus and the students etc.

Home assignment.

Task

- Read the last part of the article "The Use of Authentic Materials in Teaching EFL Listening" , the part of applying authentic materials by Ji Lingzhu and Zhang Yuanyuan, P. R. China
- Analyze the findings of the author about applying authentic materials and give your own points on their advantages and challenges.

Applying authentic materials

Authentic materials have many advantages compared with inauthentic materials. However, it does not mean that choosing and using appropriate authentic materials in listening teaching can really improving students listening ability. The most important thing is what kinds of methods are adapted to utilize these materials. As for the question of utilizing, different people have different opinions. According to many researchers and my own studies, I think the following ways of using authentic materials are effective.

A. Integrating target culture with language teaching

Language and culture are closely related with each other. Language is a part of culture and plays an important role in it. On one hand, without language, culture cannot be transmitted. On the other hand, language is influenced and shaped by culture. Language and culture interact with each other and the understanding of one influences the understanding of the other.

In the teaching of listening comprehension, we can find that listening materials, especially authentic materials, often have much cultural content that is closely related to the knowledge of American and British culture, society, and economy. If students lack this kind of knowledge, there will be difficulties in their listening comprehension. Maybe many of us have this experience: when we are listening to something familiar to us, whatever is concerned, we usually find it easy to understand. Even if there are some new words, we are able to guess their meanings from the context. However, if the materials are unfamiliar to us, or too culturally based, we may feel very difficult. Even if there are no new words in the materials, we can only get the literal meaning. We don't understand the meaning in depth, because of the lack of cultural information. For instance, here is a sentence from a

report, "The path to November is uphill all the way." November literally means "the eleventh month of the year". But here it refers to the presidential election to be held in November. Another example is "red-letter-days"—which is a simple phrase and easy to hear, meaning holidays such as Christmas and other special days. Without teachers' explanation, students are usually unable to understand them. In order to solve the problems in this respect, teachers are suggested to pay attention to culture teaching in listening comprehension

1. Introducing background knowledge

Some listening materials are too culturally based, thus not easy for students to understand. A good suggestion for teachers is to introduce some background information before listening. For example, if what the students are going to listen to is a piece of BBC or VOA news, the teacher had better explain the names of countries, places, people's names and ages etc. appeared in the news, which are a little difficult for second language learners. If the materials are on western customs, the possible way for the teacher is to ask students to search the relevant information in advance and then share what they have found with the whole class. If teachers prepare original English films for students, it's wise for them to introduce the characters, the settings, and the general plot and tell students how to watch these original films. In this way, students may feel easier to listen to the authentic listening materials.

2. Explaining idioms

Idioms are important in any language and culture. They are often hard to understand and hard to use appropriately. We know that it's usually impossible to understand them without the context. Some English idioms mean much more than the literal meanings.
Authentic materials are likely to contain many idioms, especially in films. The teacher should explain the idioms and ask students to accumulate them. Students can benefit from this in the long run.

3. Encouraging students' self-learning

Time in class is limited. Teachers' teaching is just one of the learning resources for the students. Teachers should raise students' cultural awareness, and encourage them to learn the target culture by themselves. Here is a long term plan of culture learning: the teacher asks the students to learn the target culture in their spare time in group. Students are supposed to have discussions on their interested topics with their group members and prepare a report for the whole class. In this way, they can accumulate their information and learn more. It' better for the teacher to give the

students one hour to report each week. This plan emphasizes students' self-learning. The following is the suggested procedure:

1. Divide the whole class into four groups.

2. The teacher provides four topics for each group. (Students are allowed to find their own topics if they like). Then they are expected to search as much information as possible on the selected topic. After this, they should hold a discussion with their group members on the found information and decide how and who will give the report.

3. On the "report day", the four representatives give their reports one by one. Instead of reading the report, they are asked to retell what they have prepared. The rest of the students should regard this class as a listening practice and respond to it after the report.

4. When the reporter finishes, students can ask whatever questions related to the report. If the reporter can not give the answers, he/she can turn to his/her group members.

Students may benefit in two ways if they carry on this plan. First, in the report section, students in fact make a listening class by themselves. Every student is getting involved in this process, so they are highly motivated and willing to listen to each other very carefully. Second, in the preparing process, students may read quite an amount of cultural information, and deal with various authentic materials. Their knowledge on culture will soon be enriched. Day by day, when they come back in the listening classroom, they may find that the authentic listening materials are no longer so difficult, and when they go outside the classroom, they may find it easier to communicate with native speakers.

B. Helping students to adapt to authentic listening situation

The goal of listening teaching is to help students to understand the "real speech" to communicate in real life. Rost (2002) said that second language listeners must try their best to cope with "genuine speech" and "authentic listening situation". That is, listeners must be able to understand natural listening speech to meet their own needs as members of the English-speaking community. However, many learners complain that authentic listening situations are in most cases out of their control. To solve this problem, Mendolsohn (1994) put forward that teachers should provide listeners with strategies training. His way is to train listeners' ability of starting listening from the middle. For example, if students listen to a conversation from the middle, they are expected to attune to the conversation while simultaneously trying to understand it.

As a strategy—training activity, listening from the middle is based on the idea of Mendolsohn (1994, 1995) and Andersen and Lynch (1988). Mendolsohn once described how he helped his students hypothesizes by listening to an audio recorder of the middle of a medical procedure – part of a larger discussing about inferences. Madden (2007) has done the same research. His goal is to give learners strategies for studying to listen in the middle of a conversation by quickly making inferences about the setting, mood, interpersonal relationships and the topic. Madden used the audio recordings from his course texts. Generally speaking, his class consists of three stages: presenting, while-listening, and post-listening.

There are three steps in the presenting stage. First, introduce the activity and explain that the class will be working on how to listen from the middle, and then tell students the importance of knowing about the listening time and place, the speakers, their feelings, what kind of speech they are engaged in, what the topic is, and why someone might want to listen. Second, tell the students that during listening they need to take notes and discuss what they hear. The following two tables will be given to the class.

What came before:	What I heard *(Start here):	What comes next:

(Table 1; see Richardson & Morgan, 1990, p. 97; Ogle, 1986)

What I can identify about:
Speakers: Emotions: Relationships among the speakers: Type of listening: Topic: Why someone might listen to this:

(Table2. Based on Mendelssohn, 1995; Anderson & Lynch, 1988)

Third, tell the students to be ready to take notes in the "What I heard" part of Table 1.

In the while-listening stage, four steps are needed. First, play a one-minute segment from the middle of the listening text. All of the speakers should be heard in this part. Students should take notes. When the recording is stopped, students should check their notes with a classmate. The discussion provides additional

listening practice and opportunities to negotiate meaning (Lee & Van Patten, 2003; Pica, Young, & Doughty, 1987). Second, play the same one-minute segment again. Ask the students to check or add to their notes, and then confer a second time with classmates. Third, as a class, students discuss and fill out the displayed copy of the "What I heard" portion of Table 1, and then the second table. Fourth, play the segment a third time. Students make corrections to the "What I heard" and "What I can identify about" tables.

In the last stage, check answer and encourage students to use this method for listening practice in their free time.

In this research, Madden's teaching material is audio recording because he thinks that the difficulty level of this material is suitable to his students. This is an important principle we have mentioned before. In fact, based on students' interest and linguistic backgrounds we have a wide range of other choices, such as films, radio, TV-play etc. We can see that there are three characteristics in this activity: note-taking, classroom discussing and prediction, which are effective ways of involving students in the listening process.

Generally speaking, listening from the middle is a good way of using authentic material to help students adapt to authentic listening situation and improving their listening level.

C. Predicting

In listening practice, some students tend to believe that unless they understand everything, they will understand nothing. They always want to gain the "total and thorough comprehension". In fact, even native speaker do not impose a standard of total comprehension on themselves, and they indeed tolerated a certain degree of vagueness. In using authentic listening materials, we should learn to tolerate vagueness.

It is necessary to encourage students to make most of their incomplete comprehension, and predict what they will hear next. Rubin (1975:45) says that the good language learner is a willing and accurate guesser. Anderson and Lynch (1988) think that successful listener should be actively engaged in the listening process. Understanding is not something that happens because of what a speaker says: the listener has a crucial part to play in the process by activating various types of knowledge applying what he knows to what he hears and trying to understand what the speaker means.

D. Integrated skills on activating students' authentic response

It is important to integrate listening with other skills because: "listening is not an isolated skill". According to Oxford (1993) most of the time in real life, listening occurs together with speaking and it also occurs with writing. For example, note-taking while listening to a lecture. Therefore, activities require such techniques as

note-taking, discussing, role-play, or summary writing etc. can be introduced in listening comprehension, and activate students authentic response to authentic materials.

It is said that the activities based on authentic materials are generally the same as the traditional listening class activities, except that these activities require more productive responses.

The most common listening activities proposed by Rixon (1981) are:

■ Posing of problems (pre-questioning or discussing work sheet)

■ Class listen and give individual answers on worksheet;

■ Class discuss their results in pairs or small group. The teacher withholds "correct" answers at this stage;

■ Class listen again as necessary to solve anomalies or settle disputes as far as possible;

■ Whole-class discussion of results, elicited by teacher.

■ Teachers play back tapes to whole class. Final discussing of language points that have lead to dispute or misunderstanding.

Rixon mainly focuses on the skill of discussing. In fact, in teaching practice teachers have many choices. After seeing a film, they can ask students to role play certain scenes, or make oral comments on some characters; after listening to a lecture, help students to organize an interview; they can also use discussing, retelling etc. All of these are effective ways of using authentic materials in listening comprehension.

Conclusion

It is the advantages that attract us to accept and use authentic materials in foreign language classroom, but when using them, it's inevitable that we'll face some problems. For most students, the challenges are that authentic materials may be "too culturally based" and often contain "difficult language, unneeded vocabulary items and complex language structures (Richard, 2001). So students are required to have sufficient cultural background knowledge and a large amount of vocabulary and a good command of grammar knowledge. Therefore, lower-level students are easily de-motivated when confronted with this kind of materials. Authentic materials often create problems to teachers too. Since the language of authentic listening materials is difficult, teachers need to do special preparation before class that is often time consuming. These disadvantages can be avoided in selecting and lesson planning. Actually if used appropriately, the disadvantages can be turned into advantages.

There is a conservative view that the proper place for authentic recording in foreign language listening class is with the advanced learners. The early- stage-learners had better start with simplified materials, since self-confidence and

motivation are very important for them. This view sounds rational and reasonable, but it denies the early stage learners the opportunity of hearing what the target language really sounds like. If we limit the listeners' experience to what has been graded to fit their language level, then they will not be equipped to cope if and when they come face to face with the target language in the outside world.(Field: 2008)

There are some ways in which a teacher can ensure that an authentic recording falls within the listening competence of the learners.

1. Simplifying the task: teachers may counter-balance the increased linguistic difficulty of the text by simplifying the requirements of the task (Anderson and Lynch ; 1988). It is not necessarily the language that makes a piece of listening difficult. Difficulty may also arise from the task that is set. It is possible to use a listening passage which is well beyond the learners' level, provided that what is demanded of the learner is correspondingly simple. If one notches up the text, one notches down the task. (Field: 2008)

2. Grading the text: As a teacher, if you prepare to use authentic recording with your students, you should have a large enough collection of recording samples, then you can grade authentic recording in accordance with the proficiency level of your learners. You should bear the following in your mind when doing the grading:

- More frequent vocabulary;
- Simple syntax;
- Simpler and less dense ideas and facts;
- A degree of redundancy, with ideas/facts expressed more than once;
- A degree of repetition, with the same form of words repeated;
- A very specific context or genre of communication which to some extent pre-determines how participants behave; (Field:2008)

3. Staging the listening: With a piece of authentic recording, teachers may design many tasks. In the classroom, they should begin with very simple tasks, and progress to the tasks that are more demanding.

In all, we can find every reason that foreign language teachers should introduce authentic listening materials to the learners at all levels to increase their exposure to the real target language in use. Quite a lot of evidence shows that learners feel more comfortable and motivated with authentic listening materials. There are a lot of ways to help us to achieve this without demanding too much of the learners.

Literature:
3. Liz Driscoll, Teaching listening Extra, Cambridge University Press 2004. P-54.

§28.Dealing with factors and challenges influencing the listening process

Task 1.Reading and discussion of the material
STRATEGIES OF LISTENING COMPREHENSION

One of the methods learners can become actively involved in controlling their own learning is by using strategies. Vandergrift (1999) showed ―Strategy development is important for listening training because strategies are conscious means by which learners can guide and evaluate their own comprehension and responses.‖ In O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, and Russo‗s (1985) study, high school ESL students were randomly assigned to receive learning strategy training on vocabulary, listening, and speaking tasks and the result indicated strategy training can be effective for integrative language tasks. Nakata (1999) studied the influence of listening strategy training on Japanese EFL learners‗ listening competence, and it showed that the effect of listening strategy training was more discernible on perception than on comprehension, especially for those students who received low scores on the G-TELP.

Research into speech perception has shown that listening comprehension involves far more than mere decoding of the sounds. Rivers (1983b) in her discussion of speech perception identifies three stages. First, the listener must recognize that the sounds are an actual message and not just noise. This recognition means to the listener that the sounds are elements of the language system. In the second stage the listener identifies sounds along with lexical and syntactic forms by segmenting and grouping them. The third stage involves recoding in order to retain the auditory message in long-term storage. These stages are necessarily rapid and overlapping. Whether the process of listening comprehension is as described above or in some other form, it is certainly an active process involving cognitive

processing (pp. 80-83).Native speakers and highly proficient second language learners complete the complex process of speech comprehension smoothly. Second language learners at lower levels of language proficiency whether it be due to a lack of auditory experience with varying accents, limited vocabulary, imperfect control of the syntactic and semantic structure of the language, or other limitations with regard to the elements necessary for communicative competency need to rely on listening strategies to assist them in comprehending the aural communication. Brown (1995) quite appropriately compares strategies to "battle plans": Strategies are specific methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information. They are contextualized "battle plans" that might vary from moment to moment, or day to day, or year to year (p. 104).

Among all the strategies for listening, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) claimed three main types of strategies: metacognitive, cognitive and social strategies. The meta-cognitive strategy was a kind of self-regulated learning. It included the attempt to plan, check, monitor, select, revise, and evaluate, etc. For example, for meta-cognitive planning strategies, learners would clarify the objectives of an anticipated listening task, and attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that assisted in understanding the task (Vandergrift, 1999). Generally, it can be discussed through pre-listening planning strategies, while-listening monitoring strategies, and post-listening evaluation strategies.

The cognitive strategies are related to comprehending and storing input in working memory or long-term memory for later retrieval. They are investigated from the aspects of bottom-up strategies, top-down strategies. For bottom-up processing, it refers to using the incoming input as the basis for understanding the message. Comprehension begins with the received data that is analyzed as successive levels of organization-sounds, words, as a process of decoding. For bottom up strategies, Henner-Stanchina (1987) engaged in a similar study and pointed out that effective listeners were good at using their previous knowledge and experience to raise hypotheses about a text, integrating new information into their ongoing interpretations, making influences to bridge gaps, assessing their interpretations, and modifying their hypotheses, if necessary. On the other hand, top-down processing went from meaning to language (Richards, 2008).

Learners can try to predict what will utter by the signal. However, Chiu (2006) claimed that listening comprehension was neither only top-down nor bottom-up processing. Simultaneously, Lu (2008) summed up that the scholars believed the listeners not only utilized bottom-up but also top-down processing models.

In sum, Thompson & Rubin (1996)indicated the effects of meta-cognitive and cognitive strategy instruction on the listening comprehension performance of American university students learning Russian. They found that the subjects who received strategy instruction in listening to video-recorded texts improved significantly over those who had received no instruction.For social/ affective strategies, Vandergrift (2003) defined the strategies as the techniques listeners used to collaborate with others, to verify understanding or to lower anxiety. Habte -Gabr (2006) stated that socio-affective strategies were those which were non academic in nature and involve stimulating learning through establishing a level of empathy between the instructor and student. They included considering factors such as emotions and attitudes (Oxford, 1990). It was essential for listeners to know how to reduce the anxiety, feel confident in doing listening tasks, and promote personal motivation in improving listening competence (Vandergrift, 1997). According to O'Malley & Chamot (2001), among the four strategies of management strategies, social strategies, cognitive strategies, affective strategies in listening comprehension, both social and affective strategies influenced the learning situation immediately.A great deal has been written about language strategies. These strategies have been categorized as learning strategies and communication strategies. Ellis (1985:181) has stated that, "Communication strategies are problem -oriented. That is they are employed by the learner because he lacks or cannot gain access to the l inguistic resources required to express an intended meaning." They are ―short-term answers‖ while learning strategies Ellis points are ―long -term solutions."

In general, discussion of and research on these communication strategies have focused on the learner's behavior when his production in the second language shuts down. Little research has focused specifically on strategies employed when the learner finds he cannot comprehend the auditory message. This research specifically intended to address the question of what strategies the listener employed to solve the problem when he/she failed to comprehend the message he/she was listening to. The listener's level of language competency was considered an important variable in the listener's choice of strategy. Paterson (2001:90) states that "Strategy use varies with proficiency and so the relationship between strategy use and proficiency level is an important one."

ANALYSIS OF POTENTIAL LISTENING COMPREHENSION PROBLEMS

Underwood (1989) states seven causes of obstacles to efficient listening comprehension. First, listeners cannot control the speed of delivery. He says,"

Many English language learners believe that the greatest difficulty with listening comprehension is that the listener cannot control how quickly a speaker speaks" (Underwood, 1989, p. 16). Second, listeners cannot always have words repeated. This is a serious problem in learning situations. In the classroom, the decision as to whether or not to replay a recording or a section of a recording is not in the hands of students. Teachers decide what and when to repeat listening passages; however, it is hard for the teacher to judge whether or not the students have understood any particular section of what they have heard (Underwood, 1989, p. 17). Third, listeners have a limited vocabulary. The speaker may choose words the listener does not know. Listeners sometimes encounter an unknown word which may cause them to stop and think about the meaning of that word and thus cause them to miss the next part of the speech. Fourth, listeners may fail to recognize the signals which indicate that the speaker is moving from one point to another, giving an example, or repeating a point. Discourse markers used in formal situations or lectures such as "secondly," or "then" are comparatively evident to listeners. In informal situations or spontaneous conversations, signals are more vague as in pauses, gestures, increased loudness, a clear change of pitch, or different intonation patterns. These signals can be missed especially by less proficient listeners. Fifth, listeners may lack contextual knowledge. Sharing mutual knowledge and common content makes communication easier. Even if listeners can understand the surface meaning of the text, they may have considerable difficulties in comprehending the whole meaning of the passage unless they are familiar with the context. Nonverbal clues such as facial expressions, nods, gestures, or tone of voice can also be easily misinterpreted by listeners from different cultures. Sixth, it can be difficult for listeners to concentrate in a foreign language. In listening comprehension, even the shortest break in attention can seriously impair comprehension. Conversation is easier when students find the topic of the listening passage interesting; however, students sometimes feel listening is very tiring even if they are interested because it requires an enormous amount of effort to follow the meaning. Seventh, students may have established certain learning habits such as a wish to understand every word. Teachers want students to understand every word they hear by repeating and pronouncing words carefully, by grading the language to suit their level, by speaking slowly and so on. As a result, they tend to become worried if they fail to understand a particular word or phrase and they will be discouraged by the failure. It is necessary for students to tolerate vagueness and incompleteness of understanding (Underwood, 1989).

TEACHING METHODS FOR LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Some of the teaching methods for improving students' listening comprehension skill are as follows:

A. Cultivating Students' Listening Skills

Cultivating students' listening skills is one of the most difficult tasks for any ESL teacher. This is because successful listening skills are acquired over time and with lots of practice. The demands of the task are often frustrating for students because there are no precise rules, as in grammar teaching. Speaking and writing also have very specific exercises that can lead to improvement. However, there are quite specific ways of improving listening skills but these are difficult to quantify. Teachers must develop students' micro skills of listening comprehension. Brown (1994) identifies seventeen listening comprehension micro skills. Some of the more important of these skills are discussed here. For beginners, the most important listening skill is discrimination in English pronunciation, intonation and language flow. They need to acquire the crucial skill of identifying the main information. Wu Zhengfu (1991) recognizes that when students acquire basic discrimination ability, they can select and analyze the meaning of what they hear and grasp the main content. In the teaching process teachers should cultivate students' ability to select main information and instruct students to control the general meaning of listening materials on the whole. In class, for example,   teachers can ask students to listen to the general meaning of the passage, and to sum up key points and main information. Predictive ability is also an extremely important listening micro skill. In everyday communication, people continually make unconscious predictions about what speakers will say, and these predictions are made on the basis of their knowledge of the context in which the communication is made. The development of predictive ability has many aspects. Before listening training, teachers might ask students questions   related   to   listening   materials,   or   introduce relevant background   knowledge to enlighten   students'   thinking   to   allow students   a   clear   recognition   of   the   goals   and requirements of listening training. The ability to guess the meaning of words is also an important listening micro skill. Listening comprehension does not mean understanding every word, but some words do play a crucial part in   listening comprehension. It is a normal phenomenon not to understand every word that is uttered.   However, students may guess the meaning of new words on the basis of the topic being discussed and gain some understanding of the probable linguistic items on the basis of the context of   discourses, the grammatical structure and the background knowledge of the topic.

B. Textbook-based Learning and Other Listening Contexts

Listening lessons require listeners to concentrate on the content and make fast responses to what is heard. If students are passive and apprehensive during listening training, they will probably feel nervous and wary of taking chances. Teachers need to take a non-punitive approach and structure lessons that are varied, vivid and interesting. Teachers need to select a wide range of materials to increase listening content besides using textbooks. Students need to listen to different levels of English in order to be exposed to natural, lively, rich language, such as listening to English songs, seeing films with English text. In these ways it is possible to raise students' enthusiasm, cultivate their listening interests, and achieve the goals of learning English.

C. Passing on Cultural Knowledge in Language Teaching

Understanding that language is controlled by particular cultural experiences is a necessity for the language learner. If the cultural differences between the students' own culture and that of the language they are to learn is excessive, learners will usually keep some distance from the target language in their efforts to maintain their psychological comfort level. As a consequence the operating processes of memory and input will certainly be limited (Cheng Huaiyuan, 1999). Thus teachers need to be aware that breaking down the barriers is a significant part of cultural teaching and forms an important aspect of the whole process of language teaching. The aspect of cultural knowledge transmission is an equal part of language improvement and development of work in listening development has the potential for achieving a powerful influence on the formulation of students' thinking habits and the application of foreign language expressions. Cultural teaching, then, has direct and concrete influences on intercultural communication. When students gain an intimate knowledge of the culture of the target language they begin to understand how the language is used to reflect the thoughts, behaviours and customs of that society. In teaching English listening, teachers need to develop students' consciousness about intercultural communication and they need to energize students' capacity for wanting to engage with a different culture. Great care needs to be taken when selecting listening material and auxiliary texts, since these are a crucial aspect of the cultural factors in listening teaching. The selection of material related to British and American cultural background knowledge is of particular importance, since these tend to be the focus of much of the classroom time when students' thinking ability and intercultural awareness is being cultivated.

D. Combining "Intensive Listening" with "Extensive Listening"; Focusing on Listening

Intensive listening requires students to understand the meaning of each discourse and, ultimately, to understand every sentence and word. Generally, intensive listening requires students to listen to a text several times, or divide the text into paragraphs and sentences to understand each one; or by doing dictation word by word. The goal is for students to understand every sentence. Alternatively, extensive listening does not require students to understand every sentence, and every word, instead, students are encouraged to grasp the general meaning of the passage. The key point of listening is to understand the content. The purpose of intensive listening is to build basic listening skills, while extensive listening is to strengthen and enlarge effective ness of intensive listening in order to improve overall listening ability. In listening teaching, both intensive and extensive listening should be combined with cultivating students' basic skills, the development of the productive listening habits of active thinking and the ability to understand the text. Therefore, teachers must encourage students to engage in intensive listening in class, requiring students to understand the general meaning and also to become familiarized with English pronunciation, intonation and the changes in language flow. In activities outside the class students need to engage in extensive listening; listening to many different variety of language phenomena and gaining more knowledge through TV programs, radio, the Internet and as many other kinds of exposure to listening training they can find. Exposure to demands of listening should include aspects of everyday life, science and technology, and academic lectures. Teachers must create language-learning environments that stimulate students' interests and raise students' passion and enthusiasm for learning English.

E. Combining Listening with Other Skills

According to language acquisition theory, human capacity for discrimination between language intention and language content is a crucial step in the language acquisition process. Thus listening comprehensive ability plays an important role in acquisition and improvement of language skills. Therefore, in listening teaching, there is a need to combine the development of listening ability with the development of other skills such as reading. In order to improve listening ability it is necessary to listen frequently to a teacher reading well, since it is very difficult to generate a high quality output without appropriate input. Secondly, students need to practice reading aloud among themselves. By such activity students will learn to combine the act of listening with reading. Students must be actively engaged in producing language of high quality if they are to improve their English proficiency levels. Similarly, by combining listening with writing, teachers can divide the work into two parts. First, students might answer teachers' questions in written English after listening to spoken language material. It is also

important to remember that good listening entails recalling the essence of the material rather than the precise detail. Thirdly, teachers should combine listening activities with speaking in ways that bring out the basics of oral communication. Inevitably, listeners will lose the information resources without speaking; speaking will lose its objective without careful listening and, as a result, speaking ability will not be acquired.

Listening and speaking rely on each other and regulate each other. It is important to strengthen listening through speaking and to improve speaking through listening. Students need to retell and discuss the material they have just heard in order to synthesize their understanding. In this way they learn to combine listening with speaking properly. Students who are able to do this are able to overcome their passive response to the situation and gradually they learn to feel safe when they respond. In order for this to happen, a truly interactive and penalty free listening class is required. Teacher/student and students/student exchanges should be emphasized as opportunities for a free exchange of opinions when participants can consolidate their listening approaches and skills during the process of communication. Through a variety of listening-reading, listening-writing and listening-speaking activities, students can not only strengthen their language skills but also sharpen their interests and raise their motivation to improve their learning efficiency.

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT OF ENGLISH LISTENING COMPREHENSION TEACHING AMONG EFL LEARNERS

1. Listening approach

When students need to use their prior knowledge to interpret the text and to create plausible expectations of what they are about to hear, they will activate knowledge-based processing. On the other hand, they also need to decode the linguistic input rapidly and accurately and to map the input against these expectations to confirm consistencies and to refute implausible interpretations which are referred to as text-based processing. It is acknowledged that listening strategies should be integrated explicitly and treated pedagogically to improve listening ability.

2. Classroom procedure

2. 1. Preparing students to listen

Students can make use of analogy to predict and interpret language with past similar experiences. They have a range of schemata knowledge about particular people, places, situations and text-types which they can call up and use as points of comparison with what is currently being heard and experienced. Prediction is an important process in English listening. EFL learners use their perception of the key features of context and their knowledge of the world to limit

the range of possible utterances they are about to hear. This ability helps students to process the message for deviations from what was expected, reducing their memory load in order to monitor the incoming message more efficiently. At the beginning stage, it is the teachers' task to guide students to gradually develop how to predict from the known information of the text. Visual support and transcript are two important sources of support to students. In the form of pictures, graphs, diagrams, maps, etc., the visual support can help students to predict incoming listening materials easily by supplying cultural information. It can provide support by reinforcing the aural message and training them to listen to some difficult specific information. To some students, what is heard is kind of "sound" or "noise" instead of meaningful information and they are very reluctant to pay attention to the overall message but understand every single word. For these reasons a transcript is valuable for it allows students to go back after the initial attempt so that they can check to make sure they can hear and understand everything, increasing their interest and confidence in further listening.

2. 2. Providing students with positive feedback

Providing positive feedback for students means ensuring an experience of success, which helps remove the mental block of the type discussed by Krashen (1982). In contrast, repeated failure can result in a panic and a real psychological barrier to effective listening. If there is a failure for understanding, diagnosing the cause of the failure is so important that remedial action can be taken. Neglecting the failure for a moment is unreasonable for it pushes students to slide into confusion and even into further failure.

3. Raising meta-cognitive awareness

Students are capable of observing their own cognitive processes in their listening and also verbalizing their theories about learning to listen in English. The listening notes by students and pre-listening and post-listening discussions are very helpful in this sense. These activities are very useful by involving students in thinking, not just about the content of listening, but more importantly, about the process of listening. By doing so, they can have chances to share with one another's thoughts and strategies so that they can improve their own listening ability. More importantly, they will be aware of what leads to their success and failure and then work out their own effective strategies in listening.

Used literature

Abbas Pourhossein Gilakjani. – "A Study of Factors Affecting EFL Learners' English Listening Comprehension and the Strategies for Improvement" – Malaysia, 2011

§29. Creating pre-, while-, post- listening activities

- Answer the following questions:
  - ~ *What activities can be used in pre-,*
  - ~ *while-,*
  - ~ *post- listening stages of the lesson?*

Pre-listening tasks help students to predict the content of the recording and thus make it easier to understand it. **While-listening** activities should focus on listening for the main idea/gist and listening for specific details. At this stage students should be asked to do such non-verbal tasks as multiple-choice exercises, matching, or ticking options as they require less time and no actual writing. **Post-listening** activities can be used to consolidate the material, to develop   other skills such as speaking or writing.

Task 1. Read and learn and create your own activities

TEACHING LISTENING ACTIVITIES

Listening is a highly-complex solving activities (Barnes, 1984) in which listeners interact with a speaker to construct meaning, within the context of their experiences and knowledge. When students are made aware of the factors that affect listening, the levels of listening, and the components of the listening process, they are more likely to recognize their own listening abilities and engage in activities that prepare them to be effective listeners.   Karakas (2002) states that listening activities try to prevent failure so that they can support the learner's interpretation of the text. Listening activities are usually subcategorized as pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening activities.

A. Pre-listening Activities

Schema theory provides strong evidence for the effectiveness of pre-listening activities which includes the outline for listening   to   the   text   and   teaching cultural key concepts. Listening teacher may select certain words,   difficult grammatical   structures   and   expressions   to   be   explained   through   the discussion about the topic , and may also ask students to predict the content or

what speakers are going to say, based on the information they have   already got. Pre-listening activities usually have two primary goals: (a) to help to activate students' prior knowledge, build up their expectations for the coming information; and (b) to provide the necessary context for   the specific listening task. The teacher could follow with a listening comprehension activity, such as two people having a conversation about their daily life. Students must answer true or false questions based on the previous   listening activity. An example of a controlled practice activity could be a drill activity that models the same structure or vocabulary (Karakas, 2002).

B. While-listening Activities

Listeners who participate actively in the listening experience are more likely to construct clear and accurate   meaning as they interpret the speaker's verbal message and nonverbal cues. During the listening experience   students verify and revise their predictions. They make interpretations and judgments based on what they heard.   Listening teacher may ask students to note down key words to work out the main points of the text. Students answer comprehension questions while listening to the text and select specific information to complete the table   provided with the text. While-listening activities usually have some of the following purposes: to focus students' comprehension of the speaker's language and ideas; to focus students' attention on such things as the speaker's organizational patterns; to encourage students' critical reactions and personal responses to the speaker's ideas and   use of language. An open-ended activity could follow that allows students to have the freedom to practice listening comprehension in the class about their daily life and asking for further information. Listening comprehension should begin with what students already know so that they can build on their existing knowledge and skills with activities designed on the same principle. A variation on the ―filling in the missing word listening activity‖ could be to use the same listening materials, but to set a pair work activity where student A and student B have the same worksheet where some information items are missing (Karakas, 2002).

C. Post-listening Activities

Post-listening activities are important because they extend students' listening skill. Post -listening activities are most effective when done immediately after the listening experience. Well-planned post-listening activities offer students opportunities to connect what they have heard to their own ideas and experiences, and encourage interpretive and critical listening and reflective thinking. As well, post-listening activities provide opportunities for teachers to

assess and check students' comprehension, and clarify their understandings; to extend   comprehension beyond the literal level to the interpretive and critical levels. Different comprehension questions   can be assigned for students to discuss after listening, students then swap information to complete the ―whole   class chart‖, correlating what each student has heard to arrive at the big picture. If there are any questions that   remain unanswered during the first or second listening, and after the information swap activity, the whole class can listen to the tape again. The students will then try to find the answer to the questions that have not been previously understood, rather than the teacher providing the answers straight away (Karakas, 2002).

GENERAL PRINCIPLES IN TEACHING LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Listening comprehension (LC) lessons must have definite goals, carefully stated. These goals should fit into the overall curriculum, and both teacher and students should be clearly cognizant of what they are.

1. Listening comprehension lessons should be constructed with careful step by step planning. This implies, that the listening tasks progress from simple to more complex as the student gains in language proficiency; that the student knows exactly what the task is and is given directions as to ―what to listen for, where to listen, when to listen, and how to listen."

2. LC lesson structure should demand active overt student participation. The ―most overt student participation involves his written response to the LC material," and that immediate feedback on performance helps keep interest and motivation at high levels.

3. LC lesson should provide a communicative urgency for remembering in order to develop concentration. This urgency, which along with concentration is a key factor in remembering, should come not from the teacher, but from the lesson itself. This is done by giving the students the writing assignment before they listen to the material.

4. Listening comprehension lessons should stress conscious memory work. One of the goals of listening is to strengthen the students' immediate recall in order to increase their memory spans. "Listening is receiving , receiving requires thinking, and thinking requires memory; there is no way to separate listening, thinking, remembering."

5. Listening comprehension lessons should ―teach,‖ not ―test.‖ This means that the purpose of checking the students' answers should be viewed only as feedback,

as a way of letting the students' find out how they did and how they are progressing. There should be no pass/fail attitude associated with the correction of the exercises (Paulston & Bruder, 1976).

Used literature

Abbas Pourhossein Gilakjani. – "A Study of Factors Affecting EFL Learners' English Listening Comprehension and the Strategies for Improvement" – Malaysia, 2011

Task 2. Sets of tasks. Compare two sets of listening activities based on the recordings in previous lesson and share the differences you can see between the first and the second set of listening tasks.

SET 1

1. Listen to Text 1, repeat the following patterns and learn them by heart:

Can I have two single rooms with a shower, please?

You can have a double room with a shower on the second floor.

Can I pay by credit card? - Yes, you can.

Can you wake me up at 6 a.m.? - Yes, I can.

2. Translate the words and word combinations into your native language and use them in sentences of your own. single room with a shower, double room, to be full up, surname, nationality, permanent address, place and date of birth, signature

3. Read the tapescript of the recording and learn the dialogue by heart. Rehearse the dialogue with your partner.

SET 2

1. Circle the two correct answers. What kind of books did Alex mention?

 a. Love stories

b. Detective stories

c. Military literature d. Historical novels

2. Answer the following questions:

~ Do you like reading?

~ What kind of books do you read?

 ~ What is your favourite book?

 ~ Who is your favourite author?

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3. Tell your partner about the book you've read recently.

4. Decide whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F) according to the recording.

Statements	True/False
Alex likes reading books about war.	
Alex says he can get many military books in English.	
Alex has got several books on the Japanese army.	
Alex likes books by Iris Murdoch because they were the first books in English which he understood.	
Rod likes to read only Russian literature.	
Rod doesn't like to read detective stories. Alex hasn't read the novels by Rankin.	
Ian Rankin is a Welsh writer.	

Creating pre-, while-, post- listening activities.

Evaluation of listening activities/ Complete the table by answering

№	QUESTIONS	SET 1	SET 2
1	What types of tasks do the sets offer (open/closed questions, true/false, multiple-choice, etc)?		
2	What kind of listening skills do the tasks focus on (e.g. listening for the gist/main idea, listening for specific information, etc)?		
3	What other skills are the tasks intended to develop (vocabulary, grammar, speaking etc)?		
4	Are there pre-, while-, post-listening tasks?		
	Would you like to use these activities with your students? Why/Why not? What would you like to change?		

Activity 2, Handout 3, A possible sequence for designing listening tasks

Students state interest in a particular topic

Teacher knows a particular theme will interest the students

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        |                    |
  ┌─────┴──────────────┬─────┴────────────┐
┌───────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────┐      ╱────────────╲
│ Students design   │  │ Teacher designs  │     (  Radio or TV  )
│ or select         │◄►│ or selects a     │◄────(  programme, a  )
│ a listening text  │  │ listening text   │     (  song etc.     )
└───────────────────┘  └──────────────────┘      ╲────────────╱
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Teacher

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Checks the text for suitability      │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                  │
                  ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Lists main points (some facts,       │
│ figures, etc.) to focus the          │
│ learners' attention.                 │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                  │
                  ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Identifies main language points for  │
│ comprehension.                       │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                  │
                  ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Decides to leave the text as it is   │
│ or make it semi-change               │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
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Chooses the task: listening for gist/the main idea; listening for specific information, etc.

If the text is difficult it is advisable to assign easier tasks; if the text is easy, then assign more difficult tasks.

Chooses the task type: answering questions, gap-fill, multiple-choice, matching, etc.

Unit 2 Speaking as an interactive

§30. Speaking as an interactive process. Providing successful oral fluency practice.

❖ **Answer the following questions:**

a. At what level do teachers at your institution start teaching speaking as a skill? (elementary/ pre-intermediate/ intermediate/ advanced)

b. Is it possible to teach speaking to elementary learners?

c. What are typical speaking activities in the text books that you are using?

Task 1. The dog and the meat

Put the pictures in logical order and so what the story is about.
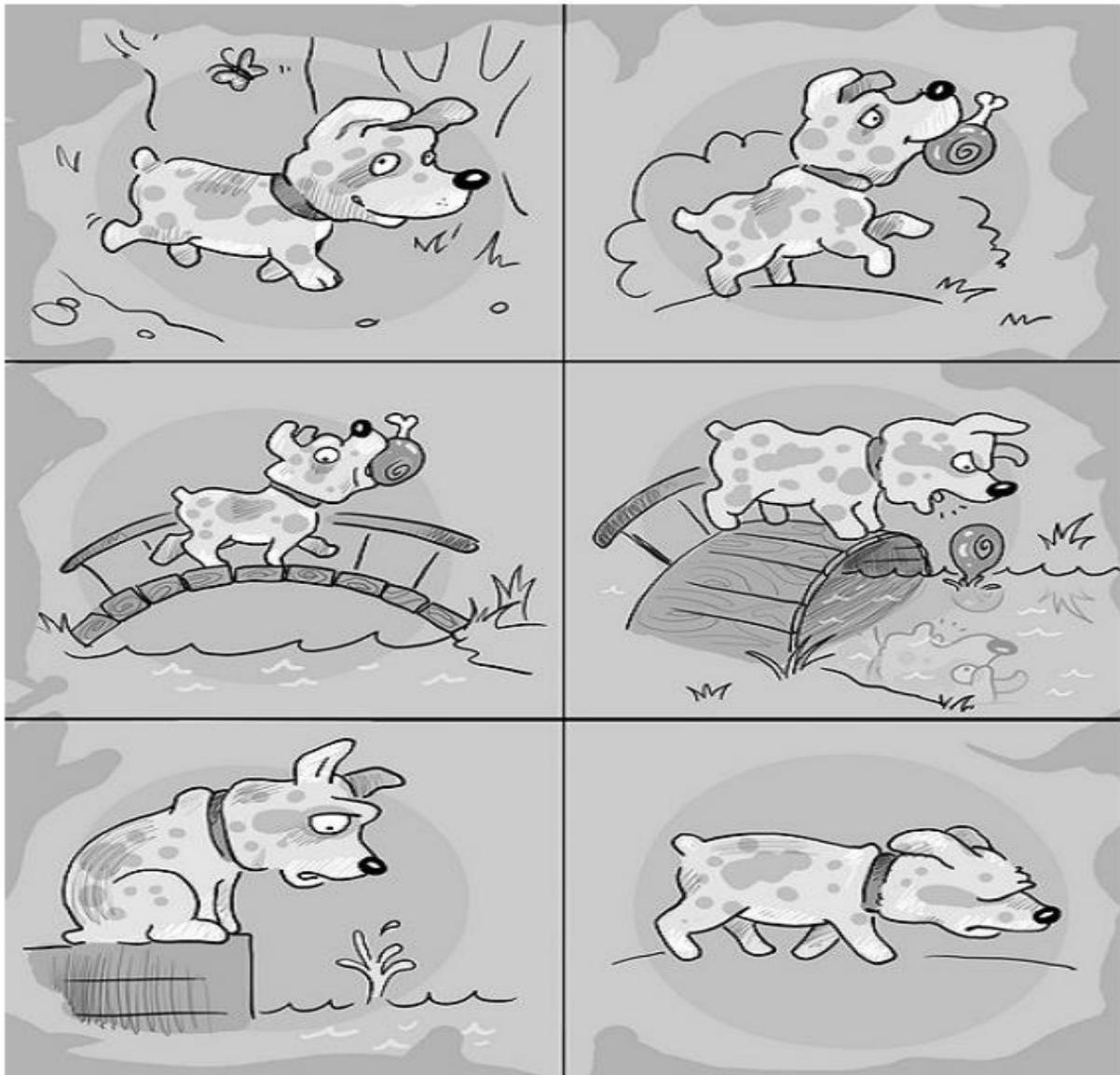
Task 2. Chain story

This time you are going to create stories in pairs. One person in each pair should continue the story by giving a sentence in the past. The second person in each pair adds another sentence to the story and so on. Begin the story by giving the first sentence.

e.g. T: Once I went for a holiday to the sea…

Student A: …and when I was walking along the coast I saw a
strange bottle in the sand.
SB: …so, I picked up the bottle and saw that it had something
inside…
SA: …

Task 3 Keep talking, Now you are going to experience a fluency-oriented activity called 'Keep Talking'. And you are going to work in pairs and each of you will need to speak for 1 min on the topic given by the teacher. And one person in each pair will be speaking and the other will be listening without interrupting the speaker.

SMOKING	PETS
CHEWING GUM	MUSIC
HOMESICKNESS	PARENTS
BOOKS	TRAVELLING
CLOTHES	HOBBIES
FOOD	HOLIDAYS

Task 4 Think about the activity that you have experienced and fill in the grid.

	Activity 1.The Dog and the Meat	Activity 2. Chain story	Activity 3. Keep Talking

a. What was the objective of the activity?			
b. What language level was the activity?			
c. What language (grammar, vocabulary) did the activity practise?			
d. Can it be adapted to a different level? How?			
e. What are the advantages of and possible problems in the activity?			

Home assignment.

- Find information about different historical places of Uzbekistan. Being in guide's shoes you need to present   3 minutes speech without stopping. You should shoot a video recording of their performance.

§31. Distinguishing fluency and accuracy speaking activities and practice them
Self-study material

Answer the following questions:
1. What do you think are the characteristics of fluency?

2. Is accuracy important in teaching speaking?

Task 1. Read and say your comments. How to strike a balance between fluency and accuracy

It's important to balance accuracy and fluency among the various stages and activities in a lesson. Both refer to the productive skills of the students. Where one focuses on getting the language right, the other focuses on getting the language out smoothly and quickly.

What is Accuracy?
Accuracy refers to the mechanics of the language. Students address and improve on the following ideas:
1. Clear and articulate speaking or writing.
2. Language free from grammar mistakes.
3. Words spelled and/or pronounced correctly.
4. Language appropriate to the situation and/or context.

When a teacher, classroom, or student fails to consider accuracy in the class, then students may sound less fluent and capable with the language. This can quickly cause problems when students need to use the language for more than casual conversation.

For example, let's say a businessperson uses English for email, as well as regularly attends teleconferences with the head office. Because English ability is so visible, it oftentimes easily gets confused with overall job ability or competence. The businessperson thus sounds less capable in the world of business, especially with peers and colleagues he doesn't regularly and directly work. It really isn't much different than a colleague who dresses in shorts and stained t-shirts. In most business industries, peers simply don't take him seriously or believe him to be fully competent.

There are unsympathetic listeners to consider too. Most native English speakers in the real world outside of the classroom don't have the background or the patience to work through the mistakes of a non-native English speaker. Whether the mistakes come from the native tongue of the students, are pronunciation problems, grammar problems, or even cultural differences, breakdowns in communication occur. What had been intelligible in the classroom for the teacher and other students is suddenly no longer intelligible outside the classroom.

It must be noted here: Too much attention to accuracy results in students unable to use the language. They breakdown the sentences, translate them, and look at the sentences from different angles to minimize mistakes. This results in very slow

response times. The language becomes less able to carry out its purpose, namely to effectively communicate ideas and information.

What is Fluency?

Fluency focuses on the flow of language. Sentences must be spoken smoothly and with few pauses. In addition, students respond to questions and information quickly. Lastly, it's important that students participate in a conversation, not simply react to it.

There are a number of factors which affect fluency. To start, unfamiliar material results in less smooth, less quick language production. This is especially evident when the teacher first presents the target language (grammar, vocabulary, phrases, etc.). Students of all levels, when faced with new material, must process and practice it. A certain level of automaticity must be achieved before also gaining a level of fluency.

And what is automaticity? The term refers to the recall time on the target language. Students work towards producing the new structures naturally and with less thought. When students repeatedly practice a word, phrase, or sentence structure, then the new material becomes automatic. Students require less time to think about how to produce the language. Improved automaticity directly affects fluency.

It's important to note that too much information presented and practiced at once hinders fluency. For example, as students must become familiar with new material in the earlier stages of a lesson, they struggle with longer and richer sentences. In short, there's simply too much to juggle all at once.

Of course the whole of the lesson shouldn't be restricted to short sentences that narrowly focus on the target grammar and/or vocabulary. However, restrictive practice at the start improves productive fluency later in the lesson. As the lesson progresses and students become comfortable and familiar with the target language, additional information for longer, richer sentences can be worked into the lesson plan.

Response time also measures fluency. If someone asks a question, and the student takes several seconds before giving any answer, this can be considered poor fluency.

Slow responses most often occur with lower-level students. However, even higher-level students may struggle with response times. In both cases, students may know the grammar or vocabulary, but must nevertheless process it when encountered. In short, it takes time to retrieve the needed information.

Lower-level students also tend to translate questions and answers from their native language to the target language, then back again. This further hinders fluency.

Lastly, students need to be able to participate in a conversation. When students simply ask and answer questions, without adding detail, supporting information, tangents, or additional questions, then this is merely reacting to the conversation. Fluency should also be considered in terms of enriched grammar and vocabulary, all of which add to meaning, nuance, and so on.

Let's look at the following exchange which serves as an example of reacting to a conversation:

Student A: What are you going to do this Saturday?
Student B: I'm going to see a movie.
Student A: What are you going to do on Sunday?
Student B: I'm going to study for the English test.
Student A: What are you...

Such conversations are common at the lower levels, but some detail can still be added if the teacher explicitly and repeatedly gives attention to this point. The teacher needs to set clear goals that the class works steadily towards, such as creating longer, richer conversations. Opportunities for discussion, as well as other open activities, help improve this point.

At higher levels, the same reaction to a conversation may occur with difficult subject matter. Students may lack knowledge on the topic in their native language too, which results in a far less rich discussion in the target language. The teacher can assign preparatory homework, perhaps with the students receiving several question cards for essays or presentations.

Fluency is thus a very important aspect of the language classroom. Students should be able to accomplish the following for fluent conversations:

1. Acquire and use the needed target language.

2. Respond with few pauses, or quick access and activation of information.

3. Participate in a conversation.

How to Balance Accuracy and Fluency
With a clearer definition of accuracy and fluency, let's now look at how to effectively balance the two. Although some ideas and information has been briefly mentioned above, it proves important to now discuss the balance as a separate entity.

When the teacher develops a lesson, the early portions of the lesson generally get devoted to acquisition of the target language. Students need to learn the new material and produce it accurately. As a result, activities tend to be narrowly defined. This allows students to explicitly focus on one aspect of the target language. And as students become comfortable with the one aspect, then additional points and/or information can be added. Students don't need to juggle too much information.

Of course, as the students practice, the teacher shouldn't expect zero mistakes. No matter how much practice occurs, mistakes continue to occur. In addition, the teacher shouldn't restrict the lesson to controlled and repetitive activities. For example, if students drilled and drilled and drilled the language for the majority of the class, then everyone would quickly become bored. There would be little challenge, little engagement, little interest. Both the students and the teacher wouldn't offer careful thought to the lesson contents.

It should be noted that drills and controlled activities improve fluency too. Improved familiarity with the target language means an improved level of automaticity. This then translates to quicker and smoother response times.

However, as was mentioned earlier, fluency consists of more than quick responses to questions. Students must also be able to access and activate the knowledge. Students must be able to add detail for richer responses. Students must be able to participate in a conversation. Hence the latter portion of the lesson gets devoted to these other aspects for better fluency.

With increasingly open-ended activities, students must provide longer and more detailed answers. Students further mix grammar and vocabulary from past lessons. They also mix pre-existing knowledge gained from personal studies, interest, and exposure to English with the new material. All of this allows students to create more realistic and richer conversations, which they may also immediately apply outside the classroom.

Productive and Receptive Levels
Let's conclude with a brief word on productive and receptive levels, as both connect to accuracy and fluency. Productive and receptive levels can be defined as the following:
Productive Level: This refers to language use, specifically speaking and writing.
Receptive Level: This refers to listening and reading, or input and comprehension.

For effective communication to occur, students must be able to produce and receive information. A poor productive level may mean that students have the information but can't speak quickly or correctly. On the other hand, students may

try to dominate a conversation because of a poor receptive level. They speak and speak without actually participating in the conversation.

Attention to productive and receptive levels ties directly to accuracy, fluency, and the activities in this resource book. A teacher may correctly assume that students understand the target language, and thus ignore additional opportunities to improve language production. In other words, the teacher ignores activities for better accuracy and fluency simply because students understand the new material. An apt analogy would be assuming someone a capable driver after only a few sessions behind the wheel! Drills are needed to improve accuracy and response time.

Conversely, the teacher may spend too much time on drills and short activities that don't allow opportunities for rich and detailed use of the language. This results in a poorer receptive level because students don't have the chance to meaningfully interact with one another.

To conclude, the teacher must not only consider accuracy, fluency, and the balance of the two, but he must also consider both sides to language use. Focus too much on accuracy, and students are disengaged and unable to connect to the content. Focus too much on fluency, and students make so many mistakes that they cannot be clearly understood.

Activity 2 Practice fluency and accuracy with CEFR description

Self-assessment grid

Reception		Interaction		Production	
Listening	**Reading**	**Spoken Interaction**	**Written Interaction**	**Spoken Production**	**Written Production**

| C2 | I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language, whether live or broadcast, even when delivered at fast native speed, provided I have some time to get familiar with the accent. | I can read with ease virtually all forms of the written language, including abstract, structurally or linguistically complex texts such as manuals, specialised articles and literary works. | I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. If I do have a problem I can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it. | I can express myself with clarity and precision, relating to the addressee flexibly and effectively in an assured, personal style. | I can present a clear, smoothly-flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context and with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points. | I can write clear, smoothly flowing text in an appropriate style. I can write complex letters, reports or articles, which present a case with an effective logical structure, which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points. I can write summaries and reviews of professional or literary works. |

C1	I can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. I can understand television programmes and films without too much effort.	I can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. I can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field.	I can express myself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. I can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution skilfully to those of other speakers		I can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion	I can express myself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. I can write detailed expositions of complex subjects in an essay or a report, underlining what I consider to be the salient issues. I can write different kinds of texts in a style appropriate to the reader in mind.
B2	I can understand extended speech and lectures and follow even complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. I can understand most TV	I can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular stances or viewpoints. I can	I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for	I can write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences.	I can present clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to my field of interest. I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages	I can write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving

	news and current affairs programmes. I can understand the majority of films in standard dialect.	understand contemporary literary prose.	and sustaining my views.		and disadvantages of various options.	reasons in support of or against a particular point of view.
B1	I can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school leisure, etc. I can understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear.	I can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency everyday or job-related language. I can understand the description of events feelings and wishes in personal letters	I can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family hobbies, work travel and current events).	I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.	I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events my dreams hopes & ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.	I can write straightforward connected text on topics, which are familiar, or of personal interest.
A2	I can understand phrases and the highest frequency vocabulary related to areas of most immediate personal relevance	I can read very short, simple texts. I can find specific, predictable information in simple everyday material	I can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar topics and activities. I can	I can write short, simple notes and messages relating to matters in areas of immediate need. I can write a	I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people living conditions, my educational	I can write a series of simple phrases and sentences linked with simple connectors like ""and" "but" and "because".

	(e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). I can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements	such as advertisements, prospectuses, menus and timetables and I can understand short simple personal letters	handle very short social exchanges, even though I can't usually understand enough to keep the conversation going myself.	very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.	background and my present or most recent job	
A1	I can recognise familiar words and very basic phrases concerning myself, my family and immediate concrete surroundings when people speak slowly and clearly.	I can understand familiar names, words and very simple sentences, for example on notices and posters or in catalogues.	I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say. I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.	I can write a short, simple postcard, for examples sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.	I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.	I can write simple, isolated phrases and sentences

Table 3. *Common Reference Levels: qualitative aspects of spoken language use*

	RANGE	ACCURACY	FLUENCY	INTERACTION	COHERENCE
C2	Shows great flexibility reformulating ideas in differing linguistic forms to convey finer shades of meaning precisely, to give emphasis, to differentiate and to eliminate ambiguity. Also has a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms.	Maintains consistent grammatical control of complex language, even while attention is otherwise engaged (e.g. in forward planning, in monitoring others' reactions).	Can express him/herself spontaneously at length with a natural colloquial flow, avoiding or backtracking around any difficulty so smoothly that the interlocutor is hardly aware of it.	Can interact with ease and skill, picking up and using non-verbal and intonational cues apparently effortlessly. Can interweave his/her contribution into the joint discourse with fully natural turntaking, referencing, allusion making, etc.	Can create coherent and cohesive discourse making full and appropriate use of a variety of organisational patterns and a wide range of connectors and other cohesive devices.
C1	Has a good command of a broad range of language allowing him/her to select a formulation to express him/herself clearly in an appropriate style on a wide range of general, academic, professional or leisure topics without having to restrict what he/she wants to say.	Consistently maintains a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors are rare, difficult to spot and generally corrected when they do occur.	Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language.	Can select a suitable phrase from a readily available range of discourse functions to preface his remarks in order to get or to keep the floor and to relate his/her own contributions skilfully to those of other speakers.	Can produce clear, smoothly flowing, well-structured speech, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
B2+					
B2	Has a sufficient range of language to be able to give clear descriptions, express viewpoints on most general topics, without much conspicuous searching for words, using some complex sentence forms to do so.	Shows a relatively high degree of grammatical control. Does not make errors which cause misunderstanding, and can correct most of his/her mistakes.	Can produce stretches of language with a fairly even tempo; although he/she can be hesitant as he/she searches for patterns and expressions. There are few noticeably long pauses.	Can initiate discourse, take his/her turn when appropriate and end conversation when he/she needs to, though he/she may not always do this elegantly. Can help the discussion along on familiar ground confirming comprehension, inviting others in, etc.	Can use a limited number of cohesive devices to link his/her utterances into clear, coherent discourse, though there may be some 'jumpiness' in a long contribution.

B1+					
B1	Has enough language to get by, with sufficient vocabulary to express him/ herself with some hesitation and circumlocutions on topics such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events.	Uses reasonably accurately a repertoire of frequently used 'routines' and patterns associated with more predictable situations.	Can keep going comprehensibly, even though pausing for grammatical and lexical planning and repair is very evident, especially in longer stretches of free production.	Can initiate, maintain and close simple face-to-face conversation on topics that are familiar or of personal interest. Can repeat back part of what someone has said to confirm mutual understanding.	Can link a series of shorter, discrete simple elements into a connected, linear sequence of points.
A2+					
A2	Uses basic sentence patterns with memorised phrases, groups of a few words and formulae in order to communicate limited information in simple everyday situations.	Uses some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes.	Can make him/herself understood in very short utterances, even though pauses, false starts and reformulation are very evident.	Can answer questions and respond to simple statements. Can indicate when he/she is following but is rarely able to understand enough to keep conversation going of his/her own accord.	Can link groups of words with simple connectors like 'and', 'but' and 'because'.
A1	Has a very basic repertoire of words and simple phrases related to personal details and particular concrete situations.	Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a memorised repertoire.	Can manage very short, isolated, mainly pre-packaged utterances, with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words, and to repair communication.	Can ask and answer questions about personal details. Can interact in a simple way but communication is totally dependent on repetition, rephrasing and repair.	Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like 'and' or 'then'.

Home assignment.

Prepare an activity appropriate for elementary level focusing on accuracy and fluency.

§32.Kinds of spoken interaction as a part of classroom process relating to all skills
Self study for students

Mode of interaction	Advantages Disadvantages	Individual work
Individual work	• shy students get a chance to express themselves. • students have some thinking time before they share their ideas. • weak students get a chance to write their ideas down before the discussion.	• there is no sharing of ideas. • some students can find it difficult to do the task individually.
Pair work	• every person gets a chance to speak • less confident students get a chance to express their ideas	• it is noisy • different pairs/groups work at different speeds so it's difficult to bring a phase of p/w g/w to a tidy conclusion • p/w or g/w is difficult for teachers to control and learners tend to go off task or to use L1 • some teachers also worry that too many mistakes go uncorrected
Group work	• students can come up with many ideas • less confidents students get a chance to express their ideas • students become less dependent on the teacher	• Some students can dominate in a group • Some students can take a passive role in group work
Whole class work	• students can hear other students' points of view • there is a bigger variety of ideas and opinions • teachers can control the	• not all students can get a chance to speak • it can become very boring

	language of the students	

➢ The following extracts in suggest some more kinds of oral interaction; study and perhaps discuss them, and then read on to the following Comment.

Extract 1

Interactional uses of language are those in which the primary purposes for communication are social. The emphasis is on creating harmonious interactions between participants rather than on communicating information. The goal for the participants is to make social interaction comfortable and non-threatening and to communicate goodwill. Although information may be communicated in the process, the accurate and orderly presentation of information is not the primary purpose.

Examples of interactional uses of language are greeting, making small talk, telling jokes, giving compliments, making casual 'chat' of the kind used to pass time with friends or to make encounters with strangers comfortable.

Brown and Yule (1983) suggest that language used in the interactional mode is listener oriented...

Transactional uses of language are those in which language is being used primarily for communicating information. They are 'message' oriented rather than 'listener' oriented. Accurate and coherent communication of the message is important, as well as confirmation that the message has been understood. Explicitness and directness of meaning is essential, in comparison with the vagueness of interactional language ... Examples of language being used primarily for a transactional purpose include news broadcasts, lectures, descriptions and instructions.

(from Jack C. Richards, The Language Teaching Matrix, Cambridge University Press 1990, pp. 54-5, 56)

Extract 2

A short turn consists of only one or two utterances, a long turn consists of a string of utterances which may last as long as an hour's lecture ... What is demanded of a speaker in a long turn is considerably more demanding than what is required of a speaker in a short turn. As soon as a speaker 'takes the floor' for a long turn, tells an anecdote, tells a joke, explains how something works, justifies a position, describes an individual, and so on, he takes responsibility for creating a structured sequence of utterances which must help the listener to create a coherent mental representation of what he is trying to say. What the speaker says must be coherently structured ...

The general point which needs to be made ... is that it is important that the teacher should realise that simply training the student to produce short turns will not automatically yield students who can perform satisfactorily in long turns.

(from Gillian Brown and George Yule, Teaching the Spoken Language, Cambridge University Press, 1983, pp. 12, 14)

Extract 3

The use of role play has added a tremendous number of possibilities for communication practice. Students are no longer limited to the kind of language used by learners in a classroom: they can be shopkeepers or spies, grandparents or children, authority figures or subordinates; they can be bold or frightened, irritated or amused, disapproving or affectionate; they can be in Buckingham Palace or on a ship or on the moon; they can be threatening, advising, apologizing, condoling. The language can correspondingly vary along several parameters: according to the profession, status, personality, attitudes or mood of the character being role- played, according to the physical setting imagined, according to the communicative functions or purpose required.

(from Penny Ur, Discussions that Work, Cambridge University Press, 1981, p 9)

Comment: Different kinds of interaction

Discussion tasks tend to be based on transactional talk, short turns and fairly detached argument or persuasion. The main types of interaction which are discussed in the extracts in Box 1 and which tend to be neglected are: interactional talk; long turns; talk which is based on (non-classroom) situations, emotions and personal relationships.

1.Interactional talk

This is to some extent a matter of learning conventional formulae of courtesy: how to greet, take leave, begin and end conversations, apologize, thank and so on. But even more than this it is culture-linked: how the interactional function

of speech is realized in different languages depends as much on cultural convention as on knowledge of the words of the language.

2.Long turns

The ability to speak at length is one which adult, more advanced or academic students will perhaps need and therefore needs cultivating; for other types of classes it may be less important.

3.Varied situations, feelings, relationships

It is certainly arguable that learners will need to function in a wide variety of such contexts, and it makes sense to give them opportunities to try using the target language in simulations of at least a selection of them. Conventional task- based discussions do not provide such opportunities; but, as the extract quoted here claims, role-play activities do - which is a cogent argument for including them in a language course.

Follow-up questions for discussion:
Which of the above kinds of interaction are important for your students?

For questions those kinds you think important, can you suggest activities that give practice in them?

Activity 2. Teaching kinds of interaction in the classroom

Answer the following questions:
- ~ Why do teachers need to use different interaction patterns in a lesson?
- ~ What happens if a teacher uses only one mode of interaction?
- ~ In what way we can apply kinds of interaction into teaching?

Possible answers:

1. Interactional talk

The way interactional talk is carried out in different languages is very culture-linked, and it is difficult to explain the conventions that govern it in a foreign language; it is dubious therefore whether it is worth investing very much effort in teaching and practising them. My own opinion is that given general language proficiency and a knowledge of the more obvious courtesy conventions, most learners will be able to cope adequately with interactional speech on the basis of their own cultural knowledge and common sense. Some kinds of role play can give opportunities for practising it.

2. Long turns
Some activities that help students to practise speaking in long turns are:

- telling stories (well-known tales or personal anecdotes)

- telling jokes

- describing a person or place in detail

- recounting the plot of a film, play or book

- giving a short lecture or talk

- arguing a case for or against a proposal.

3. Varied situations, feelings, relationships

The obvious classroom activities to use here are those based on role play

Task. Read and answer the questions. Information Gap

THE INFORMATION GAP

Student A

In the real world, information gaps are very common. One person – the speaker – wants to ask a question and the other person – the listener – tries to answer it. In the classroom, we can use information gaps to give the students a chance to communicate with each other, just like people do in real life.

You can use a wide variety of different materials in the classroom to design an information gap. Sometimes, you can use a picture, which one student tries to describe to another student. Sometimes, you can use a written text with information that students must pass to each other. An information gap can involve the different skills of reading, listening, writing and speaking.

An information gap needs careful organization. The teacher must think carefully about the instructions he or she will give to students so that they are very clear about what they have to do. Sometimes it's useful to practise the activity before starting.

At the end of the activity, the teacher can give students feedback on how well they did in the activity. The teacher can also point out any errors the students made, but it is important to remember that the teacher should do this afterthe activity and should not interrupt the pair work.

NOW ANSWER THE QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR TEXT.

1. What kinds of materials can you use for an information gap?

2. What kinds of skills do students practise in an information gap?

3. How can the teacher make sure the activity goes well?

4. What can the teacher do after the activity?

5. When should the teacher correct the students?

NOW ASK YOUR PARTNER THESE QUESTIONS.

1. What kind of information gaps do you find in real life?

2. Why are they useful in the classroom?

3. What kind of language can students use in an information gap activity?

4. What kind of grammatical structures could your students practise?

5. What should the teacher do during the activity?

Task. Read and answer the questions. Information Gap

THE INFORMATION GAP

Student B

In the real world, information gaps are very common. One person – the speaker – wants to ask a question and the other person – the listener – tries to answer it. In the real world, people ask questions because they do not know the answer, and because they want to find out some information. Think of a man at a bus stop (A) who asks a woman (B): Do you have the time?There is an information gap between the two people that the man is trying to bridge.

An information gap is useful in the classroom because it gives students a reason to communicate with each other. Sometimes, the teacher can decide the kind of language that the students will use. Sometimes, the language can be very free and the students decide what kind of language they will use. You can use an information gap to practise grammar, especially verb forms such as the past simple or present continuous. You can also practise vocabulary: in fact, anything you choose.

The teacher's job is to organize the activity, and, while the students are working together, to monitor. This means that the teacher listens carefully, and makes a careful note of any errors the students make. The teacher tries not to interfere while the students are working together.

For an information gap to work well, it needs to have a purpose. The students' purpose is to bridge the gap by asking and answering questions.

NOW ANSWER THE QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR TEXT.
1. What kind of information gaps do you find in real life?
2. Why are they useful in the classroom?
3. What kind of language can students use in an information gap activity?
4. What kind of grammatical structures could your students practise?
5. What should the teacher do during the activity?

NOW ASK YOUR PARTNER THESE QUESTIONS.
1. What kinds of materials can you use for an information gap?
2. What kinds of skills do students practise in an information gap?
3. How can the teacher make sure the activity goes well?
4. What can the teacher do after the activity?
5. When should the teacher correct the students?

Hometask

➢ Observe various kinds of textbooks, find activities related to speaking skills development and write your own comment for them.

Unit 3 Reading as an interactive process

§ 33. Reading as an interactive process Creating pre, while, post reading activities

Teachers want to model students who can cope with different communication situations even if they do not have complete control of the grammar or an extensive vocabulary. In the case of reading, this means producing students who can use reading strategies to maximize their comprehension of text and identify relevant and non-relevant information.

Recent studies have shown that developing reading skills reveals that this issue is more complicated than it seems. Comprehension requires the reader to be an active builder of meaning. Reading research has demonstrated that readers do not simply understand the meaning that is in a text. As a matter of fact, expert readers **reconstruct meaning** with a text. The research data show that reading is like a transaction in which the reader brings purposes and life experiences to cope with

the text. This meeting of the reader and the text results in the meaning that is comprehension. Comprehension stands for **what is coded or hidden** in the text, but it is also closely connected with the reader's background experiences, purposes, feelings, and needs. That is why we can read the same book or story twice and it can have different meanings for us. We, as readers, are an equal and active partner with the text in the meaning-making process of comprehension. We make an **interactive connection with the text**. Authentic texts (reports, articles, stories, advertisments, essays) are meant to develop the students` skills in reading and speaking by connecting prior experiences to the reading.

Developing Reading Activities

Developing reading activities involves more than identifying a text that is "at the right level," writing a set of comprehension questions for students to answer after reading, handing out the assignment and sending students away to do it. A fully-developed reading activity supports students as readers through prereading, while-reading, and post-reading activities.

As you design reading tasks, keep in mind that complete recall of all the information in a text is an unrealistic expectation even for native speakers. Reading activities that are meant to increase communicative competence should be successfully oriented and build up students' confidence in their reading skills.

Task A. Build up the reading activity around a task that is significant for the students .

Make sure students understand what the purpose for reading is: to get the main idea, obtain specific information, understand most or all of the message, enjoy a story, or decide whether or not to read more. Recognizing the purpose for reading will help students select appropriate reading strategies.

Task B. Define the additional instructional goals and the appropriate type of response

In addition to the main purpose for reading, an activity can also have one or more instructional purposes, such as practicing or reviewing specific grammatical constructions, introducing new vocabulary, or familiarizing students with the typical structure of a certain type of text.

Task C. Check the level of difficulty of the text
The factors listed below can help you judge the relative ease or difficulty of a reading text for a particular purpose and a particular group of students.

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

• How familiar are the students with the topic? Remember that cultural differences can create major comprehension difficulties.

• Is the text redundant ? At the lower levels of proficiency, listeners may find short, simple messages easier to process, but students with higher proficiency benefit from the natural redundancy of authentic language.

• Does the text have visual support to help in reading comprehension? Visual aids such as photographs, maps, and diagrams help students preview the content of the text, guess the meanings of unknown words, and check comprehension while reading.

Remember that the level of difficulty of a text is not the same as the level of difficulty of a reading task.

Task D. Make a good selection of some pre-reading activities to prepare students for reading

The activities you use during pre-reading can have a preparatory role in several ways. During pre-reading you may:

• Evaluate students' background knowledge of the topic and linguistic content of the text

• Give cultural information which may be necessary to comprehend the passage

• Make students aware of the type of text they will be reading and the purpose(s) for reading

• Create opportunities for group or collaborative work and for class discussion activities

Sample pre-reading activities:

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

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

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

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

• Reviewing vocabulary or grammatical structures

Pre-reading activities are most important at lower levels of language proficiency and at earlier stages of reading instruction. As students become more proficient at

using reading strategies, you will be able to reduce the amount of guided pre-reading and allow students to do these activities themselves.

Task E. Match while-reading activities to the purpose for reading

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

•   When reading for information, students need to ask themselves, have I obtained the information I was looking for or do I understand each main idea and how the author supports it?

•   When reading for pleasure, students need to ask themselves, Do I understand the story line/sequence of ideas well enough to enjoy reading this?

•   When reading for reference we want to know only a small part of the text- airline timetables, telephone directory, searching for one or more isolated pieces of information. Road signs and notices are also intented for instruction or advice.

Skimming a text is used to quickly identify the main ideas of a text. When you read a magazine, you're probably not reading it word-by-word, instead you're scanning the text. Skimming is faster than normal reading. People often skim when they have lots of material to read in a limited amount of time. Use skimming when you want to see if an article may be of interest in your research.

You might read the title, subtitles, subheading, and illustrations. Consider reading the first sentence of each paragraph. Skimming works well to find dates, names, and places. It might be used to review graphs, tables, and charts.

Scanning the text is a technique you often use when looking up a word in the telephone book or dictionary. You search for key words or ideas. In most cases, you know what you're looking for, so you're concentrating on finding a particular answer.

When scanning, look for the author's use of organizers such as numbers, letters, steps, or the words, first, second, or next. Look for words that are bold faced, italics, or in a different font size, style, or color. Sometimes the author will put key ideas in the margin.

F. After reading acivities

Students participate in post-reading strategies; consolidate or review their understanding of   what they have read, identify new literacy knowledge, link it with what they already know, automatise aspects of it to achieve fluency in its use and to respond to

Read for information

Reading Purpose and Reading Comprehension

Reading is an activity with a purpose. A person may read in order to gain information or verify existing knowledge, or in order to critique a writer's ideas or writing style. A person may also read for enjoyment, or to enhance knowledge of the language being read. The purpose(s) for reading guide the reader's selection of texts.

The purpose for reading also determines the appropriate approach to reading comprehension. A person who needs to know whether she can afford to eat at a particular restaurant needs to comprehend the pricing information provided on the menu, but does not need to recognize the name of every appetizer listed. A person reading poetry for enjoyment needs to recognize the words the poet uses and the ways they are put together, but does not need to identify main idea and supporting details. However, a person using a scientific article to support an opinion needs to know the vocabulary that is used, understand the facts and cause-effect sequences that are presented, and recognize ideas that are presented as hypotheses and givens.

Reading research shows that good readers

- Read extensively
- Integrate information in the text with existing knowledge
- Have a flexible reading style, depending on what they are reading
- Are motivated
- Rely on different skills interacting: perceptual processing, phonemic processing, recall
- Read for a purpose; reading serves a function

Reading as a Process

Reading is an interactive process that goes on between the reader and the text, resulting in comprehension. The text presents letters, words, sentences, and

paragraphs that encode meaning. The reader uses knowledge, skills, and strategies to determine what that meaning is.

Reader knowledge, skills, and strategies include

- Linguistic competence: the ability to recognize the elements of the writing system; knowledge of vocabulary; knowledge of how words are structured into sentences
- Discourse competence: knowledge of discourse markers and how they connect parts of the text to one another
- Sociolinguistic competence: knowledge about different types of texts and their usual structure and content
- Strategic competence: the ability to use top-down strategies, as well as knowledge of the language (a bottom-up strategy)

The purpose(s) for reading and the type of text determine the specific knowledge, skills, and strategies that readers need to apply to achieve comprehension. Reading comprehension is thus much more than decoding. Reading comprehension results when the reader knows which skills and strategies are appropriate for the type of text, and understands how to apply them to accomplish the reading purpose.

Strategies for Developing Reading Skills

Using Reading Strategies

Language instructors are often frustrated by the fact that students do not automatically transfer the strategies they use when reading in their native language to reading in a language they are learning. Instead, they seem to think reading means starting at the beginning and going word by word, stopping to look up every unknown vocabulary item, until they reach the end. When they do this, students are relying exclusively on their linguistic knowledge, a bottom-up strategy. One of the most important functions of the language instructor, then, is to help students move past this idea and use top-down strategies as they do in their native language.

Effective language instructors show students how they can adjust their reading behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and reading purposes. They help students develop a set of reading strategies and match appropriate strategies to each reading situation.

Strategies that can help students read more quickly and effectively include

- Previewing: reviewing titles, section headings, and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection
- Predicting: using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and check comprehension; using knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure; using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary, and content
- Skimming and scanning: using a quick survey of the text to get the main idea, identify text structure, confirm or question predictions
- Guessing from context: using prior knowledge of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of stopping to look them up
- Paraphrasing: stopping at the end of a section to check comprehension by restating the information and ideas in the text

Instructors can help students learn when and how to use reading strategies in several ways.

- By modeling the strategies aloud, talking through the processes of previewing, predicting, skimming and scanning, and paraphrasing. This shows students how the strategies work and how much they can know about a text before they begin to read word by word.
- By allowing time in class for group and individual previewing and predicting activities as preparation for in-class or out-of-class reading. Allocating class time to these activities indicates their importance and value.
- By using cloze (fill in the blank) exercises to review vocabulary items. This helps students learn to guess meaning from context.
- By encouraging students to talk about what strategies they think will help them approach a reading assignment, and then talking after reading about what strategies they actually used. This helps students develop flexibility in their choice of strategies.

When language learners use reading strategies, they find that they can control the reading experience, and they gain confidence in their ability to read the language.

Reading to Learn

Reading is an essential part of language instruction at every level because it supports learning in multiple ways.

- Reading to learn the language: Reading material is language input. By giving students a variety of materials to read, instructors provide multiple opportunities for students to absorb vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, and discourse structure as they occur in authentic contexts. Students thus gain a more complete picture of the ways in which the elements of the language work together to convey meaning.
- Reading for content information: Students' purpose for reading in their native language is often to obtain information about a subject they are studying, and this purpose can be useful in the language learning classroom as well. Reading for content information in the language classroom gives students both authentic reading material and an authentic purpose for reading.
- Reading for cultural knowledge and awareness: Reading everyday materials that are designed for native speakers can give students insight into the lifestyles and worldviews of the people whose language they are studying. When students have access to newspapers, magazines, and Web sites, they are exposed to culture in all its variety, and monolithic cultural stereotypes begin to break down.

When reading to learn, students need to follow four basic steps:

1. Figure out the purpose for reading. Activate background knowledge of the topic in order to predict or anticipate content and identify appropriate reading strategies.
2. Attend to the parts of the text that are relevant to the identified purpose and ignore the rest. This selectivity enables students to focus on specific items in the input and reduces the amount of information they have to hold in short-term memory.
3. Select strategies that are appropriate to the reading task and use them flexibly and interactively. Students' comprehension improves and their confidence increases when they use top-down and bottom-up skills simultaneously to construct meaning.
4. Check comprehension while reading and when the reading task is completed. Monitoring comprehension helps students detect inconsistencies and comprehension failures, helping them learn to use alternate strategies

CONCLUSION

- Because reading is a meaning-making activity, it's important to engage learners with texts that are meaningful to them. This does not mean that they

always need to be about familiar content, but that the texts are interesting and worth reading. Learners need to be able to connect to the text in some way, and have a purpose for reading it.

- Selecting texts to use for instructional and practice purposes is a particular challenge at this level. Unlike learners working at Step 2 and above on the learning progressions, learners at this level will not be able to use most everyday texts, such as newspapers, or specialist texts such as workbooks or manuals to learn and practise their skills.

❖ Read the story again and answer the questions on handout 2

Activity 1, Handout 1, The story

THE PRINCE AND THE MAGICIAN

Once upon a time there was a young prince, who believed in all things but three. He did not believe in princesses, he did not believe in islands, he did not believe in God. His father, the king, told him such things did not exist. As there were no princesses or islands in his father's domains, and no sign of God, the young prince believed his father.

5   But then, one day, the prince ran away from his palace. He came to the next land. There, to his astonishment, from every coast he saw islands, and on these islands strange and troubling creatures whom he dared not name, As he was searching for a boat, a man in full evening dress approached him along the shore.

"Are those real islands?" asked the young prince.

10   "Of course they are real islands," said the man in evening dress.

"And those strange and troubling creatures?"

"They are all genuine and authentic princesses."

"Then God also must exist!" cried the prince.

"I am God", replied the man in full evening dress, with a bow.

15   The young prince returned home as quickly as he could.

"So you are back", said his father, the king.

"I have seen islands, I have seen princesses, I have seen God," said the prince reproachfully. The king was unmoved.

"Neither real islands, nor real princesses, nor a real God, exist."

20   "I saw them!"

"Tell me how God was dressed."

"God was in full evening dress".

"Were the sleeves of his coat rolled back?"

The prince remembered that they had been. The king smiled.

25   "That is the uniform of a magician. You have been deceived."

At this, the prince returned to the next land, and went to the same shore, where once again he came upon the man in full evening dress.

"My father, the king, has told me who you are," said the young prince indignantly. "You   deceived me last time, but not again. Now I know that those are not real islands and real princesses, because you are a magician."

30   The old man on the shore smiled.

"It is you who are deceived, my boy. In your father's kingdom there are many islands and many princesses. But you are under your father's spell, so you cannot see them."

The prince returned pensively home. When he saw his father, he looked him in the eyes.

35   "Father, is it true that you are not a real king, but only a magician?"

The king smiled and rolled back his sleeves.

"Yes, my son, I am only a magician."

"Then the man on the shore was God."

"The man on the shore was another magician."

40   "I must know the real truth, the truth beyond magic."

"There is no truth beyond magic," said the king.

The prince was full of sadness. He said, "I will kill myself."

The king by magic caused death to appear. Death stood in the door and beckoned to the prince.

The prince shuddered. He remembered the beautiful but unreal islands and unreal but beautiful

45   princesses.

"Very well," he said. "I can bear it."

"You see, my son," said the king, "you too now begin to be a magician."

JOHN FOWLES "The Magus"

Activity 1, Handout 2, Questions and statements for discussion

Answer the questions

1. Why didn't the prince believe in three things?
2. Why did the prince believe his father when he said that the man he had met was not God?
3. What did the prince learn about his father?

Agree or disagree

1. The prince is a timid person who has no will power.
2. The prince's father is a selfish and authoritarian man who doesn't really love his son.
3. The magician is a cruel man who does not show any consideration for other people's feelings.

✄
_____

TEACHING READING

Activity 1, Handout 2, Questions and statements for discussion

Answer the questions

1. Why didn't the prince believe in three things?
2. Why did the prince believe his father when he said that the man he had met was not God?
3. What did the prince learn about his father?

Agree or disagree

1. The prince is a timid person who has no will power.
2. The prince's father is a selfish and authoritarian man who doesn't really love his son.
3. The magician is a cruel man who does not show any consideration for other people's feelings.

Activity 2, Handout 3, Analysis of the reading lesson

Stage	Steps	Objectives	Interaction Pattern
Pre-reading	• Teacher wrote 3 Qs on the Bb (and answered the 1st one herself.) • Ss worked and answered the questions in groups. • They shared some of their stories with the whole class. • Ss made predictions about story they were going to read from its title. • Then they answered two questions related to the title and the third related to the first sentence of the story. • Ss copied the words from the Bb, underlined those words which they didn't know. • In pairs they compared their notes and taught each other.	• to establish rapport with the class; • to raise interest in each other. • to prepare Ss for reading the story by raising their interest in it. • to introduce vocabulary with the help of peer teaching	T-C; S-Ss; S-C T-Ss; S-Ss; S-C Ss worked individually S1-S2, S3-S4, ….
While-reading	• Ss read the story to check their predictions. • Ss read the story again, this time more carefully, answered the Qs and discussed the statements. • Then they shared their ideas with the whole class. • Ss discussed the meaning of the words from the Word Splash. • Ss thought of their own questions, asked and answered them in their groups first and then did the same with the whole class.	• to practise reading for gist. • to practise reading for detailed information; to practise talking about the story • to infer the meaning of words from the given context. • to further practise talking about the story; to practise asking questions	Ss worked individually. Ss-Ss
Post-reading	Teacher asked three questions and Ss started thinking about their answers and making notes in class. At home Ss will use their notes to write a story.	• to prepare Ss for a personalized writing task	Students will work individually.

§34. Choosing and Applying appropriate reading materials in the classroom.

❖ **Read some characteristics of efficient reading**

EFFICIENT AND INEFFICIENT READING

	Efficient	*Inefficient*
1. Language	The language of the text is comprehensible to the learners.	The language of the text is too difficult.
2. Content	The content of the text is accessible to the learners; they know enough about it to be able to apply their own background knowledge.	The text is too difficult in the sense that the content is too far removed from the knowledge and experience
3. Speed	The reading progresses fairly fast: mainly because the reader has 'automatized' recognition of common combinations, and does not waste time working out each	The reading is slow: the reader does not have a large 'vocabulary' of automatically recognized items
4. Attention	The reader concentrates on the significant bits, and skims the rest; may even skip parts he or she	The reader pays the same amount of attention to all parts of the text.
5. Incomprehensible vocabulary	The reader takes incomprehensible vocabulary in his or her stride: guesses its meaning from the surrounding text, or ignores it and manages without; uses a dictionary only when these strategies are	The reader cannot tolerate incomprehensible vocabulary items: stops to look every one up in a dictionary, and/or feels discouraged from trying to
6. Prediction	The reader thinks ahead, hypothesizes, predicts.	The reader does not think ahead, deals with the text
7. Background information	The reader has and uses background information to help understand the text.	The reader does not have or use background information.
8. Motivation	The reader is motivated to read: by interesting content or a challenging task.	The reader has no particular interest in reading.
9. Purpose	The reader is aware of a clear purpose in reading: for example, to find out something, to get pleasure.	The reader has no clear purpose other than to obey the teacher's instruction.
10. Strategies	The reader uses different strategies for different kinds of reading.	The reader uses the same strategy for all texts.

Comments on the items in Box above.

1. and 2. The texts should be accessible: if learners cannot understand vital information without looking up words or being given extra information from elsewhere then the activity may improve their vocabulary and general knowledge, but will be less useful as an aid to improving their reading skills as such. Note that the appropriateness of language level depends to some extent on the task: quite a difficult text may provide useful reading for an intermediate class if the task demands understanding only of those parts that are readily comprehensible to them.

3. There is some controversy over whether you can in fact improve reading speed as such through training; and in any case different reading purposes demand different speeds. In my opinion, the most useful thing we can do as teachers is to provide our students with the opportunities to do as much (successful) reading as possible, including a varied diet of types of reading (fast, slow, skimming, scanning, studying). The aim is to encourage 'automatization' of recognition of common words or word-combinations, this being in general the crucial contributory factor to reading speed.

4. Scanning tasks (where the student is asked in advance to look out for a specific item of information while reading) are very useful for getting learners to read selectively. Careful selection of texts (see (1) above) is also important. Finally, this is a place where frank explanation of efficient reading strategy (for example, where the teacher 'legitimizes' skipping insignificant parts of a text for certain tasks) can help learners help themselves.

5. Again, tasks aimed at encouraging learners to guess or 'do without' words can help to habituate them to using these strategies. The dictionary is often over-used, resulting in slower, less fluent reading, as well as frequent misunderstanding through the selection of the wrong definition. Learners should, of course, know how to use the dictionary, but they should also learn when it is necessary and when an intelligent guess is preferable. On the whole, the dictionary is best used as a means to confirm or disprove a preliminary guess of their own, based on understanding of the context.

6. There are tasks which specifically encourage prediction, such as 'What do you think will happen next?' or 'What do you think the next few words will be?'

7. Tasks should encourage learners to apply their own background knowledge and experience to the reading of texts.

8. and 9. On the whole, it is best to give the task in advance, so that learners know what their purpose is in reading. The exception is the case of extensive reading (novels or stories, for example) when the reading material is motivating in itself

and a task may actually distract and spoil the reader's enjoyment.

10. We should make sure that our learners are provided with a variety of different kinds of reading tasks, and encourage them explicitly to use different strategies ('Just skim through this quickly and get the main idea'; 'You'll find you have to study this fairly carefully to grasp the author's prejudices; look for …').

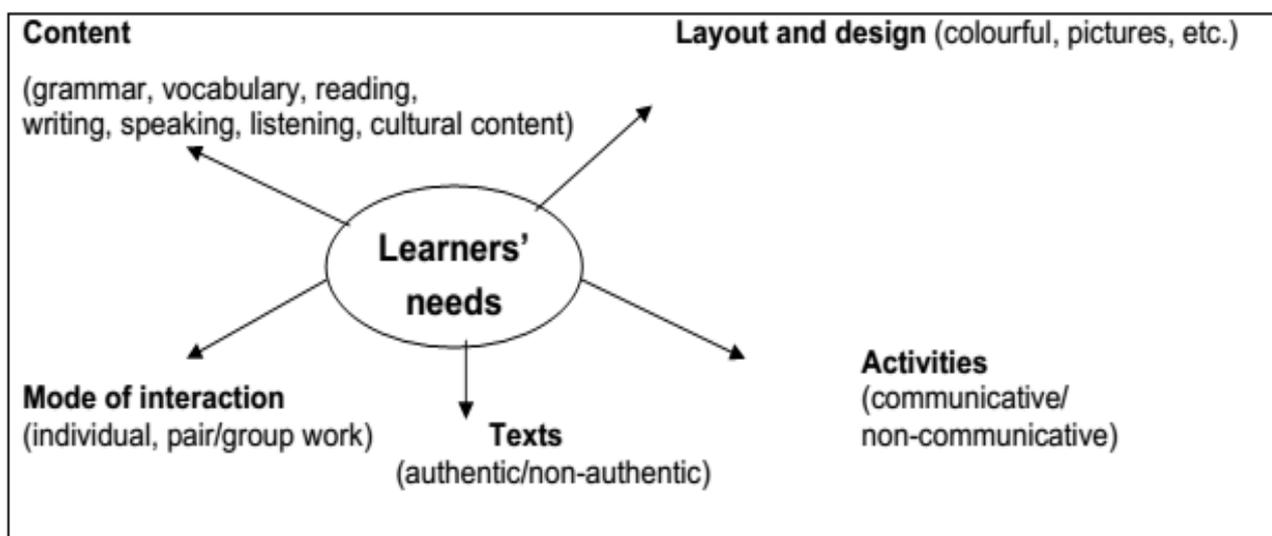**Task 2. Choose materials according your problem**

A

You teach a group of first year students of the Faculty of Economics at The National University of Uzbekistan. You have classes once a week for 2 hours – with 80 total contact hours over the year. You want to focus on a grammar point each lesson and to base your syllabus on a course book. Your students want to develop their grammar and vocabulary and their listening and reading skills. They are interested in reading extracts from English literature. You have done a survey and found out that most of your students are visual learners.

B

You are teaching at a private language school in the evenings. Most of your learners are adults who come to the class after their work. Most of them want to go abroad. They need to know how to survive there. They want to develop their speaking and writing skills in order to be able to communicate freely in a foreign country. In your group there are people of different learning styles. They do not like long instructions as they do not like reading very much.

The   criteria   for   choosing   materials.

Content
(grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, speaking, listening, cultural content)

Layout and design (colourful, pictures, etc.)

Learners' needs

Mode of interaction
(individual, pair/group work)

Texts
(authentic/non-authentic)

Activities
(communicative/non-communicative)

Task 3. Read the material and make comments

<u>Activity A.</u>

Reading principles

Principle 1: Encourage students to read as often and as much as possible.

The more students read, the better. Everything we do should encourage them to read extensively as well as - if not more than - intensively. It is a good idea to discuss this principle with students.

Principle 2: Students need to be engaged with what they are reading.

Outside normal lesson time, when students are reading extensively, they should be involved in joyful reading - that is, we should try to help them get as much pleasure from it as possible. But during lessons, too, we will do our best to ensure that they are engaged with the topic of a reading text and the activities they are asked to do while dealing with it.

Principle 3: Encourage students to respond to the content of a text (and explore their feelings about it), not just concentrate on its construction.

Of course, it is important for students to study reading texts in class in order to find out such things as the way they use language, the number of paragraphs they contain and how many times they use relative clauses. But the meaning, the message of the text, is just as important as this. As a result, we must give students a chance to respond to that message in some way. It is especially important that they should be allowed to show their feelings about the topic - thus provoking personal engagement with it and the language. With extensive reading this is even more important. Reading for pleasure is - and should be- different from reading for study.

Principle 4: Prediction is a major factor in reading.

When we read texts in our own language, we frequently have a good idea of the content before we actually start reading. Book covers give us a clue about what is in the book; photographs and headlines hint at what articles are about; we can identify reports as reports from their appearance before we read a single word. The moment we get these clues - the book cover, the headline, the web-page banner - our brain starts predicting what we are going to read. Expectations are set up and the active process of reading is ready to begin. In class, teachers should give students 'hints' so that they also have a chance to predict what is coming. In the case of extensive reading - when students are choosing what to read for pleasure - we should encourage them to look at covers and back cover copy to help them select what to read and then to help them 'get into' a book.

Principle 5: Match the task to the topic when using intensive reading texts.

Once a decision has been taken about what reading text the students are going to read (based on their level, the topic of the text and its linguistic and activation potential), we need to choose good reading tasks - the right kind of questions, appropriate activities before during and after reading, and useful study exploitation, etc.The most useful and interesting text can be undermined by boring and inappropriate tasks; the most commonplace passage can be made really exciting with imaginative and challenging activities, especially if the level of challenge (i.e. how easy it is for students to complete a task) is exactly right for the class.

Principle 6: Good teachers exploit reading texts to the full.

Any reading text is full of sentences, words, ideas, descriptions, etc. It doesn't make sense, in class, just to get students to read it and then drop it and move on to something else. Good teachers integrate the reading text into interesting lesson sequences, using the topic for discussion and further tasks, using the language for study and then activation (or, of course, activation and then study) and using a range of activities to bring the text to life. Where students have been doing extensive reading, we should use whatever opportunities present themselves to provoke useful feedback.

Activity B. Applying different kinds of reading text and several different kinds of reading task

Reading sequences

In the following three examples, we are going to look at three different kinds of reading text and several different kinds of reading task. As with all other skills work, it will be seen that reading often follows on from - or is followed by - work on other skills, such as speaking and writing.

Example 1: sunscreen (pre-intermediate)

In this example for pre-intermediate students, the students first look at a picture of people sunbathing and say whether it is a positive, safe and attractive image - or whether it is the opposite. They might discuss how people should protect themselves from the sun. The teacher then asks the students to read the text and identify where they think it comes from. They should do this fairly quickly.

When the class has agreed that the text is from a magazine for teenage girls (this is obvious, partly because of the format - photos combined with short texts - and also because of the language: 'and let's face it', 'gorgeous guys', 'babes', 'not only really cool'), the teacher asks them to read it again and put skin,

hair and eye colour in order of least vulnerable to the sun to most vulnerable. They can do this individually or in pairs.

The class can now study some of the language in the text - including 'SPF', physical descriptions ('freckles', 'fair hair', 'dark-skinned', etc) - and the teenage language mentioned above.

SAMPLE TEXT

There are any number of activation possibilities with this text: students can write descriptions of themselves for the same page in the magazine. They can decide which of the four people they would most like to meet and why. They can role-play an interview with the characters in the article, or they can prepare a short talk on how people should protect themselves against the sun, depending on skin type.

Many magazines have articles like this which we can bring into class. However, we will need to make sure that the language is not too complex for our students' levels, and we will need to think carefully about the kinds of tasks we ask students to do with them.

Handout 2 A Example 1: sunscreen (pre-intermediate)

POLLY GRIFFITHS GOES DOWN TO THE SEA FOR ADVICE ON HOW TO LOOK GOOD AND STAY SAFE.

So you think you're too pale and want to get a good suntan this summer? Why not? Except that unless you're careful the sun can make your skin old and leathery and can even give you skin cancer.

If you must sunbathe (and let's face it, lots of us think it's a good idea), then have a look at these gorgeous guys and babes I found on the beach and see which of them is like you.

ROGER

I'm the type who always burns. It's because I'm fair-skinned – and I've got red hair and freckles. That's why I'm so good-looking! But I still burn unless I use a really high SPF (sun protection factor) – about 20 in strong sun.

MIKE

Yeah I tan easily. People like me who are dark-skinned (with dark hair and brown eyes) are not only really cool but we go even browner in the sun. I still use sunscreen though, something light with an SPF of about 6 ...

MELINDA

I have to be careful 'cause I'm the type who burns easily. But I do tan in the end. If you've got fair hair and blue eyes like me you'd better use quite a strong sunscreen (an SPF of 15 to start with) ...

ALICE

Me, I've got built-in protection! I don't burn, but I don't sunbathe anyway. I mean what for? I like messing around on the beach though.

SO THE MESSAGE IS: CHECK OUT WHAT KIND OF SKIN YOU'VE GOT AND THEN BE SAFE AND SENSIBLE – AND HAVE A GOOD TIME! SEE YOU AT THE POOLSIDE BAR!

Example 2: campaigns (intermediate)

The following reading sequence is designed for teenage students. After doing comprehension work on the reading text, students are involved in a role-play which follows on from the reading they have done.

The sequence starts when students are asked to look quickly at the reading text and say where they think it comes from and what - at a first glance - they think it is likely to be about. They may do this in pairs, or in response to the teacher's prompting. This 'first glance' should both engage students and also allow them to start predicting what they are going to read. The teacher listens to their predictions but does not confirm or deny them at this stage.

B Example 2: campaigns (intermediate)

Youth Centre wins campaign

Johnny Chester being interviewed

The popular Grove Youth Centre, which is used by hundreds of young people, will be staying open. At the last minute, the Council changed its mind. They agreed to share the funding with local businesses and charities.

Last December, the Council made the decision to close the centre because there wasn't enough money to keep it open. But Whitfield School A-level student Johnny Chester didn't agree. 'I was really angry when I heard about the decision to close the centre,' he told Cardiff Times Online yesterday. 'Loads of people use the centre. It's safe and it doesn't cost anything to come here.'

Johnny started the **Save The Grove** campaign in January with a petition which now has over 5,000 signatures. He did interviews on local radio stations and wrote to politicians and businesses.

Mr Godfrey, a teacher at Whitfield School who has been helping with the campaign, said, 'Johnny decided to do something. He fought tooth and nail, and he has persuaded the Council to think twice. It will make a real difference to the lives of young people in this area. It's a great achievement.'

We asked Johnny for his reaction. 'Great news! Unbelievable! Lots of people have been involved in this campaign,' he explained. 'I'm just happy that we have won and the centre is going to survive. Young people like me will be using The Grove for many more years.'

Students are now asked to read the text fairly quickly in order to answer the following questions:

1 What's the important news?

2 Why did the council change its mind?

Once again, they can discuss their answers to these questions in pairs before the teacher solicits answers from the whole class.

The teacher can now ask students for their reactions to the story before getting them to do some study work. First of all, they are asked to match words (from the text) and meanings:

1. at the last moment	**a.** fight as hard as you can
2. funding	**b**. at the end of a period of time
3. fight tooth and nail	**c**. continue to exist
4. to persuade	**d.** your thoughts about an event
5. achievement	**e.** work out your opinion again
6. reaction	**f.** money for an event or place
7. survive something	**g**. to help someone decide to do
8. think twice successfully	**h**. a difficult thing that you do

When they have worked through this exercise successfully (and as a result cleared up doubts about the meaning of certain words), students are asked to read the text in detail again in order to correct sentences such as 'Most young people aren't interested in the youth centre', 'The council is going to pay all the money for The Grove', and 'Johnny ran the campaign alone'.

Finally, students are involved in an activation role-play (see page 125). They are told to work in groups of five in order to have a radio discussion. They are told that the council wants to close their school and open a new shopping centre. One student in each group is the radio presenter, two represent the council and two represent the school. Each student is given a role-card. For example, the presenter is told: 'Prepare your ideas with presenters from other groups. Plan what to say and how to control the discussion'. The presenter is also given some appropriate language such as 'Good evening and welcome to ...', 'I'd like to introduce ...', etc. The council representatives are told: 'Plan your ideas. Practise expressing your ideas and opinions politely', and they are given some language to help them do this.

The school representatives are told to think about why they want to keep the school open (and are given some useful language such as 'Our school is special because ...'). The groups now have their 'radio discussion'. While they are doing this, the

teacher can go round helping out with any difficulties. The groups can then report back on what they discussed.

This sequence will appeal to teenage students because of the topic and the fact that it is presented as a web page. The sequence demonstrates very clearly how work on one skill can lead naturally to work on another.

Example 3: webquest (intermediate to advanced)

The previous activity asked students to read a text (from a book) that pretended to be a snapshot of a web page. However, a lot of reading activities can use the Internet itself (where both teacher and students have easy access to it). One type of activity using the Internet is a webquest.

In a webquest, students visit various websites (pre-determined by the teacher) in order to find information to use in a class project. And because we have determined (in advance) the websites the students are going to visit, we can be confident that they will not spend endless hours in fruitless searching of the entire Internet. The quest is, as its name suggests, a search for information.

According to Gavin Dudeney and Nicky Hockly, webquests normally have four basic stages: the introduction stage(where the overall theme of the webquest is presented with appropriate background information. Sometimes key vocabulary is offered at this stage), the task section (in which the task is explained, and the students are engaged with it), the process stage(in which students are given web links to click on to get the information they need) and the evaluation stage(where students and teachers evaluate what they have learnt- and perhaps do some study work on language they have encountered and used during the quest). It can be seen, therefore, that much of the webquest procedure is concerned with activation.However, both at the introduction stage and the evaluation stage there may be many opportunities for language study.

In this webquest sequence about UFOs (unidentified flying objects), designed by JoAnn Miller, the process stage includes not only the quest itself, but also a role-play discussion based on what students have found.

The students are first given the introduction to the quest.

C Example 3: webquest (intermediate to advanced)

When they are clear about the information given here, they are told that the quest is to find out (a) if UFOs really exist, (b) whether people have really been abducted

by extraterrestrials and (c) whether there is life on other planets. For the task, students will be divided into groups, and each group will prepare a different aspect of the debate. The students are told that because the web pages they will be visiting are real, and not designed just for schools, they may find the reading level challenging. They are reassured that they are free to use an online dictionary or any paper dictionary that is available in the classroom.

Students now begin their quest with background web links for everyone: All the students have to do is click on the links, and they will be taken to the relevant website
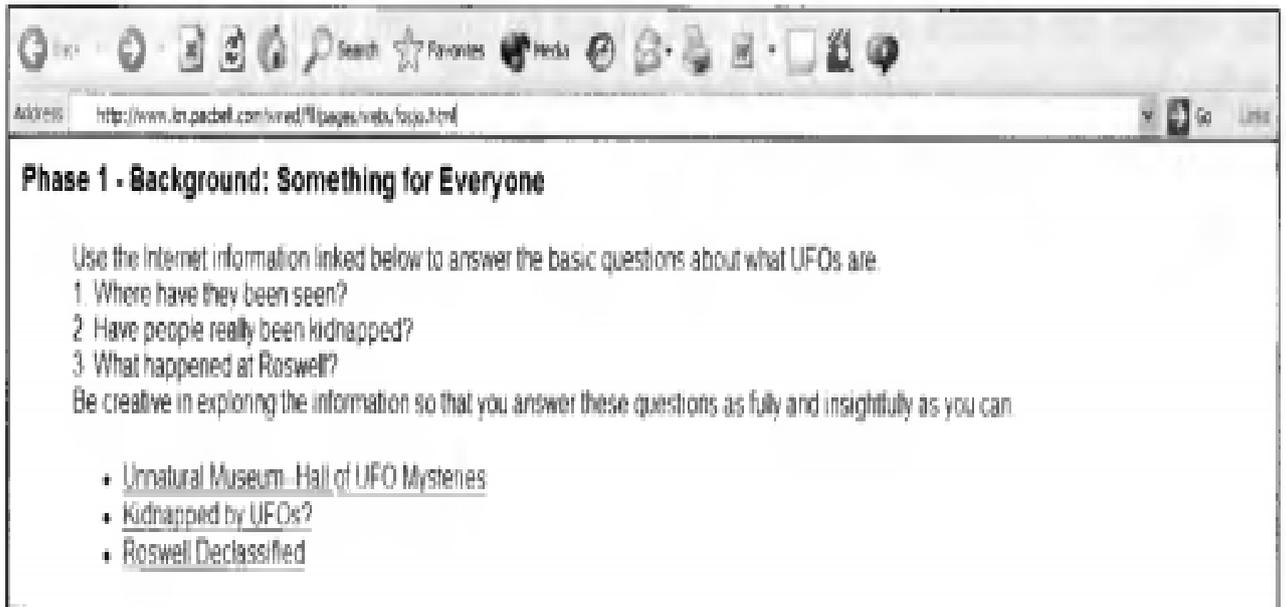
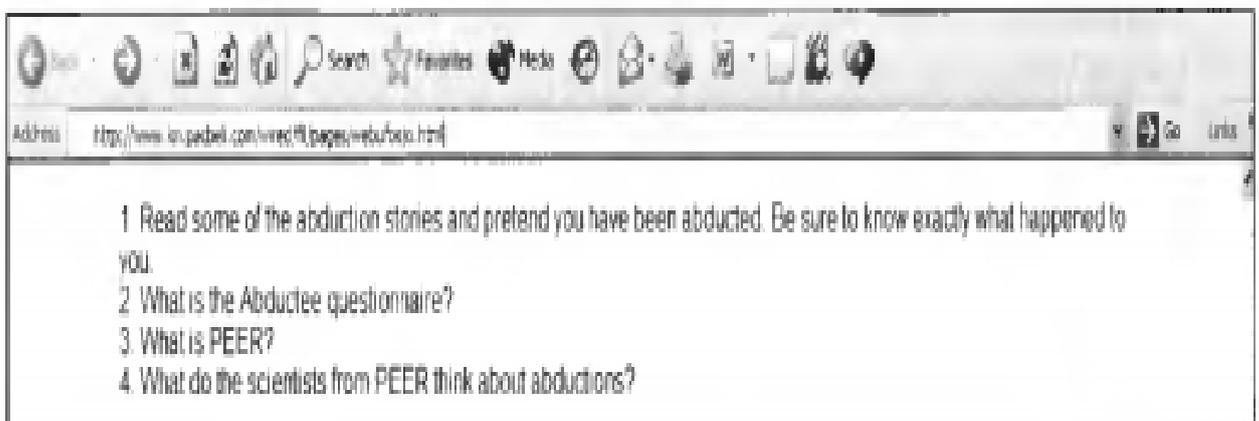**Phase 1 - Background: Something for Everyone**

Use the Internet information linked below to answer the basic questions about what UFOs are.
1. Where have they been seen?
2. Have people really been kidnapped?
3. What happened at Roswell?
Be creative in exploring the information so that you answer these questions as fully and insightfully as you can.

- Unnatural Museum-Hall of UFO Mysteries
- Kidnapped by UFOs?
- Roswell Declassified

Now, students divide into groups of (i) believers in UFOs, (ii) scientists who don't believe in UFOs, (iii) members of the SETI (search for extraterrestrial intelligence) project and (iv) people who've been abducted by aliens. Each group is provided with web links like the ones above, and has to answer certain questions. For example, the alien abductees have
the following tasks:

1. Read some of the abduction stories and pretend you have been abducted. Be sure to know exactly what happened to you.
2. What is the Abductee questionnaire?
3. What is PEER?
4. What do the scientists from PEER think about abductions?

When the students have visited their websites, collected their opinions (and downloaded any images they might need), the groups then debate the original questions (a-c above), using the arguments they found in their own quests.

Finally, in the evaluation phase, the whole class tries to come up with a statement about UFOs that they can agree with, and JoAnn Miller suggests that they post their opinions on a website which discusses the topic (this provides real-world interaction which should be highly motivating).

The UFO webquest obviously depends on the class having easy and instant access to computers. It also requires a certain level of English from the students. Furthermore, it takes a long time to complete (quite apart from whatever preparation time the webquest designer has to put into it). But if time is available, this kind of reading - with the teacher on hand to help if things are especially difficult for the students - is highly motivating and yields great results.

Hometask

. Case study. Choose some material and learn what activity can help to improve reading comprehension

Supplementary reading

More reading suggestions

Jigsaw reading: students read a short text which sets up a problem and then, in three groups, they read three different texts, all of which are about the same thing (different aspects of behaviour such as anger, or different reports on a problem, or different parts of a story or strange event). When they have read their texts, they come together in groups where each student has read a different text, and they try to work out the whole story, or describe the whole situation. JoAnn Miller's UFO webquest employs jigsaw reading on a large scale, but it is still a highly motivating technique, despite - or perhaps because of - the time it takes. Above all, this kind of jigsaw technique gives students a reason for reading - and then sharing what they have found out.

Reading puzzles: apart from jigsaw reading, there are many other kinds of puzzle which involve students in motivating reading tasks. For example, we can give them texts which have been chopped up so that each paragraph is on a different piece of paper. Students have to reassemble the text (see poetry below).We can give students a series of emails between two people which are out of sequence. The students have to work out the order of the emails. We can mix up two stories and students have to prise them apart.

Using newspapers: there is almost no limit to the kinds of activity which can be done with newspapers (or their online equivalents). We can do all kinds of matching exercises, such as ones where students have to match articles with their headlines or with relevant pictures. At higher levels, we can have students read three accounts of the same incident and ask them to find the differences between them. We can use newspaper articles as a stimulus for speaking or writing (students can write letters in reply to what they read).We can ask students to read small ads (advertisements) for holidays, partners, things for sale, etc, in order to make a choice about which holiday, person or thing they would choose. Later, they can use their choices to role-play descriptions, contact the service providers or say what happened when they made their choice.We can get students to read the letters page from a newspaper and try to imagine what the writers look like, and what kinds of lives they have. They can reply to the letters.

Following instructions: students read instructions for a simple operation (using a public phonebox, etc) and have to put the instructions in the correct order. They might also match instructions about, for example, unpacking a printer or inserting a new ink cartridge with the little pictures that normally accompany such instructions in manuals. We can also get students to read instructions in order to follow them.Recipes are a particular kind of instruction genre, but can be used in much the same way as the examples above - e.g. students read a recipe and match the instructions with pictures. We can then get them to cook the food!

Poetry: in groups, students are each given a line from a poem. They can't show the line to the other members of the group, though they can read it out loud. They have to reassemble the poem by putting the lines in order. A poem I have used like this with some success - at upper-intermediate levels - is 'Fire and Ice' by Robert Frost:

Some say the world will end in fire,
Some say in ice.
From what I've tasted of desire
I hold with those who favour fire.
But if it had to perish twice
I think I know enough of hate
To know that for destruction ice
Is also great
And would suffice.

We can get students to read different poems and then, without actually showing their poem to anyone else, they have to go round the class finding

similarities and differences between their poem and other people's.Another way of using poems with the whole class is to show the students a

poem line by line (on an overhead projector or a computer screen) with words blanked out. The first time they see these blanks, they have to make a wild guess at what the words could be. When they see the lines for the second time, the first letter is included. When they see the poem for the third time, the first two letters are included, and so on. This is a great activity for getting students to really search in their minds for contextualised lexis.

Play extracts: students read an extract from a play or film and, after ensuring that they understand it and analysing its construction, they have to work on acting it out. This means thinking about how lines are said, concentrating on stress, intonation, speed, etc.

We can use many different text genres for this kind of activity since reading aloud - a speaking skill - is only successful when students have really studied a text, worked out what it means, and thought about how to make sense of it when it is spoken.

Predicting from words and pictures: students are given a number of words from a text. Working in groups, they have to predict what kind of a text they are going to read - or what story the text tells. They then read the text to see if their original predictions were correct. We don't have to give them individual words, of course.We can give them whole phrases and get them to try to make a story using them.

For example, the phrases 'knock on the door', 'Go away!', 'They find a man the next morning', 'He is dead', 'James is in the lighthouse' will help students to predict (perhaps wrongly, of course!) some kind of story about a lighthouse keeper, some sort of threat and a dead person. (They then read a ghost story with these phrases in it.)We can also give students pictures to predict from, or slightly bigger fragments

from the text.

Different responses: there are many things students can do with a reading text apart from answering comprehension questions with sentences, saying whether something is true or false or finding particular words in the text. For example, when a text is full of facts and figures, we can get students to put the information into graphs, tables or diagrams. We can also ask them to describe the people in the text (where no physical description is given). This will encourage them to visualise what they are reading. We can let students read stories, but leave off the ending for them to guess.

Alternatively, they can read stories in stages, stopping every now and then to predict what will happen next. At higher levels, we can get students to infer the

writer's attitude from a text.We can also get the students involved in genre analysis - where they look at the construction of a number of different examples of, say, magazine advertisements in order to work out how they are typically constructed.

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§35.Role of authenticity. The significance of the materials taken from authentic sources in teaching reading

What are authentic materials?

Authentic materials are language materials that were originally designed to be used by first language speakers and were not intended for use by language learners (Nunan & Miller, 1995). Authentic materials are everyday materials 'that have been produced to fulfill some social purpose in the language community.' (Peacock, 1997) but can be used in language teaching or learning. The following materials can be classified as authentic materials:

Maps	Blogs
Transport schedules	Wikis
Telephone directories	Messages
Menus	Newspapers
Comics and cartoons	Magazines
Advertisements	Communication (cards, letters, etc.)
Brochures	Music
Recipes	Music videos
Pamphlets	Film
Product labels and packaging	Radio broadcasts
Receipts	Television
Shopping lists	programmes
Signs	

TASK 1. READ AND GIVE YOUR COMMENTS. Why should I use authentic materials in language teaching?

Why should I use authentic materials in language teaching?

There are a number of advantages for using authentic materials in the language classroom. Learners are exposed to 'real' language in context, which helps learners to develop a broader language base. According to Widdowson (1990:67), 'it has been traditionally supposed that the language presented to learners should be simplified in some way for easy access and acquisition. Nowadays there are recommendations that the language presented should be authentic.' Exposure to authentic materials helps language learners to keep informed about what is happening in the world. These materials also help learners to understand that there is a community of language users who use the language outside of the classroom; which promotes language learning and helps to introduce the learners to the target culture.

Authentic materials are different to the usual formal learning materials in that they may be more relevant, visually stimulating and target different learning styles. As a result these materials can make lessons more interesting, motivating and memorable for learners.

Authentic materials can be used to develop a range of language skills and strategies, including vocabulary and grammar, speaking, reading, writing, listening and critical thinking skills.

One of the greatest advantages of authentic materials is that they are relatively inexpensive and readily available.

Important factors to consider when selecting authentic materials

Berado (2006: 63) identifies some factors that should be considered when sourcing and selecting authentic materials for use in the language classroom:

1. Suitability of content
   Will the material be of interest to the learners?
   Is it relevant to the learners' needs?
   Does it represent material the learners will come across outside of the classroom?
2. Exploitability
   Can the material be exploited for teaching purposes?
   For what purpose should the material be exploited?
   What skills or strategies can be developed by exploiting the material?
3. Suitability of Language
   Is the material too easy/difficult for the learners?

Is it structurally too demanding/complex?

How much new vocabulary/grammar does it contain? Is it relevant?

4. Presentation

Does it look authentic?

Is it visually appealing?

Will it grab the learners' attention?

Possible criteria for the selection of authentic texts

1. Relevance (to syllabus, to learners' needs).
2. Interesting topics which will encourage learners to respond.
3. Cultural appropriateness (e.g. absence of any phrases or pictures that can be offensive, also whether the text is culturally accessible)
4. The level of difficulty of the language in relation to the ability of the target group.
5. Cognitive demands (familiarity with the subject matter, key concepts).
6. Length

• Authentic texts have an important place in the teaching of English as supplements to the language often found in course books

• They confront learners with real language used for real purposes

• Tasks should as far as possible be authentic too – they should replicate real processes used by readers/ listeners when they deal with texts

Hometask

Select an authentic text and make a lesson plan for it using following web sites

- http://www.lmp.ucla.edu/lessons.aspx?menu=003
- http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/language-assistant/teaching-tips/using-cartoons-comic-strips
- http://www.onestopenglish.com/support/methodology/teaching-materials/teaching-materials-using-literature-in-the-efl/-esl-classroom/146508.article
- http://www3.telus.net/linguisticsissues/authenticmaterials.html
- http://oelp.uoregon.edu/teach_authentic.html

§36. Critical reading as a basis for successful writing

What is critical reading

Critical reading is an important precursor to critical writing. This Study Guide explains why critical reading is important, and gives some ideas about how you might become a more critical reader. Other Study Guides you may find useful are **What is critical writing?** **Using paragraphs** and **The art of editing**.

What is critical reading?

The most characteristic features of critical reading are that you will:
- examine the evidence or arguments presented;
- check out any influences on the evidence or arguments;
- check out the limitations of study design or focus;
- examine the interpretations made; and
- decide to what extent you are prepared to accept the authors' arguments, opinions, or conclusions.

Why do we need to take a critical approach to reading?

Regardless of how objective, technical, or scientific the subject matter, the author(s) will have made many decisions during the research and writing process, and each of these decisions is a potential topic for examination and debate, rather than for blind acceptance.

You need to be prepared to step into the academic debate and to make your own evaluation of how much you are willing to accept what you read.

A practical starting point therefore, is to consider anything you read not as fact, but as the argument of the writer. Taking this starting point you will be ready to engage in critical reading.

Critical reading does not have to be all negative

The aim of critical reading is not to find fault, but to assess the strength of the evidence and the argument. It is just as useful to conclude that a study, or an article, presents very strong evidence and a well-reasoned argument, as it is to identify the studies or articles that are weak.

Evidence

Depending on the kind of writing it is, and the discipline in which it sits, different kinds of evidence will be presented for you to examine.

At the technical and scientific end of the spectrum, relevant evidence may include information on: measurements, timing, equipment, control of extraneous factors, and careful following of standard procedures. Specific guidance will be available within specialties on what to look for.

At the other end of the spectrum is writing where there is clearer scope for personal interpretation, for example:

- analysis of individuals' experiences of healthcare;
- the translation of a text from a foreign language; or
- the identification and analysis of a range of themes in a novel.

In these cases the evidence may include items such as quotes from interviews, extracts of text, and diagrams showing how themes might connect.

The nature of the evidence presented at these two extremes is different, but in both cases you need to look for the rationale for the selection and interpretation of the evidence presented, and the rationale for the construction of the argument.

Broadening the definition of evidence

This Study Guide takes a broad view of evidence: it maintains that all that you read can be considered as evidence, not purely the actual data collected/presented. This encompasses:

- the report of the context within which the data were collected or created;
- the choice of the method for data collection or selection;
- the audit trail for the analysis of the data i.e.: the decisions made and the steps in the analysis process;
- the rationale for the interpretations made and the conclusions drawn;
- the relevance of, and the use made of the theoretical perspective, ideology, or philosophy that is underpinning the argument.

Linking evidence to argument

On its own, evidence cannot contribute to academic debate. The interpretation and presentation of that evidence within an argument allows the evidence to make a contribution.

The term 'argument' in this context means the carefully constructed rationale for the enquiry, and for the place of its results within the academic arena. It will explain for example:

- why the authors considered that what they did was worth doing;
- why it was worth doing in that particular way;
- why the data collected, or the material selected, were the most appropriate;
- how the conclusions drawn link to the wider context of their enquiry.

Even in the most technical and scientific disciplines, the presentation of argument will always involve elements that can be examined and questioned. For example, you could ask:

- Why did the writer select that particular topic of enquiry in the first place?
- Why did the writer decide to use that particular methodology, choose that specific method, and conduct the work in that way?

- Why did the writer select that particular process of analysis?

Note taking

As you read, it can be helpful to use a table to record the information that you know you will need later. In addition to the usual bibliographical details, you can devise your own list of extra information you want to collect at the initial reading stage. Some suggestions are given below.

Two important points about using such tables are:

- it is essential that you devise your own list of information to collect from each source, based on what you know you will need to comment upon; and
- realistically, it is probably best not to try to collect this information from every single source you use, only from those you decide to refer to in your report or assignment. Otherwise it could really slow down your background reading, and result in the collection of a mass of material that you never use.

Descriptive details you may want to record about sources

Setting	Type of data
Sample size	Use of theory
Sample profile	Equipment
Follow up	Style of writing
Statistics used	Measurements
Methods	Sources of bias
Questions raised	Limitations
Main arguments	Intended audience

Some interpretative questions you may need to ask about sources

These are questions that need more input from you as the critical reader. You will need to make judgements about your answers, and will need to record the reasons for your answers. This list is a mix of arts and science-based questions, as there are several areas of common interest.

- How well-developed are the themes or arguments?
- Did the theoretical perspective used introduce any potential bias?
- Are you convinced by the interpretations presented?
- Are the conclusions supported firmly by the preceding argument?
- How appropriate are the comparisons that are used?

- Did the response options, or measurement categories or techniques used affect the data that were collected?
- Have any ethical considerations been adequately addressed?

If you take a critical approach right from the start of your reading and note taking, it can save a lot of time later on. When you come to write your assignment or thesis, you will need to comment on the validity of the writing that you refer to. So, if you have kept a systematic record of the results of your critical reading, you will be able to refer to it easily. If you have not, you will find yourself wasting a lot of time re-reading material, and re-reviewing the evidence presented.

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Suggested web sites:

1. www.teachingenglish.org.uk

2. www.online-literature.com
3. www.literature.org/
4. www.pearsonlongman.com/ae/
5. www.developreading.com
6. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Book_Encyclopedia
7. http://www3.telus.net/linguisticsissues/authenticmaterials.html
8. http://oelp.uoregon.edu/teach_authentic.html
9. http://academicguides.waldenu.edu/ASCsuccess/ASCcriticalreading
10. https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/criteria-identifying-tasks-tbl
11. http://www.eslkidstuff.com/blog/classroom-management/6-different-types-of-esl-learners-and-how-to-teach-them#sthash.6ag9Hz8g.dpuf