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CLASSROOM LANGUAGE

NUKUS – 2021

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

AJINIYOZ NOMIDAGI NUKUS DAVLAT PEDAGOGIKA INSTITUTI

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Auditoriyada o'qituvchi nutqi

*Ingliz tili va adabiyoti
yo'nalishi talabalari uchun*

NUKUS – 2021

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Bul oqıw qollanba 5111400 – Inglis tili ha'm a'debiyati bakalavr bag'darı oqıw rejesindegi «Shet tillerin oqitiwdin' integrallasqan kursi» páni 4-moduli (Oqitiwshinin' so'ylew ma'deniyati) oqıw dástúri tiykarında tayarlang'an bolıp, onda pánniń maqset hám wazıypası, talabalardin' auditoriyada uyrenilip atirg'an shet tilinen tiykarg'i qarım-qatnas qurali sipatinda natiyjeli qollaniwg'a erisiwin ta'miyinlew usillari, shet tili oqitiwshisina ta'n til ko'nlikpelerin a'meliy qollaniw sheberligi, sabaqti basqariw ha'm shet tilinde alip bariw usullari haqqinda mag'lıwmatlar berilgen. Oqıw qollanba "Inglis tili ha'm a'debiyati" bakalavr tálim bag'darı oqitiwshilari, talabaları, magistrantlar, ulıwma bilim beriw mektepleri inglis tili páni oqıtıwshıları ushın arnalg'an.

Ushbu o'quv qo'llanma 5111400 – Ingliz tili va adabiyoti tálim yo'nalishi o'quv rejasidagi «Chet tillarini o'qitishning integrallashgan kursi» fani 4-moduli (Auditoriyada o'qituvchi nutqi) o'quv dasturi asosida tayyorlangan bo'lib, unda fanning maqsad va vazifasi, talabalarning auditoriyada o'rganilayotgan   chet tilidan asosiy aloqa vositasi sifatida samarali foydalanishga erishishlarini ta'minlash usullari, chet tili o'qituvchisiga hos til ko'nikmalarini amaliy tarzda qo'llash maxorati, darsni boshqarish va chet tilida dars olib borish usullarini o'rgatishishlariga oid ma'lumotlar berilgan. O'quv qo'llanma "Ingliz tili va adabiyoti" bakalavr yo'nalishi o'qituvchilari, talabalari, magistrantlar, umumta'lim maktablari ingliz tili fani o'qituvchilari ushun mo'ljallangan.

Данное учебное пособие предназначено для студентов бакалавриата по направлению 5111400 - «Английский язык и литература» и основано на учебной программе по предмету «Интегрированный курс обучения иностранным языкам» (Модуль 4 - «Культура речи учителя»), которое включает в себе цель и задачи предмета, основные понятия культуры речи учителя, эффективные приемы овладения навыками бытового и делового общения, особенностями звучащей речи, невербальными средствами общения и правилами речевого этикета. Пособие адресовано преподавателям, магистрантам и студентам по направлению «Английский язык и литература», а также учителям английского языка общеобразовательных школ.

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MUQADDIMA

"Auditoriyada o'qituvchi nutqi" fanining maqsadi talabalarning auditoriyada o'rganilayotgan chet tilidan samarali foydalanishga erishishlarini ta'minlashdir.

Fan materiallarini o'zlashtirganidan so'ng talaba:

- chet tili o'qituvchisiga hos til ko'nikmalarini amaliy tarzda qo'llash;
- chet tilida ko'rsatmalar berish, ma'lumot olish va darsni boshqarish;
- dars jarayonida ona tilidan foydalanish o'rinlari;
- chet tilida dars olib borishning zarur ijtimoiy, shaxsiy va tashkiliy masalalari;
- auditoriyada harakatlanish, mos ovoz va ohangda gaplashish;
- chet tilida dars olib borish namunalarini tanqidiy nuqtai nazar bilan tahlil qilish malaka va ko'nikmalarini egallaydi.

Modul mazmuni:

1. O'qituvchining auditoriyaga mos jismoniy holati:
   - ✓ xatti-harakatlar;
   - ✓ ovoz;
   - ✓ ohang.

2. Auditoriyada chet tilini qo'llash:
   - ✓ chet tili muhitini yaratish;
   - ✓ auditoriyada qo'llaniladigan til;
   - ✓ savollar berish;
   - ✓ ko'rsatmalar berish;
   - ✓ og'zaki izoh berish;
   - ✓ ona tilidan foydalanish.

PREFACE

The course "Classroom Language" will be held as practical classes in small groups over Year 3, Semester 6.

The aim of the course is 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:

1. Introduction to and overview of the course
2. Teacher's physical presence in class:
   - ✓ *Body language*
   - ✓ *Voice*
3. Classroom Language:
   - ✓ *Creating an English environment*
   - ✓ *The language of the classroom*
   - ✓ *Questioning*
   - ✓ *Giving instructions*
   - ✓ *Giving oral feedback*
   - ✓ *The use of the mother tongue*

Learning outcomes:

By the end of Year 3 students should have:
- ✓ a practical understanding of the importance of social, personal and organisational 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 analyse different samples of classroom language.

THEME 1.

THE USE OF BODY LANGUAGE IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

1.1 The necessity and importance of body language in English teaching

1.2 The use of body language in ELT

Key words: body language, verbal and non-verbal communication, gestures, facial expressions, mimes and etc.

1.1 The necessity and importance of body language in English teaching

Body language is an important medium in people's communication. It includes gestures and facial expressions. As we know, language is important in communication, but nonverbal communication also can't be neglected. American psychologist Albert said, people get 55% information from expressions.

In classroom teaching, nonverbal communication is more important than verbal one. When teaching, teachers will try their best to arouse the student's interest of learning English. Body language as a secondary means of teaching English is vivid, it can warm up the class atmosphere, help students to understand the point, shorten the distance between teacher and students, stir interest of learning English, improving the quality of education.

So, in teaching, teachers should learn and work hard to master the means of communication in the application of classroom, servicing teaching.

Body language is a silent and true language, which can express a person's inner world, it always catches one's eye mostly in non-communicative. As a non-communicative, body language is the support and supplement of teaching, and occupies an important position in teaching. A qualified teacher needs not only profound knowledge and good eloquence, but also dignified and harmonized body language. Just like the educationist Makarenko (1998) said: "If a teacher is no expressions and not good at express to people, it's not a qualified teacher." (p. 52)

The Importance of Body Language

If a teacher can be just right of using body language in classroom teaching, it's every look, every smiles, every action will have a strong psychological effect on students. At this time, silence is the best words. Therefore, the body language takes an important place that oral language can't replace.

1. To enhance the educational influence

Teaching by example is better than word. Teaching by example of teacher is reflected in many ways, and body language is a part of teaching by example (Brown, p. 367). On the communication between teachers and students, all of the attitudes, feelings and self-cultivation are displayed through the instrument, facial expression, gestures, glances and even clothing, hairstyle have far-reaching implications on students.

The appearance is the first impression of teachers to students and students' preferences of a subject always begin with the goodwill, admiration of teachers. It will give students a good impression and add the charm of education, if teachers are well groomed, smartly dressed, generous and conversely, if teachers have fluffy and

messy hair, wear slovenly and untidy clothes, or indulge in dress up, fancy dress, it will give students an irresponsible, hot-tempered, half-hearted impression, and may lead the students in private discussions, divert the students' attention, affect classroom teaching. The teachers' appearance should be neither dressed up, not old fashioned. It not only maintains modesty, but also follows time fashioned and personal style. The appearance should be just with the demeanor and temperament of teachers, set a good educational style to students. This is a more conducive atmosphere for study, which will make students more relaxed, enjoyable to learning.

2. To improve the effects of sound language

In English teaching, teachers transmit information mainly rely on oral language, but using body language to attract students' attention is more lively, exact and effective. Body language is also indispensable when communicating. On the one hand, body language can transmit information directly. In classroom, teachers can convey the sure or unsure information with eyesight and expression. Sometimes, an encouraging eye, a meaning smile, or a scornful expression, will influence students. And when the oral language is not the same as the body language, students always believe what they see. On the other hand, it's the most delicate interpret of oral language and students can find teachers' feeling attitude and illocutionary from body language. On teaching, teachers' change of expression has important influence on students' mood of learning, students don't like the teachers, who are straight, clod and serious. So, teacher should use body language to coordinate with oral language reasonable when teaching.

3. To strengthen the role of information

As one knows, the communication of people is through language and nonverbal language to express. And nonverbal language (body language) as an information carrier, takes an important role that other carrier can't be replaced. American phycologist Meilalissi (1999) thinks: The effect of acceptance of information is the sum of 7% words, 38% tone and 55% facial expression. So we can see that the body language is important on teaching (p. 178).

The Necessity of Body Language

Teacher impacts student not only on teaching content, but also on the thinking style. If a teacher is preciseness, the students will feel the class boring, and have no passion to learn. On the other hand, the teacher with passion, the students will be full of vigor, and the teaching will become interesting and proceed smoothly.

1. To arouse the atmosphere of classroom

It'll make a comfortable and loose class atmosphere to students, if a teacher has good appearance; generous gesture; and reasonable eyes. This also can be a good foundation of a lesson. For example, when I teach the sentence "what's this / what are these?" I can take one pen and three books to ask them. Using body language I can convey information more directly. And through the practice, students can understand how to use the sentence and distinguish singular from plural form. Using this method, practicing again and again, all of the students' attention can be attracted, and most of the students can grasp the knowledge.

On teaching, whether we always use body language flexible and skillfully depend on the needs of students. At this time, students' attention is obviously focused, the consciousness of practice in classroom activities is enhanced, the interest, feeling and will of students are stimulated, then the effect of teaching can be improved.

2. To inspire students' imagination

Body language has strong defining and performance, it can make the language visualize and materialize. Teachers' body language can create an imagine space to student when it shows vivid and interest. When we teach students we always use body language to inspire students. We do some action, and let students guess, and then ask students to use their imagination to make a dialogue of what we did. This method can not only make students grasp the knowledge, but also improve their imagination.

After students answer the questions, we usually use eyes, expression to repeat students. A kind of look, a courage word, a sure gesture can stir students' positive feeling, produce interest and responsibility of study. On the contrary, it'll take despair, depress, or even terrified feeling to students. So, in classroom, we should use body language appropriately, and use positively, encouragement methods to arouse the learning interest of the students.

3. To grasp the students' mood

The famous educator Johann Helnrich Pestalozzi (2000) said "Any good-education is required to be like parents' eyes, which can very accurately see a child's psychological state and various change from his eyes, small mouth and cheeks every day, even every moment" (p. 45).

In classroom, the exchange feeling between teachers and students can narrow the gap of them and make the relation more harmonious. It'll help to create a good learning environment, and improve the learning effect. The use of body language is a good way to improve the relationship of teachers and students.

In teaching, we should make the body language yield well, and arouse the curiosity of students, in order to create a good and harmonious classroom atmosphere, grasp the knowledge efficiently and qualitatively, improve the teaching quality effectively.

1.2 The use of body language in ELT

The use of body language is the need of English teaching goal. The use of body language can arouse students' interest of learning, and keep the curiosity. Body language can help students do some things or actions in accordance with teachers' commands. The use of body language can enhance the learning effect.

The Skill of Use Body Language in English Teaching

The use of body language is not only to embody the new curriculum, but also the need of the goal of English teaching. Teachers' body language can explore students' intellects, develop the potential of right brain. It has alternative function, accessibility function, feedback function. In classroom, teacher's body language mainly includes: eyes, physical, appearance, gesture, body language, and distance. Different classroom needs different body language (Zhang, 2005, p. 298).

1. The use of eyes

Eyes are an important part on our faces. There is an old saying, "eyes are windows of the soul." Eye contact plays an important role in the communication between teachers and students. A good teacher always knows how to use eye contact. Teachers often have a face to face communication with students, so eye contract can be described in the following kinds: survey, focus.

Survey is to look around students regularly. In teaching, teacher can remind students to listen to the teacher careful relying on survey. After asking the question, the survey of teacher can find the student who wants to answer, and remind the students who don't think about.

Focus is to use eyes staring at a student for a long time. Focus includes serious one. Instruction watch can make a congenial learning atmosphere. And the close watch is the most important focus. When students feel nervous, teacher's smiling eyes will let students relax.

2. The use of smile

A smile gives positive feedback and impacts the affective domain by communicating pleasure, trust, friendliness, interest, excitement, or surprise. A frown communicates displeasure, disapproval, and anger, a deadpan expression communicates distrust, low energy, and disinterest.

Smile is the most frequent using in teaching, "teacher's smile can conquest students' mind." Smile can not only build the interaction between teacher and student, create a harmonious classroom atmosphere, but also convey the feeling what can't express by word, let students feel the teacher's love.

In school English teaching, the use of smile is particularly important. As most of pupils, study is difficult and boring, and their English knowledge of is limited. So they usually feel anxious, nervous. Teacher's natural smile in the classroom can ease the students' pressure on learning English, and help students to create hopeful and optimistic mind.

3. The use of gesture

Gesture is a very complex kind of body language, which is the most useful tool for communication before people create and use spoken language.

Usually, people use hand contact or hand movements to interpret each other's mental activity or state of mind, and express our intent by hand.

In English classroom, we usually use English to teach, but pupils' knowledge and teachers' oral English limit the teachers' expression. In classroom, teacher can use gesture to express the meaning of words, concisely and comprehensively, and visually. For example, when we teach pronoun: I, you, he, she, we, teacher can point to himself says I, point to a girl says she … students can understand easily. Through gesture, students feel interesting, and the teaching effect will good.

The Interaction of Body Language between Teachers and Students

The performance of body language is to help to release of the student's emotion. Using body language can help them reduce the anxiety and pressure of expressing in English, and gain confidence and achievement. Body language is an effective teaching method to help students to perceive key points, participate in

classroom and cooperate with other students when study. Body language can also play the role of evaluation in learning, it's a formative evaluation. The attention of teacher will encourage students to think, and answer the question leisurely. If the teacher gives a smile to the students after he finishes the question, the dullest students can understand the commendations and rewards. Students' learning motivation and self-confidence will grow unconsciously. In short, the interpretation of body language can be a good basic idea of English language classes.

1. The sound development of body language

Good interaction between teachers and students can build a good relationship. When teacher find there're crack in the teacher-student relationship, they'll try their best to communicate with students, under the specific circumstances of each students, using different helps. At the same time, they reflect on their own teaching process and teaching effectiveness, continue to enhance and improve their teaching skills.

Body language is the bridge of teacher-student communication. It's not only important method of teacher's feedback, but also the way of students to know teacher. Teachers being aware of using body language to transmit information indirectly, can help them have the initiative of teaching, in order to achieve the effect not only by oral language.

2. The improper use of body language

Body language can promote the sound development of teacher-student interaction. But, body language is also a double- edged sword. If teachers use body language improperly, body language will give a negative impact on students. On the one hand, it can range from destruction of classroom atmosphere. And transferring knowledge can not be correctly. On the other hand, it will damage the professional image of teachers and mislead the behavior of students. To be worse, it will result in harm to students in Psychology and personality. Those are adverse consequences. Moreover, violent body language will greatly stimulate students' psychology to revolt and lead to more serious consequences.

The Principle of Teachers' Body Language

Because body language is very important, we advocate teacher, especially, teachers use body language to regulate the classroom atmosphere, improve the teacher-student relationship, and raise teaching effect. But we should pay attention to the principle when use body language.

1. To be appropriate.

Although, body language can replace the words, our students are not deaf ones. In English class, we should use English to teach as possible as we can, and encourage students to say, use body language to help communicate at proper time.

2. To be natural

Students always imitate teachers' every movement. If teacher's body language is unnatural, it'll impact on the teacher's image, make students difficult to be friend with her/ him. In teaching, we not only need the natural body language, but also need the natural opportunity. We should use body language when we can't express with

words. At this time, the natural use of body language plays the effect of silence or silent speaking. So, teacher's body language should be natural and harmonious.

3. To be clear

What the teachers say and do will have a profound impact on the lives of your students, so the use of body language should be clear. Teacher should also pay attention to the consistency when using body language. Otherwise, the communication between teacher's and students will confuse, and it's difficult for students to learn.

To conclude, body language as a supplementary method of teaching English is vivid. It can help students to understand, enliven the classroom atmosphere, and improve the students' interest of learning English and the quality of classroom teaching. In teaching, if teacher can use the body language correctly, properly and naturally, it'll help to exploit the complex thinking of students. Furthermore, body language teaching can help students to know the background of learning English, make students know the atmosphere of English, and understand English will have different meanings when we use different gestures and expressions. The body language can also help teachers to get students ready for class, make the emotion of students active, enliven the classroom atmosphere, and strengthen teaching effects.

In a word, in English teaching, non-communication tools cannot be ignored. Teachers should pay attention to the using of body language in classroom teaching. We should stand out the importance of body language, use body language to help teach. As to increase the feeling of teaching points, improve the teaching effect, use body language to service English teaching.

We should advocate using body language in English teaching, but teachers should pay attention to the use rule and using skills. The usage of body language should be right, natural and clear.

Practice Tasks

Task 1. Answer the questions:
   a) What is body language?
   b) Why is it important to use body language in the classroom?
   c) What are the types of body language?
   d) How do you read someone's body language?
   e) Which is the most useful tool for communication?
   f) Name the principles of teachers' body language?

Task 2. In pairs, look at the drawings and try to match the body language with the feelings

A. saying something important
B. feeling attracted
C. feeling defensive
D. feeling nervous.

E. feeling superior
F. being honest
G. lying
H. thinking hard

Task 3. Match the gestures.

Body language & gestures

making a wish

point

leaning

folding your arms

scratching your head

blink

OK

be quiet

making eye contact

peace

stare

shrug

shaking your fist

13_____

12_____

11_____

10_____

9 _____

8 _____

7 _____

1 _____

2 _____
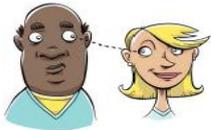
3 _____

4 _____

5 _____

6 _____

Task 3. Circle the correct answer.
  a) My boyfriend *eats / bites* his nails when he's nervous.
  b) You must be tired because you can't stop *scratching / yawning*.
  c) John entered the room and *shook / winked* hands with the interviewer.
  d) She *waved / frowned* at me from the other side of the street to get my attention.
  e) Jessie *clapped / combed* her hair and put on her jacket to go out.
  f) Andrew *shrugged / folded* his shoulders when he didn't know the answer to the question.
  g) When you have a cold you spend most of your time *blowing / chewing* the nose.
  h) I hate it when people *stare / raise* at me when I am on a bus or underground.

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THEME 2.
TEACHERS' VOICE AND BUILDING A RAPPORT IN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

2.1 Teacher's voice

2.2 Rapport building

Key words: classroom environment, behavior, teacher's voice, posture, rapport building, right balance and etc.

2.1 Teacher's voice

The teacher's voice is a powerful instrument. It sets the tone and environment for the entire classroom in terms of engagement, behavior, and rapport with students. There are some valuable insights from teachers who have experimented with how their tone of voice affects the functionality of their classrooms. Here are top three teacher tone takeaways:

1.   Find the right balance between stern and sugary. Though the job can be stressful at times, teachers should be careful not to sound angry or exasperated… but at the same time, teachers should avoid using a "sugary-sweet" tone. Especially in early grades, it's important to send the message to the students that they are not

babies, so teachers will not "baby" them. Speaking to them with a direct and sincere tone of voice will help them build trust and meet teachers' expectations.

2.   Use whispering in your behavior management. Whispering is a smart way to quickly de-escalate an unsavory behavior scenario. It forces the student to quiet down in order to hear what teacchers are saying. Instead of embarrassing a student by yelling or correcting behavior in front of the whole class, show respect by whispering a firm reminder. This gives the student the chance to get back on track without peer influence or disruptive confrontation.

3.   Incorporate some theatrics into your lessons. Teachers must be cautious not to speak in a tone that's too flat. Teachers don't want the students to be bored! Vary your inflection and your volume to keep students engaged. Don't be afraid to "get into character" and have some fun; your students will pay attention and your lesson will be more likely to stick!

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

When working with teachers on their voices, classroom management is always an issue. Young people's listening skills appear to be a common problem and teachers struggle to make themselves heard in some classrooms. Difficulties in class management can result from the lack of knowledge teachers have about the effect of their voice on their pupils. A voice and body that appear uncontrolled can often lead to uninvited chatter and 'irritating misbehavior'.

Posture and body language

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

1. It is important not to lift the chin up or push your face forward, as this affects the position of the larynx. Teachers do have a tendency to push their face and neck towards the back of the room. We erroneously think those at the back will hear better! In fact, it raises the larynx and makes your voice thinner and more difficult to hear.

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

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

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

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

6. Consider whether your body language could be sending out the wrong messages. Arms folded over the chest, legs crossed at the ankles, weight over to one side, arms clasped behind the back or tension through the body, can give signals to those watching that you speak for a prolonged time. Your body should never give the impression that you are not in charge.

7. You can help yourself by already being in a classroom before the pupils enter. If you are lucky enough to have your own room, always make sure you are there before the class arrives. Allowing pupils of whatever age to colonize the space first makes it their territory. It is far more difficult to gain their attention and it puts more pressure on your voice if you have to enter the room after the class has taken up residence.

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

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

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

2.2 Rapport Building

Building teacher – student rapport is a key aspect of teaching. A comfortable classroom climate is encouraged because the belief is that students can learn better in such an environment. In language teaching in particular, Krashen's (1985) well-accepted Affective Filter Hypothesis specifies that comprehensible input can become intake only when the student has a lowered affective filter, i.e. when they feel motivated, confident, and comfortable. In Krashen and Terell's Natural Approach (1983), the teacher aims to create a friendly classroom atmosphere to promote learning. In the same spirit, Tsui (1996) writes: 'establishing a good relationship with students is extremely important in creating a conducive learning atmosphere in the classroom' (p. 164). Similarly, Doff (1988) highlights the

importance of 'social language' or 'chatting' as an opportunity for the teacher to '*contact* with the class, and helps students to feel *relaxed* and ready to learn' (p. 224).

Due to its importance, numerous textbooks on teacher training have discussed the issue of how teachers can build rapport with their students in the classroom. In the educational literature, most guidelines on how to construct a positive environment for learning (which includes building rapport) mention the establishment of support, warmth and openness (Borich, 2000), the ability to be friendly, genuine, positive and attentive to what the students say, the use of informality and humour to close the distance between the teacher and students and make the students more involved in the learning process.

Brown (1994) provides perhaps one of the most explicit guidelines for building rapport with students in a language classroom. He recommends that teachers can establish a relationship of trust and respect with their students by:

1) showing interest in individual students;
2) giving feedback on individual student's progress;
3) inviting students to express their thoughts and feelings;
4) valuing and respecting students' ideas;
5) sharing humour with students but not ridiculing them;
6) working with students as a team and not against them;
7) expressing true happiness when students succeed (p. 421).

Social interaction in the classroom has been characterised as a form of institutional talk, and a defining feature of institutional talk is *goal-orientedness* (Drew&Heritage, 1992). The general goal of a class is for the teacher to develop new knowledge, values and skills in the students.

At specific moments, this goal manifests itself in specific instructional tasks for the teacher such as organising the class, correcting students' answers, answering students' questions, etc. Another frequently noted aspect of institutional talk is the presence of social chat, or 'small talk', alongside the main 'business', or task-oriented talk. Social chat in institutional interaction 'enacts social cohesiveness, reduces inherent threat values of social contact, and helps to structure social interaction' (Coupland, 2003). As such, it can contribute to the maintenance of rapport. When participants relax their institutional roles and engage in social chat, they are renewing and strengthening the social fabric that defines their relationship.

Social talk between teachers and students has been well documented in empirical research. The tendency of these studies is to suggest a dichotomy between 'instructional' and 'social' talk as two separate interactional processes. For example, Ulichny (1996) notes that 'small talk' between the teacher and the students took place *before* the beginning of the lesson 'proper', and Cadorath and Harris (1998) emphasise the distinction between 'planned language' and 'unplanned language', with the latter being 'authentic' discourse that can promote rapport.

These observations about the relationship between rapport and instruction in this study refocus our attention to the fact that lessons do not exist independently of social relationships between the teacher and students. The usual model of a lesson plan put forward in the literature on language teaching and learning often has, prior

to the lesson 'proper', a 'warm-up' activity at the beginning, when teachers are encouraged to chat with students and make them feel relaxed and comfortable. The construction of social relationships permeates every single moment of teaching and learning, and participants in the classroom constantly and actively orient to these relationships. As teachers and students work together to accomplish their institutional goals, they can utilise any interactional resources suited for this goal.

Practice Tasks

Task 1. Answer the questions

a) Why is teacher's voice important?
b) How should teacher voice be?
c) What is rapport building?
d) Why is rapport building important for teachers?
e) How do you build a rapport with students as a teacher?

Task 2. Observe teacher's behavior

➤ observe the teacher from the video (will be presented by a teacher) and fill in the observation form (See Appendix 1).
➤ share your ideas with your partners and present your findings to the group.

Task 3. See Appendix 2 and learn body language quotes

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THEME 3.
CREATING SUPPORTIVE TEACHING AND LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

3.1 Key ideas for facilitating a supportive learning environment

3.2 The importance of providing a supportive learning environment.

3.3 Teacher's feedback

Key words: supportive teaching, learning environment, learner profile, collaboration, well-decorated classroom, teacher's feedback and etc.

3.1 Key ideas for facilitating a supportive learning environment

It is important to foster a learning environment in which students feel safe, relaxed, and willing to take risks, especially for learners who may have had negative experiences in traditional classroom environments. Students often describe supportive learning environments as expanding their sense of family and enhancing their self-esteem, which, when combined with increased literacy skills, help students take more chances in pursuing their goals.

Teachers need to provide students with a safe and supportive classroom environment that facilitates active participation and engagement of all students.

Creating a supportive and understanding learning environment is particularly important when discussion activities deal with sensitive issues in relation to mental health and wellbeing. In order to provide a safe and engaging learning environment for students, it is important for teachers to:

- collaborate with students to develop a group agreement that sets the parameters for class discussions;
- reflect on their own role in discussions - acting as a facilitator of the conversation to help to generate many viewpoints;
- value all student contributions and make this known;
- use a range of questioning techniques which open up discussion rather than trying to get to a quick right answer;
- recognise that some students may not feel comfortable sharing;
- explore ways of dealing with this such as using think, pair, share activities;
- explore ways to ensure that all students get an opportunity to speak, such as using talk tickets.

A supportive learning environment is less about the physical classroom and resources (though these are important) than it is about values and relationships.

In a genuinely supportive learning environment, every student feels valued, included, and empowered.

For this to happen, each student needs to know that their story matters. For teachers, this means listening, and taking the time and appropriate opportunities to learn:

- where their students have come from
- where they are now
- where they want to head in the future.

Effective teachers do not teach lessons; they teach students.

Decisions relating to programme design, texts, resources, and contexts are made on the basis of sound knowledge about the students in the class: knowledge about their students' linguistic background, their ethnicity, the expectations of their parents, their hobbies, their skills, their prior learning and so on. These factors all contribute to the formation of each student's identity – who they are and how they see themselves.

Finding out about the students is just part of the broad inquiry cycle that also involves consciously planning and implementing programmes of learning that are designed specifically for them. The resources you use will be selected as part of this same inquiry.

Here are some steps teachers could take at the start of a new school year to begin to create a supportive learning environment:

- Creating a learner profile;
- Building relationships with your students;
- Building relationships between students.

Creating a learner profile. Teachers should start building a learner profile (paper based or digital) for each student. In it, they might keep track of:

- English curriculum progress;
- key competencies progress;
- the student's learning goals.

How could you and your students update these during the year? How could your students share their profiles with their families? For this teachers should enable eLearning or learn about e-portfolios. Teachers may be able to create an e-portfolio using their school's Learning Management System or LMS, encourage the students to individualise their portfolios; for example, by linking comments or work to a music video to track or illustrate a particular learning episode.

Building relationships with your students. How might you go about building relationships with your students that will communicate your belief that all students have the capacity to be learners and achievers?

- Are there ways in which you and your students could introduce yourselves, sharing who you are, where you are from, your likes, dislikes, and hopes and dreams for the future?

- What about bringing or creating and sharing visual stories, collages, or artifacts? Could your students make, for example, mind maps, mosaics and etc.?

- Could you ask your students to share their role models, and what sort of person they aspire to be? Who do they look up to in their community? What are their strengths and needs? What are they passionate about? How could you use this information to make English learning relevant for your students?

- Can you use your students' personal reading or viewing to recognise and affirm their sense of identity and belonging?

Building relationships between students. How could you build relationships between students so they feel safe and valued?

- Challenge students with an unfamiliar text that is open to different interpretations. Discuss possible meanings, accept all responses, and encourage students. How can you acknowledge, respect, and value their voice?

- Could you use your school's Learning Management System to create a discussion forum (for example, what feature film should we study this year)? How might you engage students in responding to each other's posts?
- Do you have strategies that will allow students to get to get to know each other and you?

From such activities, collate information about your students' writing, speaking, and presenting skills.

3.2 The strategies of providing a supportive learning environment

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.

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?

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.

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. 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. 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.

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. 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. 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. After the use of the classroom meeting the number of aggressive acts are significantly reduced.

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 problemsolving 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.).

3.3 Teachers' Feedback

One of the primary tools teachers have to create this supportive class environment is feedback (Price et al., 2011; Reeve, 2012). Feedback is conceptualized as information students receive about their performance or understanding that reduces the discrepancy between what the student knows and what is aimed to be known. Students must also make sense of that information and use it to enhance their learning (Carless and Bound, 2018).

Much has been studied about the effectiveness of feedback, but there is much more to learn about how to optimize its power in the classroom. As Janosz (2012) indicated, the feedback information that students receive and interpret from their schooling experience plays a crucial role in assisting students in improving their motivation and engagement and is a decisive factor implicated in academic achievement. Nevertheless, we also know that the variability of feedback effectiveness is vast and that there are certain types of feedback that are more effective than others. Thus, different types of feedback allow the student to close the gap between current knowledge and a more desirable level of achievement with different levels of effectiveness. Hattie and Timperley (2007) specified some forms it should take; The authors use three feedback questions such as where am I going *(feeding up),* how am I going *(feeding back)* and where to next *(feeding forward)* to clarify the goals and criteria for students. For feedback to be effective, these questions must be answered by the student and feedback needs to work at different levels of cognitive complexity: Task and product level, i.e., corrective feedback; Process level, i.e., providing task processing strategies and cues for information search so students can develop their own learning strategies; Self-regulation level, i.e., providing students with information that allows them to improve their competence to monitor their own learning and progress. According to the authors, feedback is more effective the more information it contains. So high-information feedback contains information on task, process and (sometimes) self-regulation.

Hattie and Timperley (2007) considered that the feedback needs to focus on the appropriate question and level of cognitive complexity. If not, it risks being ignored and misunderstood and never used by the student. Generally, it has been

shown that feedback at the process and self-regulation levels seems to be more effective in enhancing deeper learning, improving task confidence and self-efficacy, and leading to more internal attributions about success or failure. Furthermore, the meta-analyses of Wisniewski et al. (2020) also suggest that feedback is more effective the more information it contains, while simple forms of reinforcement and punishment have low effects.

The literature also suggests that feedback is related to a positive student-teacher relationship, which is an essential aspect of a positive classroom environment. Burnett (2002) observed that students who perceived receiving feedback focused on their effort were more likely to report a positive teacher-student relationship. The author also reported that students who perceived receiving frequent ability feedback from their teachers were also more likely to perceive the classroom environment in a positive way. On the contrary, teacher praise was not related to students' perception of the classroom environment or their relationships with their teachers.

Therefore, teachers' feedback is crucial in improving this supportive class environment by establishing good relationships with students and offering both personal and academic support. Feedback is more effective if it helps students understand what mistakes they made, why they made these mistakes, and what they can do to avoid them in future. Therefore, the effective feedback sets clear standards and expectations that promote a supportive classroom environment, encouraging students' autonomy, school identification and engagement.

To conclude, the ideas described above can facilitate a positive start to the school year and provide a structured and encouraging environment. The concepts of good classroom design, listening skills, selfdetermination, 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. Planning ahead and applying these concepts is imperative to successful teacher student interaction and creating a positive classroom environment.

Practice Tasks

Task 1. Find answers.

1. Why is a safe and supportive learning environment important?
   a. It increases the chances that students will succeed.
   b. It is mandated by law.
   c. It reflects well on the teacher.
   d. It increases the chances that students will be gifted.
2. When should a teacher determine what classroom procedures will be used?
   a. Before students arrive.
   b. Upon student arrival.
   c. After an initial routine is established.
   d. Once the students have been consulted.

3. Which of the following is NOT a characteristic of a safe and supportive learning environment?
  a. Organization
  b. Rules
  c. Sense of community
  d. Sense of uncertainty
4. What is one strategy for ensuring physical safety?
  a. Give your students language to describe their feelings
  b. Help each student make a friend
  c. Keep in close communication with families
  d. Keep your classroom neat and tidy
5. What is one strategy for ensuring emotional safety?
  a. Make sure there is space for children to maneuver.
  b. Help students learn language for talking about their emotions.
  c. Decorate your classroom so that it is as stimulating as possible.
  d. Minimize chances to talk about bad feelings.
6. Why is a safe classroom environment important?
  a. It will stop your principal from observing too much.
  b. Student test scores will improve if they feel safer
  c. Students learn math facts more quickly when they feel safe.
  d. Students learn better when they feel safe.

Task 2. Describe the strategies of providing a supportive learning environment.

Task 3. Video observation

➤ Observe the video (will be presented by a teacher) attentively paying your attention to the environment of the classroom and make posters about classroom environment from the video for presentation

Task 4. 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 (Electronic Journal for Inclusive Education, Vol. 2, No. 4 Spring/Summer 2009 Article 4)

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THEME 4. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT FOR EFFECTIVE TEACHING

4.1 Teachers' roles for effective class conduction

4.2 Techniques for better classroom control

Key words: classroom management, teacher's roles, discipline, classroom techniques, with-it-ness, ripple effect, model classroom and etc.

4.1 Teachers' roles for effective class conduction

Teachers play a major role for effective class conduction. It is the responsibility of the teacher to make his /her class interesting so that students are keen to attend and participate in the class. Some of the teachers keep complaining about the class which they teach. The problem is normally related to student's behaviour and discipline. Such students miss out on learning. They usually bunk or are irregular to class. They don't even bother to be present for the class. So many students today just don't value their education. If we suspend such students for bunking class they don't seem to care at all. Sitting at home doesn't change their attitude. Maybe a fresh look at the approach to Classroom management is required. But why we as a teacher are losing our grip with the classes? This lecture focuses on the problems, reasons and suggestions for effective class management

Teaching is not controlling, but rather working with the students to learn, grow, and succeed together. By having strong student-teacher relationships with students, the classroom will be a place for each member to express their feelings and work together. Academic success depends on these close relationships and guidance that teachers and students have with one another.

Classroom management aims at establishing student selfcontrol through a process of promoting positive student achievement and behavior. Thus, academic achievement, teacher efficacy, and teacher and student behavior are directly linked with the concept of classroom management.

Educators have always rated discipline as one of the most serious obstacles to promoting effective teaching. Proper Classroom management leads to class control and conducive teaching learning environment.

According to Evertson and Weinstein (2006) Classroom management has two distinct purposes: "It not only seeks to establish and sustain an orderly environment so students can engage in meaningful academic learning, it also aims to enhance student social and moral growth" (p. 4).

Classroom management is a multi-faceted activity and extends beyond the traditional behavior management techniques recommended to deal with students with disruptive behavior. Teachers should develop caring, supportive relationships with and among students; organize and implement instruction in ways that optimize students' access to learning; they may use group management methods that encourage student engagement with academic tasks; promote the development of student social skills and selfregulation; and use appropriate interventions to assist students who have behavior problems.

Jacob Kounin also believed that if students were engaged in their lessons, they would be less likely to misbehave. Other theorists who believed this as well were

Glasser, Curwin, and Medler. If lessons are precise and completed at a steady continuous pace, students will have little time to misbehave or to get into conflicts. When students are engaged, they are concentrating on the lesson and focus on learning, and it prevents problems. It is important for the students to be part of the decision-making processes. If students are having fun, they will be engaged. When they are engaged in a lesson, they will not think about misbehaving, and will be focused on the task.

According to Spencer Kagan, students should play an active role in setting classroom rules. By allowing the students to help create the rules, the students are participating in classroom community building. Everyone is working together and is able to clearly understand the rules.

Canter believed that parents need to be informed from day one about behavior and both positive and negative consequences should be shared with parents and guardians. Parents should know how their children are behaving in class, whether it is good or bad. By keeping in touch with letters and notes, emails, or phone calls, parents will feel as if they are important to their child's success in the classroom. If parents do not feel important to their children's education, or welcome in the classroom, the students will suffer. There must be a good teacher-parent relationship so that everyone is on the same page to support the student's needs. If there is no support at home, the student will struggle in the classroom.

Indiscipline is a problem normally faced by teachers which creates a hindrance in teaching process. Due to indiscipline situation students arrive late for class, are not punctual for the classes or simply bunk classes as the class is not very interesting or rather as a teacher we are unable to create interest in the class. This may be a result of lack of lesson planning. At times effective management of time is also overlooked. Non verbal cues like body language and communication skills also play a major role in making the class effective.

Problems of Classroom Management can be overcome by being prepared for class, motivating the students, providing a comfortable learning environment, building students' self esteem, being creative and imaginative in daily lessons. A teacher should not carry personal problems to the class by being impulsive. There must be Willingness of the teacher to accept responsibility for classroom control and Long-term, solution-oriented approaches to problems.

4.2 Techniques for better classroom control

Teacher needs to Focus attention on entire class and must not talk over student chatter. At times Silence can be effective. Students should know what is going to happen in the class and monitored to check progress. Teacher should move around the room so students have to pay attention more readily and give students non-verbal cues. Lessons should be planned to ensure that the period is filled with learning activities. Teacher should have a knack to memorize student names as quickly as possible. It enhances class control and confidence of the teacher. Few techniques are mentioned below;

With-It-Ness

With-it-ness refers to a teacher's awareness of what is going on in the classroom behaviors before they get out of line, keeping learners on tasks. Many

problems occur during transitions. Theorist Jacob Kounin stressed the importance of "with-it-ness," which is the idea that the teacher knows what is going on in their classroom at all times. They understand the importance of having a close eye on students. Teachers who have "with-it-ness" are able to spot areas where misbehavior may arise, when students are upset, and are able correct problem behaviors before they cause major distress to the classroom. These teachers are able to manage their classrooms at all times and prevent problems from occurring or expanding. In a community of learners, it is the duty of the teacher to make sure everything runs smoothly for students by being able to spot problems.

Ripple Effect

Jacob Kounin created the idea of the "ripple effect." The idea is that if one student sustains positive or negative consequences, the rest of the class will see what is taking place and a ripple effect will occur. From experience, when one student misbehaves others will join in as well. On the other hand, a student receiving a reward will motivate others. Managing students' behavior in positive ways is the key to success. Students learn from others around them, and by believing in the ripple effect, we will be able to manage behaviors.

Model Classroom

Teachers should teach and model classroom behaviors. By doing so, students are able to visually see what is expected and what is not allowed in the classroom. This is important so that students fully understand what it looks like to participate in positive behavior management. Students will learn to be responsible managers of their behavior by seeing others do what is expected.

When students misbehave, it is important to sit down with the student and counsel. By having close student-teacher relationships, we will be able to get to the cause of the behavior and help the student come up with alternatives to prevent the unwanted behavior from occurring in the future.

B.F. Skinner gave Behavior Modification theory and believed that behavior is shaped through systematic reinforcement and punishment has limited effects. Likewise, William Glasser contributed Choice Theory which emphasizes human behavior is purposeful (Charles 2011). Students are responsible for their own behavior. The basic needs of students must be met. Jacob Kounin emphasised on Lesson Management to prevent misbehavior.

Rudolph Dreikurs proclaimed human needs and democratic classrooms. He believed that students have a need for belonging. Believed that misbehavior occurs when needs are not metand moreover democratic classrooms support effective learning. Lee and Marlene Canter focused on Assertive Discipline, students have the right to learn in a calm, organized classroom and teachers have the right to teach in a classroom free of interruption and misbehavior.

Assertive teachers model classroom expectations clearly, confidently and consistently. Traditional instruction is ineffective and meaningful learning takes place when students have choice, feel respected, feel like a part of something, and can construct their own learning.

Thus, the Role of a Teacher is not to grade a student and to control but the main role of the teacher is to help every student reach the highest possible level of

achievement. The long-term goal of any classroom management program is self-management. Effective classroom management must be aligned with instructional goals and activities. Brophy (2006) noted that when teachers identify what good student behavior looks like; they can work backwards from desired outcomes to determine which management systems will be most effective. Arriving in class and being in one's seat on time, being prepared for a lesson, paying attention, volunteering information and responding to questions lead to effective class control. Accepted behaviors may vary for different classroom and unique strategies may be adopted for different contexts and environments that emerge in classrooms.

Practice Tasks

Task 1. Use classroom language under the correct picture

STAND UP   MAY I GO TO THE TOILET?   SIT DOWN
MAY I DRINK SOME WATER?   HOW DO YOU SAY TESOURA IN ENGLISH?
WHAT'S THE PAGE?   LISTEN!   BE QUIET!   WRITE ON THE BOARD
CLOSE YOUR BOOK   MAY I COME IN?   DON'T EAT IN CLASS!
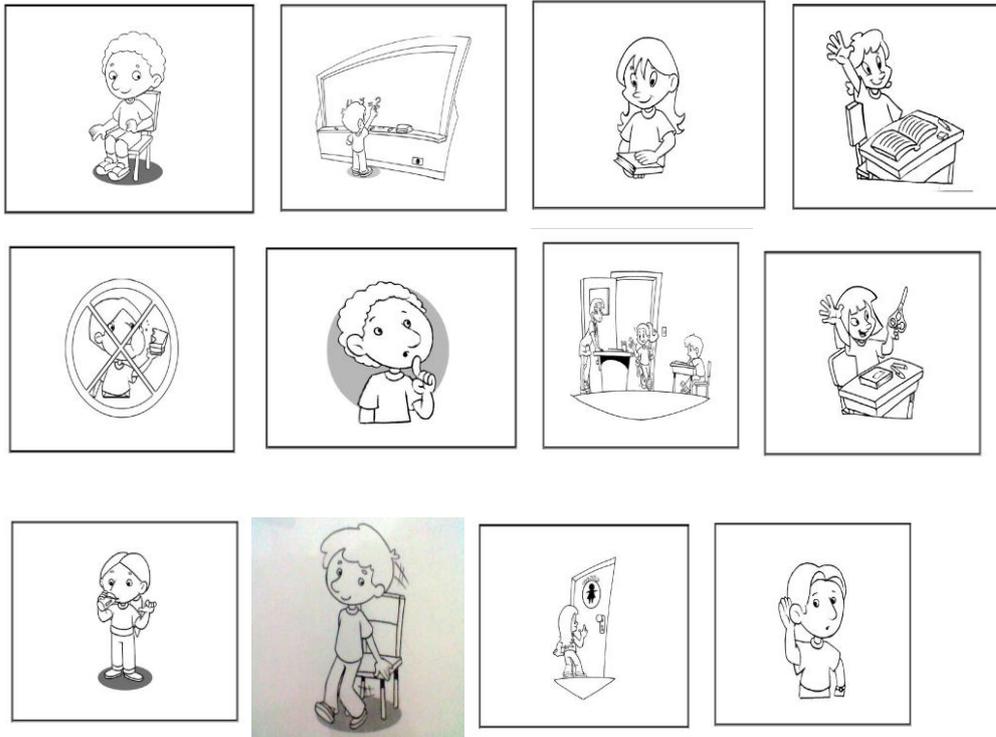
Task 2. Find errors of the given statements
   a) Open your books on page 20.
   b) OK! Time's over!
   c) Do you want me to explain you the rule again?
   d) Pay attention in the example.
   e) Ask question four to Raul, please.
   f) Today we're going to discuss about politics.
   g) These are slangs.
   h) I gave you a homework last class, didn't I?

i)   Are you with your students' book?

j)   Does anyone have any doubts?

Task 3. Answer the questions.

a)   What is classroom management?

b)   What are distinct purposes of classroom management?

c)   What is indiscipline?

d)   How can classroom management be overcome?

e)   What techniques are better for class control?

f)   Who created the idea of the "ripple effect"?

g)   How do teachers manage classroom? Your own ideas.

Task 4. Find correct answer.

1. What do you say when you want your pupils to do this?

a. Put your hand up if you know the answer

b. Put your hand up if you know the answer.

c. Rise your hand if you know the answer.

d. Put your hand in the air if you're knowing the answer

2. You want your students to look at page 33. Which is correct?

a. Open your book in page 33.

b. Now please turn on page 33.

c. Turn to page 33 please.

3. You don't want students to do this exercise together. What do you say?

a. Be individual.

b. Work alone.

c. Please work lonely.

4. Not allowed in class!

a. No chew here.

b. Put your chewing gum in the bin.

c. Spit it out!

5. Your student has done some very good work. Which one of these wouldn't you say?

a. Well done!

b. Good try!

c. That's great!

d. You've done really well.

6. You don't want your students to use their dictionaries yet. Which one of these wouldn't you say?

a. You can look the words up later.

b. Try to guess the meaning of words you don't know.

c. Dictionaries are bad!

d. We'll look at vocabulary later. So no dictionaries just yet please.

7. Computers are more interesting than teachers!!! So if you are working in the computer lab, when you want your students' attention for a while it's a good idea to tell them...

a. Turn off your computer and listen to me.

b. Turn off your monitor and look this way please.

c. If anyone touches their computer while I'm speaking we'll all go back to the classroom and do some grammar exercises.

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THEME 5. THE ROLE OF QUESTIONING IN THE CLASSROOM

5.1 Questioning in the classroom
5.2 Asking specific questions
5.3 The tactics of effective questioning
5.4 Question classification systems

Key words: questioning, specific questions, pupils' questions, tactics of questioning, high-level and low-level questions, structuring, pitching, pausing, pacing, responding, timing, Bloom's Taxonomy and etc.

5.1 Questioning in the classroom

Since Socrates, and probably before, teachers have used questions to stimulate thinking in the classroom. Appropriate questions help teachers and students learn from one another (Lathan, 1957 as cited from Wood; Carol, 2001).

A teacher's questioning technique, correlating with enhanced achievement, should include a balance of convergent and divergent questions, probing questions, listening to student responses, redirecting student responses to other students, providing respectful feedback, and allowing for appropriate time after asking a question. Convergent questions serve the purpose of getting low level cognitive information from students; divergent or open-ended questions are more likely to stimulate a discussion and foster an interactive and democratic classroom atmosphere.

Every day teachers ask dozens, even hundreds of questions, thousands in a single year, over a million during a professional lifetime (Wragg 2001). Questioning

has been and is a dominant method of instruction in the classroom. Some say questioning is, in fact, the most important teaching technique in use today. The greatest attribute of questioning is that it stimulates thinking in the classroom (Filippone, 1998).

Researchers indicates that almost 40% of classroom time is spent in a question-response mode (Johnson, Markle, & Haley-Oliphant, 1987). Nevertheless, many teachers do not ask questions effectively (Gall, 1984). Ineffective or inappropriate practices include asking questions at only lower cognitive levels (Ornstein, 1987), directing a disproportionate percentage of questions toward limited number of students (Jones, 1990), or waiting only for a short time after asking a question and before reacting to the student's response - typically one second or less (Rowe, 1986). Questions too often flow in only one direction and become a way of maintaining control rather than stimulating thought. For example, teachers are likely to ask at least 50 questions during a typical class period while it is unlikely that the students in the class ask even one question (McGlathery, 1978 as cited from Barnette, 1994).

Questions are an important form of instructional interaction as they act as motivational stimuli and have arousal and associative outcomes. Through asking questions the teacher has the ability to construct students thinking and ways of inquiry. Teachers ask questions for several reasons:
1. The act of asking questions helps teachers keep students actively involved in lessons;
2. While answering questions, students have the opportunity to openly express their ideas and thoughts;
3. Questioning students enables other students to hear different explanations of the mate1ial by their peers;
4. Asking questions helps teachers to pace their lessons and moderate student behavior;
5. Questioning students helps teachers to evaluate student learning and revise their lessons as necessary.

As one may deduce, questioning is one of the most popular modes of teaching. Unfortunately, although the act of asking questions has the potential to greatly facilitate the learning process it also has the capacity to tum a child off if done inconectly (Brualdi, 1998). Questioning is an integral part of scientific inquiry and the learning process. Students' questions can reveal much about the quality of their thinking and conceptual understanding, their alternative frameworks and confusion about various concepts, their reasoning, and what they want to know.

In order to teach well it is widely believed that one must be able to question well. Asking good questions fosters interaction between the teacher and his/her students.

High-level-cognitive questions can be defined as questions that require students to use higher order thinking or reasoning skills. By using these skills, students do not remember only factual knowledge. Instead, they use their knowledge to solve, to analyze, and to evaluate. It is believed that this type of questions reveal the most about whether or not a student has truly grasped a concept. This is because

a student needs to have a deep understanding of the topic in order to answer his type of question. Teachers do not use high-level-cognitive questions with the same amount of frequency as they do with low-level-cognitive questions. Ellis (1993) claims that many teachers do rely on low-level cognitive questions in order to avoid a slow-paced lesson, keep the attention of the students, and maintain control of the classroom.

Arends (1994) argues that many of the findings concerning the effects of using lower-level-cognitive questions versus higher-level-cognitive questions have been inconclusive. While some studies favour asking high-level-cognitive questions, other studies reveal the positive effects of asking low-level cognitive questions. Gall (1984), for example, point out that "where emphasis on fact questions is more effective for promoting young disadvantaged children's achievement, which primarily involves mastery of basic skills, emphasis on higher cognitive questions is more effective for students of average and high ability ... " (p. 41). Nevertheless, other studies do not reveal any difference in achievement between students whose teachers use mostly high level questions and those whose teachers ask mainly low level questions. Teachers decide to ask low level cognitive or high level cognition questions in accordance with the needs and interests of students to help them understand the subject matter.

Reasons for teachers asking questions to their pupils in classrooms are often rather different from those in everyday conversation. Put another way the rules of talk in the classroom are different from those in other contexts. We question students not to obtain new knowledge for ourselves but to find out what the student already knows.

Other reasons for asking questions are to stimulate recall, to deepen understanding, to develop imagination, and to encourage problem solving. There are also questions to do with classroom management such as, 'Have you got your books?' Turney et *al* (1973), in their first edition of the Sydney Micro Series, list twelve possible functions of questions.

- To arouse interest and curiosity concerning a topic;
- To focus attention on a particular issue or concept;
- To develop an active approach to learning;
- To stimulate pupils to ask questions for themselves and others;
- To structure a task in such a way that learning will be maximized;
- To diagnose specific difficulties inhibiting pupil learning;
- To communicate with the group that involvement in the lesson is expected, and that overt participation by all members of the group is valued;
- To provide an opportunity for pupils to assimilate and reflect upon information;
- To involve pupils in using an inferred cognitive operation on the assumption that this will assist in developing thinking skills;
- To develop reflection and comment by pupils on the responses of other members of the group, both pupils and teachers;

- To afford an opportunity for pupils to learn vicariously through discussion [Turney et *al. (1973 as cited from Wragg, 2001]*

5.2 Asking specific questions

As well as thinking to oneself, 'Why do I ask questions in teaching?' it is also instructive to reflect on why a specific question is being asked and indeed why this specific question is being put to a particular individual or group. Brown and Edmondson (1989) studied reasons given by teachers. The teachers who provided samples of questions they asked high-ability pupils cited 'gaining attention' and 'understanding' as their most frequent reason. Teachers of medium-ability classes reported more 'checking' and 'revision' questions, where as teachers of low-ability groups tended to stress 'understanding' and 'management'. Teachers of mixed-ability classes favored a wider range: 'understanding', 'gaining attention to move towards teaching point', 'management' and 'revision'. However, the results do not include mutually exclusive categories. The most common reasons were: encouraging thought, checking understanding, gaining attention, revision and management (Wragg, 2001).

There were differences between teachers of different subjects. Among the secondary English teachers in the sample, the most common reasons given were to gain attention and for management purposes, whereas the mathematics and science teachers gave priority to checking understanding and encouraging thought. Expressive arts and foreign language teachers gave more revision and checking reasons, whereas history and geography teachers provided more encouraging understanding and gaining attention reasons. The evidence suggests that the context is very important. Teachers' reasons for asking questions, not surprisingly, vary according to the subject or topic being taught, the class and the ability of the pupils (Wragg, 2001).

In a study Wragg (1993), teachers asked in primary school them to identify three key questions and to discuss why they had chosen them. The questions that the teachers judged most successful very often provided a reason that contained a sense of looking ahead the intention behind the question was evident. The least successful questions seemed to be looking nowhere, or were focused almost entirely upon what the children knew already. Perhaps most importantly of all, in successful lessons, the key questions were related to the expressed aims of the lessons.

In another study (Wragg, 1993) involved recording more than a thousand questions asked by primary teachers. The questions asked were divided into three categories: *managerial* if they were to do with the running of the lesson (e.g. 'Who's finished all problems?'), *information/data* if they involved the recall of information (e .g. 'How many legs does an insect have?'), and *higher order* if pupils had to do more than just remember facts, for example, if they had to analyse, make generalizations or infer (e.g. 'Why is a bird not an insect?').

Children may ask a lot of questions, but not usually in school. Indeed, in one of Wragg's detailed analyses of questioning in twenty lessons, there were fewer than twenty questions asked spontaneously by pupils and most of these questions were not centrally concerned with thinking (Wragg 2001). Many questions asked by pupils to their teachers seem to be procedural such 'What time do we finish?', 'Should

we put the date?', rather than to do with the thinking processes involved in the subject matter, such as, 'Why is the sky blue?' or, 'What happens if ... ?

All logical thinking arises out of the manipulation of objects' could well be extended to, 'and the asking of questions'. (Wragg 2001). In addition to procedures and subject matter, there are other reasons why pupils ask questions of the teacher or each other. Students' attention, affection, recognition of learning should be taken into consideration while asking questions.

5.3 The tactics of effective questioning

Questions are only as good as the answers that they elicit so it is important to consider not only the types of question that teachers ask but also the tactics involved in asking those questions. One obvious purpose of effective questioning is to minimize teachers' and pupils' errors by focusing on a particular fact, issue, skill, belief. It invites you to reflect on the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following list of 'errors' (Wragg 2001):

• Asking too many questions at once;
• Asking a question and answering it yourself;
• Asking questions only of the brightest or most likeable pupils;
• Asking a difficult question too early in the sequence of events;
• Asking irrelevant questions;
• Always asking the same types of questions (e.g. closed questions);
• Asking questions in a threatening way;
• Not indicating a change in the type of question;
• Not using probing questions;
• Not giving pupils the time to think;
• Not correcting wrong answers;
• Ignoring pupils' answers;
• Failing to see the implications of pupils' answers;
• Failing to build on answers.

Among the key methods involved when asking questions are (Wragg 2001):
1. Structuring;
2. Pitching and putting clearly;
3. Directing and distributing;
4. Pausing and pacing;
5. Prompting and probing;
6. Listening to replies and responding;
7. Sequencing.

Structuring (Signposting). Structuring consists of providing *signposts* for the sequence of questions and the topic. The strncturing may be a brief exposition of the topic, a review of a series of questions and explanations based on a previous lesson or a statement of objectives.

'Pitching' and putting questions clearly. The 'pitch and put' analogy here is like a short golf course where you chip the ball onto the green as close to the hole as you can get it and then role it in with your putter. 'Pitching' in general conversation

also refers to estimating the right intellectual level of the people you are teaching so to neither bewilder or patronize them.

Undirected questions often lead to chorns answers and lack of control. Hence the importance of directing questions when appropriate, by name, gesture, head movement or facial expressions. Distributing questions around the group rather than concentrating on one or two willing respondents not only involves more pupils but also reduces the risk of losing attention and class control. Some teachers often subconsciously favor the approach of asking mainly knowledgeable pupils, if only because their answers come more quickly or seem more rewarding. One method of distribution is to ask every pupil in the group in ttm1, something which teachers we have interviewed and observed during research projects did not usually favour.

Alternatively, questions can be distributed randomly around the class. Certain parts of the room can get ignored by a new teacher and also by experienced practitioners.

Children sitting along the sides of a classroom may be overlooked when the teacher is standing in the centre at the front. Groups of pupils at the back may be ignored if a teacher is seated at a desk. It is worth considering where your blind spots are when distributing questions; otherwise most may be addressed to children sitting in a Vshaped classroom.

Another part of the strategy of directing and distributing questions is monitoring the body language of the pupils. By looking at pupils you can often identify those who wish to cont1ibute, those who are not attentive, and those who are puzzled. This then raises the question of whether teachers should only call on pupils whose hands are up. In our research studies of teacher attitudes towards questioning most have been opposed to this approach, wanting the option to nominate those who are not expressing willingness to respond as well.

Pausing and pacing. Student teachers often ask more questions than they receive answers (Brown, 1978) and they sometimes answer their own queries. This failure may often be due to lack of pauses or absence of 'wait time' (Rowe, 1978). She analysed eight hundred tape recordings of lessons and found that teachers asked between three and five questions per minute, but allowed only a second or less for a child to respond before asking someone else, answering the question themselves, or rephrasing the question. When she persuaded teachers to extend the *wait time* to three seconds or more, not only after the teacher's question, but also after the child's response, she found that the quality and length of pupils' answers improved.

Listening to replies. Our capacity to listen diminishes with anxiety, so it is not surprising that sometimes teachers may not listen carefully to the responses of pupils and so do not respond appropriately to their answers and comments. Four types of listening may be identified:

Skim listening is little more than awareness that a pupil is talking and is often done when the answers seem irrelevant, when you want to get on with what you are doing, or are thinking of other matters.

Survey listening is trying to build a wider mental map of what the pupil is talking about. The listener filters out extraneous material and identifies the key points or misunderstandings of the pupil. This tactic is particularly important with

pupils who are learning fresh subject matter. At its core is the capacity to understand how children think and talk.

Search listening is actively searching for specific information to an answer or to a se1ies of answers. Although it is important to search it is also important not to overlook other answers or responses as they may reveal more than the original question did.

Study listening is a subtle blend of search and survey listening. It goes beyond the words that the pupils use to their underlying meaning and uncertainties. It simply is not possible given the demands on teachers' awareness to 'study listen' to one's pupils all the time. What is more important is to be aware of the level of listening which you are currently using.

Responding. Responding is the move you make after a pupil answers or comments. Responding moves are in a sense the linchpins of a lesson because they establish, in the eyes of the pupil, the tone of the lesson by signaling the teacher's enthusiasm, excitement, interest, boredom, or indifference to what pupils have to off er. They are therefore important mechanisms in sequencing and structming a lesson, whereby new information is introduced, the topic is changed, discussions are moved on, and the lesson is moved back on course. Responding moves are some of the most difficult areas for newly qualified teachers to master. Some of the more common responding moves are shown opposite. Effective responses include giving reinforcement and feedback to pupils. It is also associated with conveying enthusiasm and generating interest. There is a risk for beginners. Grateful for any response, they might, unwittingly, react positively to every answer, regardless of its merits. Reinforcement and feedback eventually become meaningless, as pupils realize that not all answers can be wonderful, so the structure and sequence of the lesson may be lost. The risk for experienced teachers is to respond in a mechanical way. Automatic smiles and uncritical approval lose the effect on pupils that more discriminating responses would achieve (Wragg, 2001)

Preparing questions. As a preliminary to preparing questions, it is useful to consider these two questions:

1. What *can I* ask the class?

2. What *should* I ask the class?

A useful approach to 'What can I ask the class?' is to brainstorm the questions. Think of a topic you are likely to teach and then take a blank sheet of paper and write down on it as many questions as you can within five minutes - do not worry about the appropriateness or quality of the questions at this stage. Once you have done this, you can begin to sift through the questions and arrive at those you will ask the pupils. Inevitably this leads you to consider what your objectives are and what the class might already know.

Using key questions. Many teachers use a number of *key questions* to structure and provide links in their lessons. For example, in a lesson we observed on 'prejudice' three of the key questions were, 'What do you understand by the word *prejudice?',* 'Which individuals or groups are likely to experience prejudice?' and, 'How does prejudice show itself in everyday life?

Different age groups like teenagers and the elderly, ethnic and religious minorities, conformity and non-conformity, emotional bias and the nature of evidence. It was excellent 'citizenship' material in what was ostensibly an English lesson. Sometimes teachers do not seem to use key questions well. A few appears to think that 'key' questions are any questions they ask. On many occasions the first key question asked by teachers was a 'What... ?' question, although 'How?', 'Why?', 'Do you think ... ?', 'Which ... ?' were also used. It can be tempting to say that 'What?' questions get poor answers and 'How?' questions are thought provoking. In fact, 'What' questions produce both poor (i.e. unanswerable, dull, and pointless) and good (stimulating, enjoyable, and multi-faceted) responses. 'How?' questions can also be either thought provoking or pointless. It is the *content* of the question and its appropriateness to the audience and the subject matter not its form that usually determine success. The same can be said for the key questions in a lesson subsequent to the opener.

Timing. Key questions need not be asked at the beginning of a lesson. Indeed, they can be used to summarize what the children have just learned, so be wary of asking your key questions too early. Never be afraid of asking thought-provoking questions at the right time, nor of spontaneously thinking up a key question during a lesson in the light of its development.

Level. Earlier we mentioned some points regarding levels of questioning, the proper language register, and thought processes appropriate to different circumstances. Here are further questions we have witnessed with comments on their level.

What is the color of the snow?' This question was so ridiculously easy for the 12-year-olds of whom it was asked in a geography lesson that no one replied, thinking that there must be a catch. Some teachers we observed asked only questions that everybody in the class could answer. Repeating these questions, as a few teachers tried, does not work at all well.

'How could you design a home for these owls?' This question was too difficult for the class because they had too little information either about owl" or bird habitats. The children flotmdered and couldn't sort out what was required. The question needed supporting by relevant infonnation first, or breaking down into separate components.

'What is the deference between a wing and an arm?' This looked like a mindboggling question, but in fact it worked well because the class was able to identify several differences and the teacher then was able to help the children classify them.

The best key questions often contained a sense of looking ahead, of helping the lesson to move on. The least effective questions seemed to be going nowhere or only back to what the pupils already knew. Some suggestions for the use of key questions are encapsulated in the mnemonic IDEA.

I - identify the key questions in relation to your objectives for the lesson.

D - Decide on the level and order (timing) of the questions.

E - Extend the questioning. Think of supplementary and subsidiary questions to ask.

A - Analyze the answers that you are likely to receive and the responses that you might give.

5.4 Question Classification Systems

To aid the use of questioning strategies there are question classification systems. The most popular system for classifying questions is Bloom, Englehart, Furst, Hill, and Krathwohl's (1956) taxonomy, known as Bloom's Taxonomy. This taxonomy has proven to be a valuable tool in designing, conducting, and evaluating classroom instruction (Mansion, 1970). In order to detennine the accuracy of children's cognitive activities the teacher can use the taxonomy. Bloom's Taxonomy has six levels of cognitive processing. They are knowledge, comprehension application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. To examine issues concerning questioning it is best to divide Bloom's Taxonomy into lower-order and higher-order questioning (Marzano, 1993). Lower-order questions derive from the knowledge and the comprehension levels of Bloom's Taxonomy. The other levels of Bloom's Taxonomy belong to the higher-order questions (as cited from Filippone, 1998).

Below are the six question kategories as defined by Bloom:

KNOWLEDGE
1. Remembering
2. Memorizing
3. Recognizing
4. Recalling identification
5. Recall of information
   • Who, what, when, where, how ... ?
   • Describe

COMPREHENSION
1. Interpreting
2. Translating from one medium to another
3. Describing in one's own word
4. Organization and selection of facts and ideas
   • Retell . ..

APPLICATION
1. Problem solving
2. Applying information to produce some results
3. Use of facts, rules and principles
   • How is ... an example of. .. ?
   • How is .. . related to .. ?
   • Why is .. . significant?

ANALYSIS
1. Subdividing something to show how it is put together
2. Finding the underlying structure of communication
3. Identifying motives
4. Separation of a whole into component parts
   • What are the parts or features of . .. ?
   • Classify. . . according to . .. ?
   • Outline/diagram ...

- How does . ... compare/contrast with .. . ?
- What evidence can you list for . ... ?

SYNTHESIS

1. Creating a unique, original product that may be in verbal form or may be a physical object

2. Combination of ideas to form a new whole
   - What would you predict/infer from ... ?
   - What ideas can you add to . ... ?
   - How would you create/design a new . ... ?
   - What might happen if you combined . ... ?
   - What solutions would you suggest for. ... ?

EVALUATION

1. Making value decisions about issues

2. resolving controversies or differences of opinion

3. development of opinions, judgements or decision
   - Do you agree . ... ?
   - What do you think about ... ?
   - What is the most important. .. ?
   - Place the following in order to priority .. . ?
   - What criteria would you use to assess ... ?
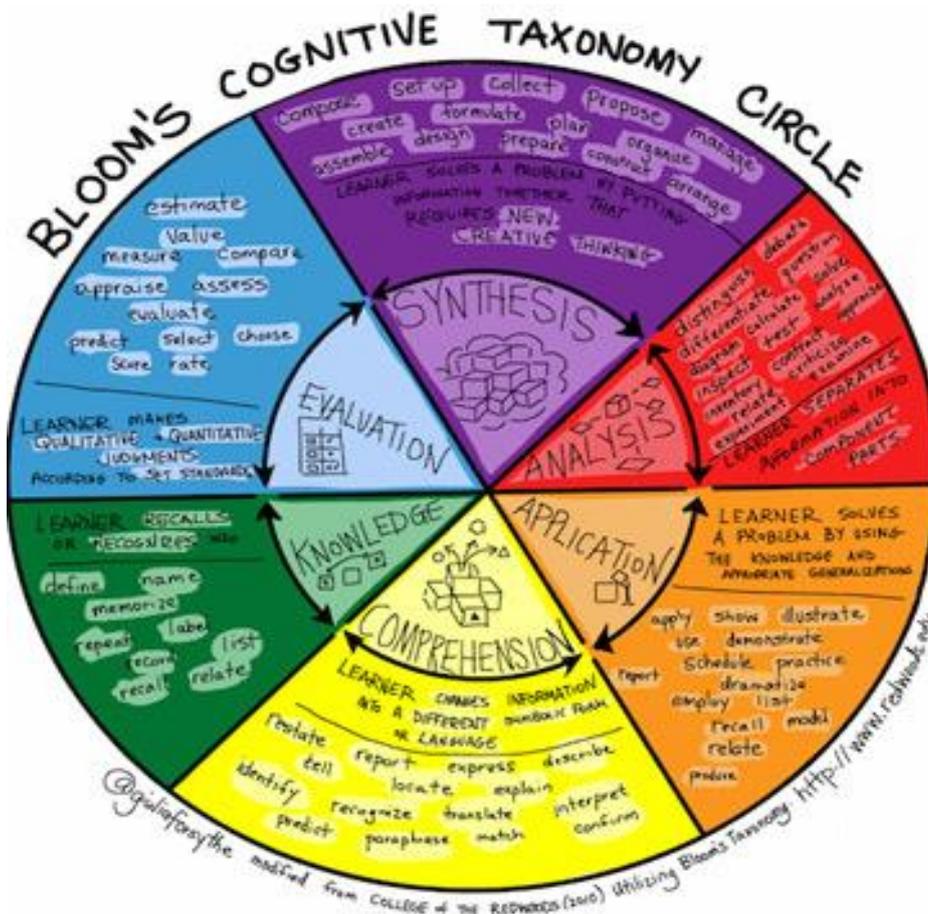
In this lecture review on questioning techniques teachers are suggested to employ the research supplied practices to foster higher student achievement. That's why it is aimed to be the asking the right question in order to receive right answer. For this the teachers or the 'askers' should settle the strnchire in a clear way, wait for the student to think and judge on the question for a while after asking, help them lighten the ambiguity ifs/he has, encourage the students to answer in some way.

The efficiency of the answer based on the efficiency of the question. To maximize the productivity of the students, the teacher and also all the audio - visual classroom materials should be careful of what to ask and how to ask. Because asking is the best way of communicating with tha pupils and make them involved in the lesson.

Practice Tasks

Task 1. Think about why teachers ask questions
Task 2. What types of questions develop thinking and reasoning? Give examples.
Task 3. Planning for effective questioning

Plan how you will arrange the room and the resources needed	Arrange students so that they can see and hear one another as well as the teacher. You may need to rearrange chairs in a U shape or the students could move and 'perch' closer together. Or maybe you will move to the back of the room so that the question is the focus of attention and not the teacher.
Plan how you will introduce the questioning stage	Silence will be hard for you to bear in the classroom but the students may find it confusing or even threatening. Explain why there will be times of quiet.
Plan how you will establish the ground rules	If you are using 'No hands up' then you will need to explain this to the students. Some teachers have had to ask their students to sit on their hands so that they remember not to put their hands up. The students will be allowed to put their hands up to ask a question, so if a hand shoots up remember to ask them what question they would like to ask. The students may also be used to giving short answers so you could introduce a minimum length rule e.g. 'your answer must be five words in length as a minimum'
Plan the first question that you will use	Plan the first question and think about how you will continue. You cannot plan this exactly as it will depend on the answers that the students give but you might, for example, plan: • to take one answer and then ask others what they think about the reasoning given; • to take two or three answers without comment then ask the next person to say what is similar or different about those answers.
Plan how you will give thinking time	• Will you allow 3\5 seconds between asking a question and expecting an answer?

	• Will you ask the students to think–pair–share, giving 30 seconds for talking to a partner before offering an idea in whole class discussion? • Will you use another strategy that allows the students time to think?
Plan how and when you will intervene	Will you need to intervene at some point to refocus students' attention or discuss different strategies they are using? Have one or two questions ready to ask part way through the lesson to check on their progress and their learning.

For your further reading:

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THEME 6. GIVING INSTRUCTIONS IN THE CLASSROOM

6.1 The importance of instruction-giving

6.2 Using TPR to give common instructions

6.3 Descriptions of stages for giving good instructions

6.4 A sample set of instructions

Key words: instruction-giving, rationale, effective instructions, techniques, TPR activities, preparation stage, delivery stage, post-delivery stage.

6.1 The importance of instruction-giving

Instructions and their delivery can be the determining factors as to whether a lesson succeeds or fails. According to Ur (1996), research indicates "that learners see the ability to explain things well as one of the most important qualities of a good teacher" (p. 16). For example, Wragg and Wood's (1984, 82) research found that the teacher's "ability to explain is most highly valued".

This lecture will investigate the importance and rationale for giving clear instructions in the second-language classroom and provide techniques for giving effective instructions.

Instruction-giving has a direct effect on learning; a lesson or activity becomes chaotic and fails when students do not understand what they are supposed to do. Nonetheless, good instruction-giving is a challenge for both native and nonnative language teachers, as well as for both seasoned and novice teachers. However,

instruction-giving is a skill that is sometimes neglected for preservice and in-service teachers in teacher-training programs. New teachers might assume that it is a skill that will be naturally mastered; more experienced teachers might assume that it is a skill they have already mastered. For all language teachers, however, instruction-giving is an area that deserves attention and practice, as it has a major impact on how well students are able to carry out activities and, as a result, how well they learn.

Opinions differ as to whether instruction-giving is a permissible use of the first language (L1) in the second-language (L2) classroom. Atkinson (1987), Auerbach (1993), and Macaro (1997) agree that instruction-giving is an occasion that warrants use of the L1 in the L2 classroom. Both Ur (1996) and Cook (2016) believe that some use of the mother tongue might be necessary. Gardner (2000) assert that students should be introduced to the use of English from the first class; doing so helps students understand that foreign languages are not just subjects to be studied but are also, and more importantly, a means of communication. Therefore, teachers should strive to incorporate the L2 needed for instruction-giving right from the beginning of a course (Salaberri 1995).

Of course, any use of the students' native language is possible only if the instructor has some familiarity with it. In multilingual classes, it is an unrealistic expectation for the instructor to manage explanations in multiple languages. By extension, if teachers who do not speak their students' native language(s) can make their instructions understood in English, it is possible for teachers who speak their students' L1 to make themselves understood in English as well. There might be instances when the use of the L1 for instruction-giving is justified for the sake of efficiency and clarity, but there is a danger of overuse and the possibility that students and teachers will become accustomed to the comfort of instructions in the L1.

6.2 Using TPR to give common instructions

One of the preliminary activities I do with my students at the beginning of each semester is based on Total Physical Response (TPR), a method of language teaching where the teacher gives a command and the students perform the action (Asher 2009). I first give students a handout with a list of common instructional commands used throughout the course, such as *"Take out a pen or pencil"* and *"Turn to page ____"* (see Table 1 for a list of common instructional commands).

• Take out a pen or pencil	• Get into a group of …students. Put your desks together
• Take out a piece of paper	• Make a half-circle with the desks
• Write your name on the paper	
• Open your books	• Look at the board
• Turn to page ….	• Look at the teacher
• Read page ….	• Look at the dialogue
• Close your books	• Repeat after me
• Put your books away	• Raise your hand
• Stand up	• Put your hand down
• Sit down	

• Find a partner. Put your desks face-to-face	• Pass your papers to the front

Table 1. Common classroom instructions in English

After demonstrating the actions and going over the list with students, I give commands and have the students perform them. In my experience, starting the course with TPR for common instructions helps students understand typical classroom language, which has a positive impact on classroom management.

While initial TPR activities lay a foundation for classroom instructions and classroom language, they do not need to be restricted to the beginning of a course. Teachers can add pertinent mini–TPR lessons for instructions (and related classroom language) as the course progresses. TPR lessons for instructions can relate to different aspects of the class, such as *Instructions to Set up Class Work* and *Instructions to Bring the Class to an End* (Gardner 2000; Salaberri 1995), or they can be created based on student needs. Of course, TPR activities should match students' proficiency levels. It is also important not to overwhelm learners with too many instructions in English at once.

6.3 Descriptions of stages for giving good instructions

Following are descriptions of the three stages for giving good instructions: the preparation stage, the delivery stage, and the post-delivery stage.

1. The Preparation Stage

Good instruction-giving begins in the preparation stage. Although teachers may feel they can easily improvise, instructions "are often not as clear to their students as they are to themselves" (Ur 1996, 16). A good way to make sure your instructions for an activity are clear and concise is to write them out as you develop your lesson plan. Scrivener (2011) suggests sticking with words that are familiar to your students, trying to write one sentence for each main point, and—if your instructions seem too long—deleting as many words as possible while still keeping the original meaning. Of course, there will be some variation as to what will be acceptable for your students, depending on their proficiency level. Keep in mind, however, that instructions should be simple and clear for all learners (Ur 1996). Table 2 gives an example of how to revise wordy instructions to make them shorter and more comprehensible.

Wordy Instructions	*Concise Instructions*
1. Now, I would like for you to get out a piece of paper and put it on your desk.	1. Take out a piece of paper.
2. Once the paper is on the desk, could you please write down 5 questions using the present continuous tense?	2. Write down 5 questions using the present continuous tense.
3. Now, that you have written 5 questions, I would like for you to fold the paper in half.	3. Fold your paper in half.

4. Now, when I turn on the music, please pass your paper to the person on the left, and I would like for you to continue passing your papers until the music stops.	4. When the music starts, pass your papers to the left. Continue passing your papers until the music stops.

Table 2. Revising wordy instructions

It is important to plan instructions in advance until you feel confident that you can deliver acceptable instructions without preplanning (Scrivener 2012). Even with sufficient practice, you might find that you sometimes need to plan instructions, especially for complex or multistep tasks and particularly for beginners.

During the preparation stage, think about support mechanisms that might facilitate understanding: gestures, pictures, drawings, or written instructions. Your choice will depend on the context you are working in, your students' proficiency levels, and their backgrounds. For example, you might consider cupping your hand behind your ear while saying "Listen" or, for lower-level students, providing pictures and words that convey the instructions you want to give; see Gardner and Gardner (2000) and Scrivener (2012) for examples. If you are asking students to put the desks in a U-shape, you might draw a U in the air with your finger or on the board. For learners who are more familiar with written text than oral input (such as false beginners in an English as a foreign language setting), you might write out instructions and display them with an overhead projector, a PowerPoint slide, or a flip chart as you read them. This provides oral and written input at the same time and offers extra support until your students become accustomed to your instructions.

As a general rule, you should not hand out worksheets or other materials before giving instructions. As soon as you give materials to students, they will focus on the materials, and you will often find it difficult to reclaim their attention (Scrivener 2012; Ur 1996). However, with some activities, students must have the requisite materials in hand to clearly understand your instructions.

2. The Delivery Stage
We should **arrange student groups** and **furniture** before giving instructions. If you give instructions before arranging pairs and groups, students might forget the instructions in the process of moving around (Proctor 2014). Therefore, before giving instructions for an activity, have students form desired groups and arrange the classroom furniture as needed. Make sure students know which group they are in and where they should sit. To save time and to avoid putting your students in an awkward social position, do not have students select their partners or group members. Selection can be done in a random manner, such as having students count off by numbers or giving students the name of a fruit and letting them find their fruit-group mates. The following script gives an example of instructions for this approach:

Everyone gets a card with the name of a fruit on it. (*Teacher holds up cards and hands them out.*) Find students with the same fruit name. Apples find apples. Pears find pears. When you find your fruit group, put the desks together in a circle.

(*Teacher makes a circle with arms*.) Apples are near the whiteboard. Pears, near the back door. Oranges, next to pears. Strawberries, near the bookshelf. Okay, find your fruit groups and sit together.

Make sure you have your **students' attention** before you start your instructions. If they are not listening to you, the quality of your directions is irrelevant (Scrivener 2012; Ur 1996). There are many ways to get their attention. You can ring a bell, blow a whistle, clap your hands, play music, or stand still. You can also let your students know that when you raise your right hand, it is a signal to be quiet. Once they see you raise your right hand, they should respond by raising their right hands, too, until everyone is quiet and focused on the instructor. You can also alter your voice or use a certain clue phrase, such as "Time to start."

Speak simply but **clearly**. When you give instructions, the point is to make sure your students know what they are expected to do. This can best be accomplished by using simplified language common in instruction-giving, which often includes imperatives and short sentences. According to Doff (1988, p. 227), "most of the language we need for organizing the class consists of simple expressions which can be used again and again." Avoid difficult colloquial language, challenging grammatical structures (especially structures that have not been introduced to students), and complex jargon. Do not use exceptionally polite and complicated language, such as "It would be great if you could possibly open your books now, if you don't mind." Avoid *foreigner talk*, the register we use when speaking to those perceived as nonnative speakers, such as "All learners—talking to partner—make conversation" (Thaine 2010, p. 11). This unnatural language is not only confusing to students; it also models incorrect structures that they might adopt into their own speech (Brown and Larson-Hall 2012). Aim your instructions to be a level or two below your students' current level (Scrivener 2012) and pause after giving an instruction, allowing learners time to absorb the message (Gardner and Gardner 2000; Proctor 2014; Scrivener 2012).

Model your instructions. Meaning is made clearer through demonstration. After you give instructions, whenever possible, model what you want your students to do (Scrivener 2012; Ur 1996). You can do this on your own, with a student, with a pair of students, with a group of students, or with the whole class. Your choice will, of course, depend on the activity and your students. If the activity simply involves question/answer sets, you could pretend that you are two people, A and B, and then model one or two question/answer sets in front of the class. You could also, as Scrivener (2012) suggests, perform the activity as a think-aloud monologue whereby you demonstrate the procedure. For example, "First, I will write five sentences that describe the picture. Then, I will exchange papers with my partner. Next, I will read my partner's paper." You can also model the activity with a student—for example, if you are practicing a dialogue, you are A and the student is B—or you can ask a pair of students to take on the roles of A and B. For activities that involve group work, you can ask for a group of volunteers to come to the front of the room and demonstrate part of the activity for the whole class. If, for instance, you are going to play charades in groups, have a group come to the front and have one student mime an action while the others guess what it is. If you have a whole-

class activity, you can give an example using the entire class. For example, if you are doing a "Find Someone Who … " activity, where students try to find other students based on given information (e.g., finding someone who likes horror movies), you can tell your class that you are playing the role of a student, and then go around asking the question, "Do you like horror movies?" to individual students until you find a student who says "Yes." When you find that person, ask the student's name and then write it down on your paper, following the exact procedure you expect your students to use.

It is sometimes beneficial to model an activity in two steps, using yourself first and the students second. For a question/answer pair-work activity, first demonstrate alone and then have two students demonstrate. For the charade group activity, first tell the class that you are going to mime an action that they should guess. Then call the volunteer group to the front and have one student mime while the others guess.

In most cases, modeling one or two examples will be sufficient to help students understand what they are supposed to do. However, when an activity or procedure is new to students, or when you are working with students who have not had much experience with interactive classroom activities, you might need to give additional examples and more instruction on working in pairs or groups.

Use extra-linguistic devices to aid meaning. Extra-linguistic devices—gestures, facial expressions, voice, and visuals—facilitate the understanding of your instructions. These could be the extra-linguistic devices you thought about during the preparation stage, or they could be devices you decide to use as you give your instructions. Scrivener (2012) suggests developing a set of gestures and facial expressions in your repertoire that you use regularly. When you speak, stress key words and use pauses to give emphasis. You might say, for example, "Write down *three* questions." You can also write key points on the board and make use of pictures.

Break down instructions when there are several steps. For activities that have several steps, give instructions after each step rather than giving all instructions at once. Consider this set of instructions:

Take out a piece of paper and write down five things you did last weekend. Then, for each one, find other students who have done the same thing and write down those students' names next to each sentence. And then, once you have found all the students who have done the same things you did last weekend, you can sit down.

The task itself is not particularly complicated, but when the instructions are given all at once, they seem long-winded and have the potential to confuse students. In this case, it would be better to give one part of the instructions at a time. After students complete each step of the activity, announce the next step. Breaking the instructions down step by step enhances comprehension and allows more opportunities to demonstrate what is expected.

Give students a time limit. Before you start an activity, let students know how much time they will have. This helps students stay focused on the task and manage their time.

Check for understanding. After you give instructions but before you start an activity, make sure your students understand what they are supposed to do. There are many ways to do this, not least through observation. If learners look confused and turn to other students to find out what they are supposed to do, they have not understood your instructions (Gardner, 2000). "Do you understand?" is a common way of checking for understanding, but it is not particularly effective because many students, whether they understand or not, will answer "yes" out of fear of embarrassing themselves in front of their classmates (Scrivener 2012; Ur 1996). A more effective way to check for understanding is to ask *concept-check questions*— simple questions that students can respond to with a short answer. "What are you going to do now?" is not a concept-check question because it asks for a long and possibly complicated answer. Here are three examples of concept-check questions:

"How many students are you going to interview?"

"Who is going to speak first?"

"How many questions are you going to write?"

If your class is at a high-enough level, you can ask a student or students to repeat instructions back to you before starting an activity (Scrivener 2012) or to demonstrate part of the activity so that you know they have understood (Ur 1996). No matter how eager students might be to get started on an activity, do not let them begin until you have finished giving and checking instructions. To let students know you have finished giving instructions and that the activity can begin, give students a clear starting signal such as "Okay, let's begin" (Scrivener 2012).

Avoid giving vague instructions. While your instructions should be concise, they should not be vague. Instructions that are ill-defined can be just as confusing as instructions that are too wordy, detailed, or complex. Telling students "Write a story" or "Get into groups and have a discussion" will likely result in confused looks and a slew of questions. Give students specific tasks (Woodberry and Aldrich 2000) and specific such as "Find three hobbies you have in common with your partner," "Interview your partner using the questions in Exercise A on page 22," and "Listen and draw what I say" let students know exactly what they need to do. Of course, this goes back to the planning stage—when you are writing your lesson plan, be clear about what you will ask your students to do and what instructions you will give.

3. The Post-Delivery Stage

The post-delivery stage allows the teacher to make sure that all students understood the instructions. As students begin an activity, circulate around the room to see if they are carrying it out correctly and give help as needed (Scrivener 2011). Even when you have given good, clear instructions, you might find that students do not know what to do or are confused about some aspect of the instructions. If you find that all or most students are off track, stop the activity and give instructions to the whole class again (Scrivener 2012). If only a few students need help, you can assist them individually or in their groups. Throughout an activity, periodically monitor students and make yourself readily available for assistance. While you do not want to be an imposing or threatening presence, students should know that you are present and involved in what they are doing (Woodberry and Aldrich 2000).

Do not become hostile or defensive if your students have not understood. Placing blame on students who have not understood will only result in making you look incompetent or make students feel inadequate. If you realize that your students have not understood, back up and do some repair. How you accomplish that will depend on numerous factors, such as the activity, you, the learners, the time of day, and so on. Simply repeating the instructions you gave previously might work, or recasting the instructions in different words might be the solution. You might need to give students more examples or model the activity again. You might need to break the activity down into more steps and have students do the activity step by step, or you might need to use a combination of tactics. With patience and a thoughtful approach, you can usually find a way to get students on track.

6.4 A sample set of instructions

The following set of instructions uses the principles discussed to conduct a lesson that occurs in three steps. Prior to this lesson, the students have been practicing using the simple past tense and recently practiced asking and answering yes/no questions in the simple past.

Step 1

Teacher: First, you are going to write down five sentences about what you did last weekend.
Here is an example. (*Teacher shows students the following example on the board*.)
I saw a movie.
I went to the supermarket.
I made a cake.
I cleaned my house.
I read a book.
Teacher: (*pointing to the example on the board*) This is *my* example about what *I* did last weekend. Now, *you* write five sentences about what *you* did last weekend.
(*Students write down five sentences about what they did last weekend while the teacher circulates and gives help as needed*.)

Step 2

Teacher: Now, for each sentence you wrote, you are going to try to find a classmate who did the same thing. (*The teacher returns to the example on the board*.) My first sentence is, "I saw a movie." I want to find a student who also saw a movie. How can I do that?
Students: Ask a question.
Teacher: Right. What is the question?
Students: "Did you see a movie last weekend?"
(*The teacher writes the question next to the example on the board*.)
Teacher: Right. And what answer am I looking for?
Students: "Yes."
Teacher: That's right. Now, I will try to find a student who also saw a movie last weekend.
(*The teacher demonstrates by asking students one at a time if they saw a movie last weekend. When she finds a student who answers "yes," she asks for that student's name and writes it down next to her first sentence*.)

Step 3

Teacher: Now, I also need to find someone for numbers two, three, four, and five. (*pause*) For each sentence you wrote, you are going to try to find someone who answers "yes." You have ten minutes.

(*The teacher conducts concept checks*.)

Teacher: Do you want to find a "yes" or "no" answer for each question?

Students: A "yes" answer.

Teacher: What do you do when you find a "yes" answer?

Students: Write the name.

Teacher: How much time do you have?

Students: Ten minutes.

Teacher: Okay, let's begin.

(*The activity begins. The teacher monitors students to see that they are performing the activity correctly and is available to assist students as needed*.)

While good instruction-giving is an essential part of an effective lesson and an important part of classroom management, it is a skill that is often overlooked in teacher-training programs and in classrooms. An otherwise strong lesson sometimes fails because instructions were not properly delivered. It is not enough to assume that giving good instructions is a naturally acquired skill. Both preservice and in-service teachers need to be attentive to good instruction-giving practices and become aware of their own methods of delivery and how they can be improved.

Practice Tasks

Task 1. Answer the questions

What is the importance of classroom instructions?

How do you provide instructions?

What are the key features of instructions?

Task 2. Choose the right instruction to young learners

Task 3. Write clear instructions based on pictures:

Giving Instuctions

For your further reading

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THEME 7. VALUE AND EFFECTIVENESS OF FEEDBACK IN STUDENTS' LEARNING

7.1 General information

7.2 The importance of feedback in improving learning experience

7.3 Types of feedback

Key words: feedback, effective feedback, summative and formative feedback, formal and informal feedback, motivational and evaluative feedback, oral and written feedback, peer and self feedback, etc.

7.1 General information

Feedback is information a teacher or another speaker, including another learner, gives to learners on how well they are doing, either to help the learner improve specific points, or to help plan their learning. Feedback can be immediate, during an activity, or delayed, at the end of an activity or part of a learning process and can take various forms.

According to Ramaprasad, ''Feedback is information about the gap between the actual level and the reference level of a system parameter which is used to alter the gap in some way'' (1983, p. 4).

Effective feedback should:

- focus on what is being learnt (learning intention) and how students should go about it (success criteria);
- occur as the students are doing the learning;
- provide information on how and why the student has or has not met the criteria;
- provide strategies to help the student to improve.

7.2 The importance of feedback in improving learning experience

There is a great importance of feedback in improving learning experience for the students. This has also significant effect in professionalizing teaching in the higher education level. However, feedback is considered as a difficult issue in this arena. Most of the lecturers are still continuing with the tradition form of feedback. This form of feedbacks often unable to satisfy the students in improving their learning experience. It is high time for the lecturers to re-think about the feedback providing process. They should avoid traditional way of proving feedback towards the students. This lecture comes with some modern and technology based way of proving feedback which can eventually help students in improving student learning experience. This can also help in professionalizing the teaching of lecturers in higher education.

"Assessment theories and academics alike espouse the importance of feedback on performance assessment tasks for supporting improvement and progress in student learning achievement" (Janice Orrella, 2006)

Feedback is considered as a difficult issue in higher education arena. Although it is acknowledged as an essential element of improving the learning process of the students. Considering feedback and its value and effectiveness in student learning, a substantial and growing body of research in higher education environments can be found. Feedback is considered as a vital approach to facilitate students' development as independent learners in order to monitor, evaluate, and regulate their own learning

(Ferguson, 2011). The impact of feedback on future practice and the development of students' learning were highlighted by Eraut (2006):

When students enter higher education . . . the type of feedback they then receive, intentionally or unintentionally, will play an important part in shaping their learning futures. Hence we need to know much more about how their learning, indeed their very sense of professional identity, is shaped by the nature of the feedback they receive. We need more feedback on feedback. (p. 118)

Although there is a large indication supporting the usefulness of feedback to promote student learning however, different student surveys across the world have also emphasized that students are dissatisfied with the feedback they receive on their course works (David Nicol, 2010). Student claim a lack of adequate, timely feedback and their teachers claim that students fail to apply the advice given (Janice Orrella, 2006). It is high time for the lecturers to re-think about the feedback providing process. They should avoid traditional way of proving feedback towards the students. Keeping this aforementioned problem in mind, some suggestions have been made to make feedback more effective and valuable in terms of student learning:

1. Make students understand what good performance or goal means:

It will be easy for the students if they can only achieve learning goals if they understand those goals. They also need to feel some ownership of them, and can understand the self-assessment process (Sadler, 1989). In higher education, there should be a reasonable degree of similarity between the goals set by students and the goals originally set by the teacher. This is rationally vital given that it is the students' goals that serve as the criteria for self-regulation. Nonetheless, there is substantial research evidence showing significant mismatches between tutors' and students' conceptions of goals and of assessment criteria and standards (David J. Nichol and Debra M. Dick, 2006).

2. Simplifies the improvement process of self-assessment or reflections in learning:

Last few years there has been a growing interest in self-assessment or reflections in higher education sector (Boud, 1995). As it has been mentioned earlier, an effective way to improve self-regulation process in students is to provide them the opportunities to exercise regulating characteristics of their own learning and to reflect on that practice. Students are usually involved in monitoring gaps between internally set task goals and the outcomes that they are generating (David J. Nichol and Debra M. Dick, 2006). Developing selfassessment can make feedback more effective.

3. Providing quality information to students about their learning:

The teachers have a vital role in increasing their students' own ability for understanding the self-regulation process. They are also an essential source of external feedback. Traditionally, feedback from teachers has been a source where students can evaluate progress. The students can also check out their own internal progression by the feedback given by the teachers. Furthermore, teachers are usually more effective in detecting mistakes in students' work rather than themselves. As a

result, providing quality information to students is very important to ensuring student learning.

4. Allowing peer dialogue in understanding the feedback:

An approach of increasing the value and effectiveness of feedback and the likelihood that the information provided is understood by students is to conceptualize feedback more as dialogue rather than as information transmission (David J. Nichol and Debra M. Dick, 2006). Feedback as dialogue means that the student will not only get written feedback information but also has the opportunity to have discussion about that feedback afterwards. In this circumstances, in order to make feedback more effective and valuable it should be understood by the student before it can be used to make productive improvements.

5. Inspiring positive motivational beliefs:

Motivation can play a vital part in learning and assessment. Studies on motivation and self-esteem are significant as they help students to understand self-regulation where they often fail. In teaching, it is recommended that motivation and self-esteem are probable to be improved when a course has many lowstakes assessment tasks. While feedback provides evidence about progress and achievement, rather than high stakes summative assessment tasks where evidence is only about success or failure or about how students compare with their peers (David J. Nichol and Debra M. Dick, 2006).

6. Effective feedback can provide information to teachers that can be used to help shape the teaching:

Good feedback practice can not only provide useful information to the students in improving their learning, but also can offer decent information to teachers which is eventually improve the learning experience for the students. Yorke (2003) argues the following regarding this issue:

The act of assessing has an effect on the assessor as well as the student. Assessors learn about the extent to which they [students] have developed expertise and can tailor their teaching accordingly (Yorke, 2003, p. 482).

While producing relevant and informative feedback in meeting the students' demand, the teachers themselves need to have fair idea about the students' progression. They eventually become more involved in reviewing and reflecting on students' performance which drives them to make better learning environment.

7. Giving positive feedback

At the time of providing feedback it is important that after reading that a student should have a positive feeling about that feedback (Piccinin, 2003). This is considered as a process of motivating the students to utilise the feedback they have received. Feedback should not be discouraging the students at any cost.

Obviously, it is vital to draw the student's attention to the less successful parts of a coursework, however the teachers should be cautious in providing "negative feedback" of this kind. Thus teachers can improve students' learning environment by presenting the feedback in a positive way.

8. Choosing the right moment

Sometimes it has been observed that teachers overburden students with feedback. One important issue modern day lecturers need to understand that they

should limit the amount of feedback they are providing (Brinko, 1993; Ende, 1983). Or else the teachers may find their students uninterested and bored with the feedback they are getting. Similarly, teachers should not set up too many criteria. They should limit the number of criteria to the most important aspects of a coursework and giving feedback on them (Sadler, 1985).

7.3 Types of Feedback

Feedback can be both summative (an evaluation, typically given by a score, of a student's work or at the end of a period of study) and formative (information that is intended to help the learner in some way, given continuously during learning) (Lee, 2017, p. 11). This distinction is often captured in the terms 'assessment of learning (AoL)' and 'assessment for learning (AfL)'. In practice, feedback is almost always to some extent judgmental and it is often intended to serve both purposes, but how feedback is given will depend on the relative importance that is given to these broad purposes.

Motivational	Evaluative	Descriptive	Actionable
Feedback is *primarily motivational*	Feedback is *primarily evaluative*	Descriptive feedback primarily *tells* the student how to correct their reasoning	Actionable feedback *asks* the the student to move their learning to the next level and gives them ideas on how
Purpose: to encourage and support the learner	**Purpose:** to measure student achievement with a score or a grade	**Purpose:** to improve learning by indicating to the student what needs to be improved	**Purpose:** to improve learning, by moving student reasoning to the next level
More summative		**More formative**	

Feedback can take many forms such as oral, written, informal, formal, descriptive, evaluative, peer and self-assessed feedback. It is the quality of feedback that counts. Students and parents need to be made aware of the different forms of feedback, and that comments or oral feedback, can be just as impactful and important as marks.

Chappuis (2012) describes 3 conditions, regardless of the form of feedback, that need to be in place before offering feedback:

- students need a clear vision of the intended learning;
- instructional activities need to align directly with the intended learning and students need to see that connection;
- assessments need to be set up so that students can interpret the results as indicators of what they have or have not yet learned.

Feedback can take many forms, some are more effective than others, some are equally as effective as others and some overlap with each other.

Oral and written feedback

Oral feedback is usually given during a lesson while written feedback tends to be given after a task. Oral feedback is sometimes underestimated because it is less formal, but it can be a very powerful and effective tool as it can be provided easily in the 'teachable moment' and in a timely way.

Asking students 'What do you notice about _____?' or 'How does this match the criteria?' stimulates their thinking about their learning.

Effective written feedback provides students with a record of what they are doing well, what needs improvement and suggested next steps.

Effective written feedback also needs to be timely, written in a manner that is understandable to the student and actionable so that the student can make revisions.

Written feedback needs to include information about where the student has met the learning intentions and/or success criteria and where improvement is still required.
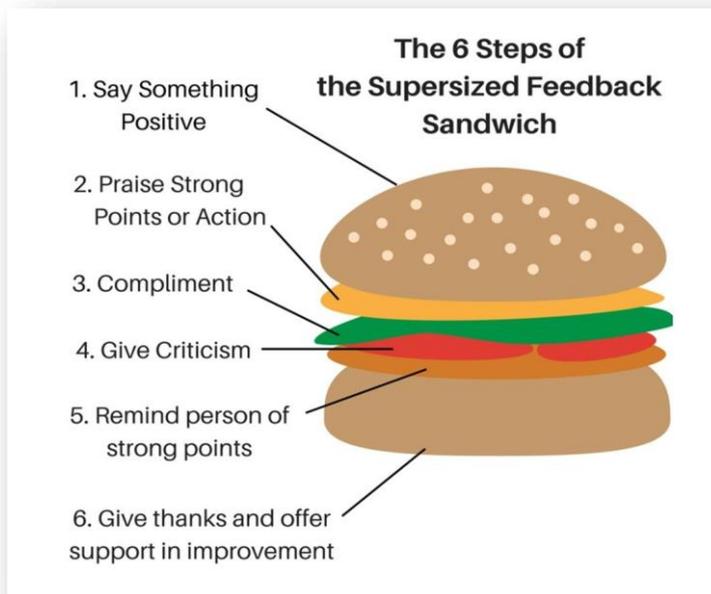
When to give feedback

Ideally, feedback takes place during the learning as students work on a task. Or it can be offered as soon as possible after the task, allowing time for improvements to be made.

Feedback during learning allows students to take feedback on board immediately and to try to realise improvement during the learning process. This is often more effective and productive to the learning experience than end-of task feedback measures (usually summative) which require students to remember the feedback and apply the recommended strategies to a future task.

Too often feedback that is provided to students after learning has concluded is not used by the students to improve their work. This often results in teachers making the same comments over and over again, and wondering why the student has not transferred the information to another context.

For such feedback to influence subsequent learning, students must remember it, translate it into advice that is transferable across tasks, and apply it the next time they encounter a task in which this learning could apply.

The 6 Steps of the Supersized Feedback Sandwich

1. Say Something Positive
2. Praise Strong Points or Action
3. Compliment
4. Give Criticism
5. Remind person of strong points
6. Give thanks and offer support in improvement

Evaluative and descriptive feedback

Feedback can also be either evaluative, involving a value judgment, or descriptive, providing guidance for improvement.

Evaluative feedback, in the form of grades or brief general comments, for example 'well done', provides some information about learning, but does not convey the information and guidance that students can use to improve.

In attempting to create a positive climate for learning, many teachers increase the level of praise they give during feedback sessions. Research shows, however, that praise needs to be realistic if the feedback is to be meaningful. To be really effective, praise needs to confirm a child's own sense of reality. The impact of feedback on learning achievement has been found to be low when it is focused on praise, rewards and punishment.

Descriptive feedback provides students with detailed, specific information about improving their learning.

So this means descriptive feedback is linked to the learning that is expected, addresses faulty interpretations and lack of understanding and provides students with visible and manageable 'next steps'. These 'next steps' are based on an assessment of the work at hand and an image of what 'good work looks like' so that they can begin to take on the responsibility of self-assessing and self-correcting.

An example of descriptive feedback is: 'That's a good introduction because you have covered the main points we discussed at the beginning. Now … which points do you think you should expand on?'

Informal and formal feedback

Teachers can meet with a few students per day or per week depending on specific projects, deadlines and individual student needs. It is important to plan these conferences in a structured way with a focus on individualised goals so both teacher and student make good use of their time.

When preparing and holding student-teacher conferences, remember the following:

- look at student work beforehand;
- use a checklist or feedback form that students can use as a reference for making revisions;
- focus on 2 or 3 items that need work and show how to improve them;
- make time for the student to ask questions and give input.

When teachers use formal conferencing along with informal feedback, students are better protected from failure, and are set up for success.

Informal check-ins can be used to see how students are progressing and usually occur during the learning. 'Check ins' are considered informal and are vitally important to providing effective feedback. They:

- occur when the teacher visits students as they are engaged in a task to make sure they are on the right track
- can quickly and effectively steer students in the right direction and enhance learning.

Formal feedback is often written or a combination of oral and written, and usually occurs at the end of a task. It can be provided through structured conferences with specific goals.

Peer and self-feedback

Peer feedback occurs when students offer each other advice and suggestions in relation to each other's work. Self-feedback must be taught explicitly to ensure students have the skills to apply this to their own work.

One way to facilitate peer feedback is through the use of structured peer conferences. This provide students with the opportunity to give and receive feedback about ongoing work and a positive aspect is that students get to see other students' work which can also deepen understanding of the learning goals.

Once students have had time to practice, know what the requirements are, and are aware of expectations, peer conferences can be an integral part of the feedback process.

As with teacher feedback, peers can offer suggestions and comments on:

- what has been done well in relation to the learning intention/ success criteria;
- what still needs to be done in order to achieve the learning intention/ success criteria;
- how to achieve that improvement.

However, left to their own devices to give feedback, many students will use the time to chat, criticise the other students' work or get nothing done. To counteract this teachers need to:

- model and role play how to give feedback in a constructive way;
- explicitly teach students how to provide effective feedback to each other;
- hold students accountable for the comments, suggestions and feedback they give one another;
- use scaffolds like peer feedback forms, which can be checked by the teacher to provide more structure to peer conferences.

Self-feedback is the ultimate goal of feedback for learning. Teachers can help students to become more independent through explicit modelling and instruction, and teaching the skills of self-assessment and goal setting.

To help students reach autonomy teachers can:
- explicitly identify, share and clarify learning goals and success criteria;
- model the application of criteria using samples;
- provide guided opportunities for self-feedback;
- teach students how to use feedback to determine next steps and set goals;
- allow time for self-feedback/reflection.

Thus, this lecture throws a light on improving the feedback process in higher education. It shifts the focus firmly away from the old delivery models of feedback to modern, effective and more valuables ones. Giving feedback is an important skill for lecturers in higher education and has a major influence on the quality of the students' learning process. With some guideline provided within the lecture it has been tried to contribute to a general acceptance of different feedback practices as important learning tools in higher education.

It is clear that this is high time when lessons should re-think about the feedback process to improve the students' learning. Here I tried to provide some key principles of good feedback practice that can address a wide spectrum - the cognitive, behavioural and motivational aspects of reflections.

Practice Tasks

1. Answer the questions:
  a) What is feedback?
  b) What types of feedback are there?
  c) Name 6 steps of supersized feedback sandwich?
  d) Describe summative and formative feedback?
  e) What different kinds of feedback can teachers give learners?
  f) When do teachers give feedback to learners?

2. Match the ways a teacher gave feedback on students' written work with the aims listed A– F for questions 1-5
  1. The teacher marked students' writing using a correction code. Then she gave them time in the lesson to improve their work while she monitored.
  2. The teacher gave an overall grade for letters students had written for homework. He also gave them an example letter to look at.
  3. The teacher used a system of smiling and sad faces to give students feedback on their written work.
  4. The teacher noted mistakes from students' written work and used these to prepare a language quiz, which students did in teams.
  5. The teacher only commented on the content of stories that students had written.

A. to develop students' oral fluency and accuracy
B. to focus students on the pronunciation of the target language
C. to encourage a focus on content rather than form
D. to encourage peer correction of target language
E. to ensure that the activity is able to move forward when communication breaks down
F. to re-clarify the target language for the whole class so that students can use it correctly

For your further reading:

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THEME 8. THE USE OF MOTHER TONGUE IN ESL CLASSROOM

8.1 General information
8.2 L1 and the teacher
8.3 L1 and the student
8.4 Teaching techniques, tools and activities
Key words: ESL classroom, L1, L2, core and social functions, CEFR, bilingual instructions and etc.

8.1 General information

A little less than ten years ago, it was possible to refer to the learners' L1, or first language, as the 'elephant in the room' of English language teaching (Levine, 2011). Teachers could not fail to be aware of this elephant, or its impact on their students' learning, but it was rarely mentioned. Largely absent from teacher training courses and manuals, from conferences, journals and books, the topic was ignored

in the discourse of ELT and it was generally held that the L1 itself should be avoided by learners.

The widespread belief that English is best taught through English alone, without the mediation of the L1, can be traced to the beginning of the 20th century when there was a rapid development of private language schools for adults, who wanted to learn a language for practical, rather than academic, reasons.1 The marketing of these schools often focussed (as it still does) on the difference between their English-only approach and the more traditional methodologies typically used in secondary school classrooms, which were based on the 19th century 'Grammar-translation' approach. In Grammar-translation approaches, the main focus was on grammar, which was explained by the teacher in the L1, and a significant part of classroom time was devoted to translating sentences into and out of the target language.

Since then, a policy of English-only has spread, with many different institutions banning the use of the L1. Times, however, have changed. Since the publication of Guy Cook's *Translation in Language Teaching* (2010), a consensus position has evolved in the academic community (but much less so for the time being in educational institutions) that not only is a policy of English only unachievable in many contexts, but it may also be undesirable. The lack of research in support of an English only policy, and a large number of research findings indicating that occasional use of L1 may be beneficial2, has led to new interest in the role of L1 in learning another language. This is now reflected in revisions to teacher training manuals and the specifications of teacher training qualifications, at conferences and in publications.

In addition to the acknowledgement that the use of L1 in English language classrooms does not necessarily entail the adoption of a traditional Grammar-translation approach, there have been a number of other developments which have challenged the orthodoxy of English-only methodology. Most significant among these is a reconceptualization of the aims of language learning. There is a growing recognition that the objective for most language learners is not to become like a nativespeaker, since (1) this is not necessary (or even helpful) for what they want or need to do in English, and (2) they are unlikely to achieve it. A more appropriate and realistic objective is to become a communicatively competent bilingual. Described by the Council of Europe (2001: 4) as 'a competence […] in which languages interrelate and interact', a bilingual approach is likely to be more appropriate and fruitful than a strict policy of Englishonly.

The updated Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2018) includes mediation (between languages) as a key component in its framework for describing how languages are used. 'Can-do' statements now include competences like translating from one language to another, or explaining, in one language, information that is derived from a text in another. In the perspective of the Council of Europe, plurilingual and pluricultural competence are fundamental parts of the aims of language education.

Like the research into the role of L1 in language learning, the move towards a more comprehensive description of language competences in the CEFR is

informed by both a deeper understanding of the language backgrounds of language learners and of the increasing diversity of language classrooms. Many classrooms, especially in large cities, contain students with very varied language backgrounds and learning needs. For example, the first language that a learner acquired as a baby may not be the same as the language that they feel most comfortable with now, and neither of these may be the same as the shared language of the classroom in which they are learning English. The rising global popularity of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) also requires educators to rethink their policies on the language of instruction. CLIL, where school subjects and an additional language are taught in tandem, is a quintessentially bilingual approach. There are many different models of CLIL, but, in most, code-switching (switching from one language to the other) and translanguaging (the process of using all one's language resources to achieve communicative goals) are standard features.

In the light of these changes, it is not surprising that English-only policies in English language classrooms are being rethought in many parts of the world. The rest of this paper explores ways in which the L1 may be exploited in more contemporary and communicative approaches, along with reasons for doing so.

8.2 L1 and the teacher

Teachers' attitudes. The attitudes of teachers towards the use of L1 in the English language classroom is reflected in their teaching practices. Their attitudes will be shaped by a number of factors, including their own experience as language learners, the pre-service and in-service training that they experience, the institutional policies of the institutions in which they are working, and their experience as teachers. The picture that emerges from surveys into teachers' attitudes is mixed.

Taking a global figure of English language teachers working in a wide variety of contexts, the majority believe that the L1 should be excluded from or limited in English lessons (Hall & Cook, 2013). When, however, researchers investigate teachers' actual use of L1 in the classroom (see the next section), they find that many teachers make much greater use of L1 in their classrooms than their attitudes would seem to indicate. There is often a conflict between the professed desires of teachers about L1 use and their classroom realities (Copland & Neokleous, 2011). Researchers have found that teachers often talk about 'resorting to', rather than 'using', the L1, and the choice of language reflects this tension between desired and actual practices. In this light, it is unsurprising that a substantial number of teachers (around 36% in Hall & Cooks' (2013) survey) report feelings of guilt when they feel they need to use the L1. This is clearly a cause for concern: a sense of guilt is unlikely to be helpful to teachers who are striving to understand the issues and to develop professionally (Macaro, 2005). Rather than seeing L1 as a crutch to lean on in times of need, teachers will benefit from a fuller understanding of the role of L1 in language learning, so that they may exploit its potential more fully.

Many teachers make much greater use of L1 in their classrooms than their attitudes would seem to indicate.

Teachers' actual use of L1 in the classroom. There is a wide variation in the amount of L1 use by English language teachers. There are classes where it is used for as much as 90% of the time, and others where it is never used. The latter is usually

found in multilingual classrooms without a shared classroom language or when the teacher cannot speak the L1 of the students. These contexts are not uncommon in private language schools, especially in English-speaking countries, but are otherwise rare. More commonly, it would appear that the L1 is typically used somewhere between 20% and 40% of the time when there is a shared L1 or classroom language. For most teachers in most contexts, some degree of L1 use is a feature of their everyday classroom practice.

On the whole, teachers make much greater use of the L1 with classes of students at lower levels. This can help to aid motivation and alleviate frustration, and the practice is supported by researchers such as Swain and Lapkin (2000) and Macaro (2000). L1 is also more frequently used in larger classes where teachers feel that it is more effective in developing a good classroom atmosphere and maintaining discipline, than it is in smaller classes.

Since larger classes are more common in state-run institutions than in private schools, it is unsurprising to find that there is greater L1 use in the former. Other factors that can lead to greater L1 use include:

- the stage of a course (it may take some time for some students to get used to lessons where L1 is not widely used);
- the length of a lesson (lessons of over an hour in length that are conducted exclusively in English may become very tiring);
- the previous learning experiences of the students.

A number of studies have investigated the different ways in which teachers use the L1. These can be broadly divided into two categories: 'core functions' and 'social functions'.

Core functions	Social functions
concerned with the teaching of language	*concerned with the management of the classroom*
- explaining grammar and vocabulary; - checking understanding of grammar, vocabulary and texts.	- managing personal relationships (e.g. building rapport, maintaining discipline); - giving instructions; - dealing with administrative matters.

Figure 1. Core and social functions for use of L1

In the widest-ranging survey of how teachers use the L1 in English language classrooms, Hall & Cook (2013) found that it was the 'core functions' that featured most prominently. It is worth remembering that there is no evidence that this explanatory function of L1 in language teaching is in any way detrimental to learning, so long as it is not overused.

Of the social functions in L1, the development of rapport and the maintenance of discipline appear to be the most common. Expressions of sympathy, for example, are likely to be better understood (by lower level learners) if articulated in the L1. Discipline, with its almost inevitably negative affective response, is probably better not associated with the language that is being studied.

Whether the L1 is being used for core or social functions, the teacher's decision to use it is often motivated by a desire to speed things up (Macaro, 2005) or to keep the lesson moving. The time that is saved by quickly sorting something out in the L1 is time that can be used later for more productive activities (Harbord, 1992). More examples of the way in which limited L1 use may lead to greater use of English will be found in the section 'Practical classroom implications' below.

Taken together, it is clear that the different functions of classroom L1 used by the teacher can play an important role in facilitating language learning. Teachers will take into account both linguistic and non-linguistic factors when making decisions about whether or not to use the L1. Its role is likely to be more important with lower-level and younger learners, especially pre-schoolers (Scheffler & Domińska, 2018).

Arguments and counter-arguments for the exclusion of L1 from the classroom Educational institutions may have a number of reasons for a strict English-only policy. The most common is usually a desire to differentiate the teaching approach in the institution from that which students (or their sponsors) have experienced elsewhere, especially in secondary school. There may be a perceived commercial advantage that comes with this approach, and if learners have strong expectations of being taught exclusively through English, it would be counterproductive to disappoint them, especially in short courses. There is also a practical issue which is resolved in strict English-only approaches. Most people would agree that the use of L1 should be limited: the more encounters with English the better. On the other hand, if L1 is allowed, how much should be allowed? There is a reasonable anxiety that if a little L1 is allowed, a lot will creep in. It often seems more practical to ban it altogether.

There is always a set of pedagogical justifications behind policy decisions to exclude the L1. The most frequently cited are the following:

1. Learners need to learn to think in English, and the use of L1 discourages them from doing so.

2. The use of L1, especially translation, will exacerbate the problems of first-language interference, because it encourages the false belief that there is a word-forword equivalence between languages.

3. The time that is spent using the L1 is time that is not spent in using English, so L1 use deprives learners of valuable learning opportunities.

4. Translation is not a valuable skill to practise; learners should focus on the four main skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing.

All these arguments resonate with many people's common sense, but all four are worth closer inspection.

1. Learners need to learn to think in English. The argument that learners need to learn to think in English is premised on the idea that languages can and should be compartmentalised differently in the brain. The architecture of the brain, however, does not work like this. There is not one part of the brain that controls L1 and another which controls English. There is clear evidence that the brain processes two or more languages in parallel, at least to some extent. Furthermore, although the language of thought is closely related to the language we speak, it also includes imagery, sensory and emotional elements. To the extent that we do think in a

language we can speak, it is unlikely that this will be anything other than L1 until we have reached an advanced level (C1+) (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). The majority of learners do not need, may not wish and will not achieve a level of proficiency that would permit 'thinking' in English. What most learners do need to achieve, however, is a level of proficiency where they can process English without always mentally translating from their L1. The exclusion of L1 from English lessons does not accelerate the development of this fluency.

    *2. **The use of L1 will exacerbate the problems of first language interference***.

    First language transfer (or 'interference' as it is sometimes called) is familiar to all teachers. We tend to notice it more when it leads to errors, and less when it leads to accurate language use, but it is not always negative. Very often, transfer effects can be both helpful and misleading. The general meaning of the English word 'language', for example, is readily accessible to speakers of French, as it resembles the French words 'langue' and 'langage'. This helpfulness is, however, limited, as neither 'langue' nor 'langage' always translate into English as 'language'. 'Un professeur de langues' is 'a language teacher', while 'la langue maternelle' is 'the mother tongue'. At the same time, the pronunciation of 'language' is very different from the French 'langage', and transfer effects may cause some problems.

    Language transfer occurs in all learning situations, so it is unlikely that it is the consequence of using L1 in the classroom. A common result of language transfer is difficulty with 'false friends' and it is hard to think of a more efficient way of dealing with this area than by directly comparing the two languages. More generally, word-forword translation tasks may be one of the most effective ways of encouraging learners to notice the differences between English and their L1 (Laufer & Girsai, 2008).

    *3. **Time spent using the L1 is time that would be better spent using English.*** As regards the third argument, it is clear that as much time as possible should be spent using English, but it does not follow that all classroom exchanges should be in English. Indeed, some classroom activities will be more productive when students are allowed to switch between English and their L1. These include, especially at lower levels and with younger learners, the development of self-motivation, metacognitive awareness-raising, self-assessment tasks and training in learning strategies. As noted above, teachers often use the L1 for reasons of economy and small amounts of it may make more time available for English. Specific examples will be found in the section, 'Practical classroom implications'. In the context of classroom communicative speaking activities, further discussion and examples can be found in the Cambridge Paper in ELT, 'How much time should we give to speaking practice?' (Kerr, 2017).

    *4. **Translation is not a valuable skill to practice***. The argument that translation is not a useful skill relies on a very narrow definition of the term. It would be hard to argue that the translation of short literary extracts into and out of English, which was a feature of Grammar-translation approaches, has any great value as a life-skill, however intellectually challenging it may be. However, if translation is viewed more broadly as mediation (see reference to the new CEFR descriptors in

the 'Introduction' of this paper) between speakers of two languages, its value is undeniable.

Anyone who has worked or studied in a community, or lived in a country where the language is not their own, will know that translation is part of their everyday bilingual practice. Translation, as Cook (2010) has observed, is a major part of communicative bilingual competence. In addition to its importance in a globalised and multilingual world, it has rich educational potential as a learning, diagnostic and testing tool. Concrete examples follow in the remaining parts of this paper. We should not forget, either, that many people find it enjoyable and stimulating.

The pedagogical and linguistic arguments that are advanced for excluding the L1 from English language classes may be said to be, at best, 'not proved'. There is now a very clear consensus, among applied linguists, that some use of L1 can support the learning of English. This does not, however, mean that an English-only policy is inappropriate in all contexts for all students all of the time. Whilst the main message from research is clear, we need to bear in mind that all research is carried out in contexts which may be rather different to the context in which particular teachers are working. Practical and tactical considerations will need to be weighed up against research findings.

8.3 L1 and the student

The belief, shared by many educational institutions, that English is best taught through English alone is not shared by all learners of the language. In fact, surveys of learners' attitudes towards the use of L1 in their classes regularly show that a majority approve of some L1 use. This is true of both adults and younger learners, and particularly the case with lower-level students.

This preference is also reflected in the enormous success of online language learning programmes, such as Duolingo, which use translation exercises. The most reliable way of finding out about the attitudes towards L1 use of students in a particular class is to ask them. The questionnaire in figure 2 could be used or adapted for this purpose.

Questionnaire: using your own language in the classroom

Tick the boxes	always	sometimes	occasionally	never
1. Do you prefer your teacher to use your own language when…				
…giving instructions and managing the class?				
…explaining grammar and vocabulary?				
…correcting errors?				
…chatting with the class?				
…helping individual students?				
2. **Do you prefer your teacher to allow you to use your own language when…**				
…you want to check something with another student?				

…you want to look something up (e.g. in a bilingual dictionary)?				
…you don't understand something?				
…you are feeling tired?				

Figure 2. Student questionnaire on using L1 in the classroom

A questionnaire such as this can provide both the teacher and the school with valuable information. In classes where students use their L1 too often, the questionnaire can be a useful starting-point for a discussion leading to an agreed class policy on when L1 is allowed and when it is not. As a reflective task, it may also lead students to a greater awareness of themselves as learners and to a re-evaluation of their learning preferences and strategies.

This, in turn, may lead to learning gains. Before acting on the outcome of this questionnaire, teachers and schools may need to find out more about the attitudes of other stakeholders, such as the parents of younger learners or the companies paying for professional English courses.

The largest research project looking into the ways in which students use L1 in their English classes was carried out by Hall & Cook (2013) and gathered data from 2,785 teachers in 111 countries. They found that the most frequent uses were consulting or studying bilingual word lists or dictionaries, comparing English grammar to the grammar of their own language, and watching Englishlanguage videos with L1 subtitles. All of these activities have a useful role to play in language acquisition. The next most frequent use of L1 was to prepare for tasks and activities before actually carrying out the task in English.

This is not always welcomed by teachers, but it can serve a number of useful purposes:

1) it may help students to understand better what the task requires;
2) it may reduce the cognitive load of the task;
3) it may help students to motivate each other.

Without such preliminaries in L1, the task may not be completed, or even started. Unfortunately, Hall & Cook's research (2013) did not offer any data on the students' use of L1 in the classroom for off-task reasons, such as chatting about topics that are unconnected to the lesson. Although such 'misbehaviour' can be observed in all kinds of classes, it is often particularly prevalent in groups of children at the higher end of primary school and the lower grades of secondary. It is at these ages that children feel the strongest need to explore their emerging identities by 'talking the right talk' (Tarone & Swain, 1995). Avoidance of the target language, English, and concomitantly a higher level of the L1, may be a way of limiting the possibilities of embarrassment or negative peer evaluation. Whilst these moments may be seen as disciplinary matters, teachers need to be careful not to be strict. Effective classroom management usually entails some acceptance of off-task behaviour. A zero-tolerance policy, even if it can be implemented, may banish the L1, but it also runs the risk of making students even less willing to take risks in speaking English. Some tolerance of L1 may be a necessary condition in creating a

safe speaking environment in which learners feel able to explore the limits of their language competence.

8.4 Teaching techniques, tools and activities

Teaching techniques. Effective classroom management usually entails some acceptance of off-task behaviour. In teachers' groups on social media, the debate around the use of the L1 in the English language classroom often centres on the need for teachers to discourage their students' reliance on it. If, the argument goes, the teacher makes extensive use of the L1, the students cannot be expected to act any differently. In order to maintain the flow of a lesson, it is certainly tempting for a teacher to switch into the shared language, especially for instructions and explanations. The short-term gain may, however, lead to long-term pain as English becomes the language that is spoken about, rather than spoken with. To avoid this danger, many teachers believe, understandably, that the best classroom tactic is to implement an English-only policy.

Unfortunately, it does not always follow that an Englishonly policy will lead to more English language use in the classroom. If learners at a lower level are struggling to understand instructions or explanations in English, it is highly unlikely that they will produce much English. Similarly, a speaking task that is inappropriate for a group of learners, because of its language demands or its lack of relevance to their lives, will not be more successful if English-only is insisted on.14 Silence is a more probable outcome. A small number of classroom management techniques that make limited use of the L1 can (1) facilitate more extended opportunities to use English in both speaking and listening, (2) provide useful opportunities for English language learning, and (3) be reassuring to the learners.

1. Sandwiching. It is advisable for a teacher to use as much English as possible when speaking to a class – for instructions, explanations or any other interaction. This 'teacher talk' can and should provide multiple opportunities for students to practise listening comprehension. But there will always be things that a teacher wants or needs to say that the students will not know and that cannot easily be paraphrased. Basic language for giving instructions includes verbs like 'match' and phrases like 'on your own'. Both paraphrasing and miming are possible, but neither will be easy. An alternative is 'sandwiching'. In this technique, the teacher speaks in English, but when they come to an item that will be problematic for the students, they say it first in English, then say the equivalent in the L1, and finally repeat it in English. For example: *Work in pairs, ... work in pairs, and compare your answers.*

When a word or expression has been sandwiched a few times, it should be possible for the teacher to assume that it will be understood without sandwiching next time. The technique can be used both for important language (e.g. the language of instructions) and for less important items that need to be understood, but can then be forgotten. Over time, very large amounts of language can be acquired by students in this way.

Sandwiching has been described as the single most important technique in foreign language teaching, but it requires practice and teachers need to be careful not to overuse it.

2. Bilingual instructions. Sandwiching is an efficient way of moving away from a reliance on the L1 in classroom language. If possible, teachers should keep a record of language that they have introduced in this way. It is also a good idea for students to have some sort of record. One way of doing this is to have a wall display where the phrases that have been presented are shown alongside their L1 equivalents (see figure 3). The display is most valuable and versatile if the phrases are on individual pieces of paper or card. Like this, items can removed and new ones added when needed. Items can also be jumbled and, as a filler activity, students can be asked to rearrange the cards (see figure 4).

Another common and useful bilingual technique in giving instructions is for the teacher to explain an activity in English and then nominate a student to repeat the instructions in the L1.

Get into pairs.	Bildet Paare.	Get into pairs.	Überprüft eure Antworten.
Work on your own.	Jeder arbeitet für sich.	Work on your own.	Findet die den Bilden entsprechenden Worte.
Check your answers.	Überprüft eure Antworten.	Check your answers.	kursiv
Compare your answers.	Vergleicht eure Antworten.	Compare your answers.	fettgedruckt
in the correct order	in der richtigen Reihenfolge	in the correct order	Jeder arbeitet für sich.
in bold	fettgedruckt	in bold	Bildet Paare.
in italics	kursiv	in italics	in der richtigen Reihenfolge
Match the words to the pictures.	Findet die den Bilden entsprechenden Worte.	Match the words to the pictures.	Vergleicht eure Antworten.

Figure 3: English/German bilingual instructions, Kerr (2014)

Figure 4: English/German bilingual instructions jumbled up, Kerr (2014)

3. Own-language moments. High levels of both concentration and motivation are required to operate in a language that you are learning. There is a lack of hard evidence concerning the length of time for which it is possible to concentrate with sustained attention on classroom language learning tasks. The time varies from individual to individual and from one kind of task to another. It will also be affected by a large number of factors, including mood, motivation, the size of the class and the time of the day. Many of these are outside the control of both learner and teacher. The lower the level of a learner, the harder it is to concentrate for long periods of time. In addition, the younger the learner, the shorter the period of time for which they will be able to concentrate. Since younger learners tend to have lower levels, the problems of attention span are compounded. With adults, it is estimated that attention span is rarely likely to exceed 20 minutes, but most students in any given class will not be able to concentrate for anything like that long.

Bearing these issues in mind, it is perhaps unrealistic to expect English language learners, especially lower level, younger learners, to be able to concentrate

properly throughout a lesson of forty minutes or more, when only English is allowed. Whether the teacher likes it or not, there will be moments when students 'switch off'. As far as possible, it is better for the teacher to manage when this switching off takes place. 'Ownlanguage moments', when the students are allowed to use their own language for a few minutes, are one way of attempting to manage attention spans.

The opportunity to recharge batteries in one's own language for a few minutes may be more than enough justification for occasional own-language moments. However, there are other moments in language classes when such moments may pay dividends. Examples include:

• <u>before a speaking activity</u>: Students need time to brainstorm ideas and prepare what they are going to say before they are asked to say it. If the L1 is allowed for some of this preparation, it is likely that students will come up with more ideas, and that the speaking which follows will be more extended.

• <u>during a speaking activity</u>: When students are saying very little during a communicative speaking task, a teacher will either need to take some kind of remedial action or abandon the activity. One remedial possibility is to stop the activity and allow a few minutes of additional preparation time, when students talk with their partners in the L1 and / or consult bilingual resources. When the activity restarts, students work with a new partner. A second possibility is to ask the students to repeat the activity in the L1 for a few minutes. After they have done this, they restart the activity in English with a new partner.

• <u>talking about learning</u>: Research has shown clearly that opportunities to reflect on the learning process and to self-evaluate can lead to gains not only in language proficiency, but also in motivation and selfconfidence.

These opportunities may be quite short (at the end of a speaking task, for example) or more extended and formalised. At levels up to and including B1, such activities will need to be conducted in the L1. It is important that students understand when the L1 is allowed and when they are expected to use English only.

Teachers can tell a class what the 'language rules' are at any given moment, but they can also signal this in other ways. Some teachers use a visual system that is visible at the front of the room. This could be a pair of flags or, for younger learners, a pair of dolls (with one indicating English-only and the other indicating that other languages are allowed).

It inevitably takes time for a class to get used to following language rules, but a teacher's perseverance usually pays off. Once a degree of responsible learning behavior has been reached, teachers may wish to experiment by giving even more responsibility to a class. One step in this direction is to allow the students themselves to call a certain number of own-language timeouts (five or six, perhaps) in a lesson, in a similar way to a basketball match.

Most bilingual teaching techniques are not available to teachers working with multilingual classes, although ownlanguage moments may be possible in contexts where there is a shared classroom language. A common example of such a situation would be a group of multilingual students studying English in a school where the shared language (and usually the first language of the teacher) is the language of the
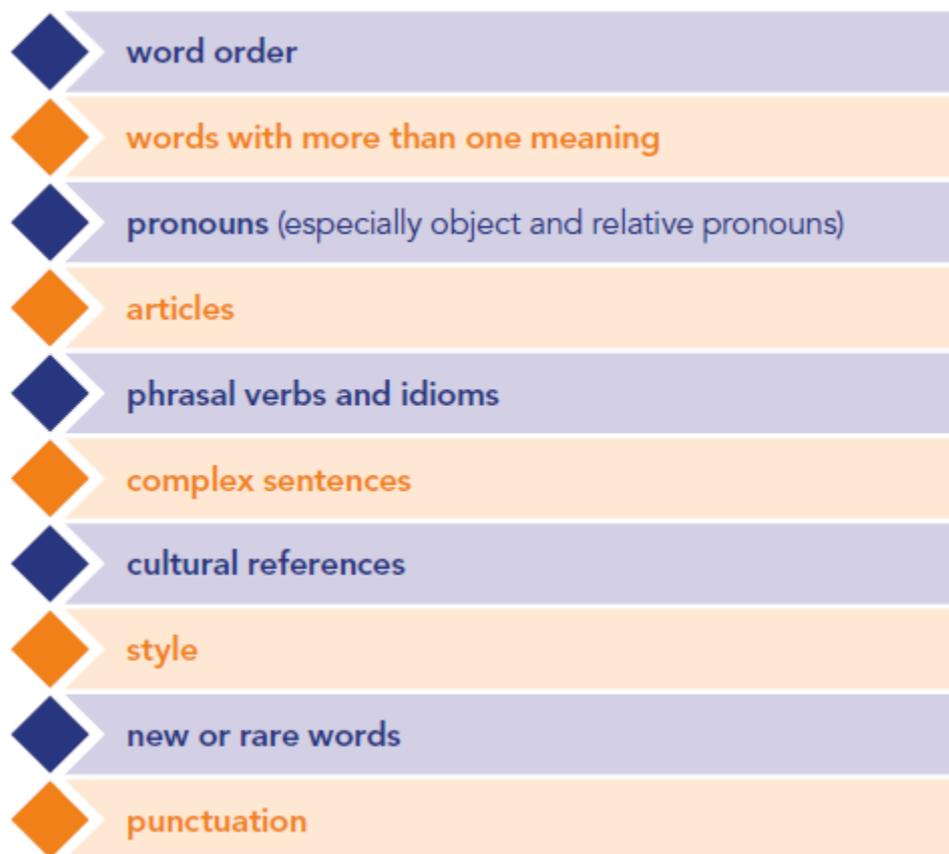
country, but this language (e.g. French, Spanish, German) is not the first language of many of the students.

Teaching Tools. Discussion of L1 use in English language classes tends to focus more on what the teacher does and less on what the learners do. Teaching, however, serves the purpose of promoting learning, and the ultimate objective of most educational programmes is to encourage learners to become autonomous in their learning. In order to become autonomous, learners need to be able to know about and use a variety of language learning tools, and to use them well. Many language-learning tools are bilingual.

With increasing numbers of English language learners studying online in an independent manner, for part or all of their course, knowledge of and skill in using these tools becomes even more important.

1. Online translation. It is probably no exaggeration to say that all language learners who have access to a computer or a smart phone know about online translation tools, and most will have used them. Learners need to know which tools are available to them. The most well-known and widely used is Google Translate but there are many others with widespread usage, including Microsoft Translator (which is used with Skype) and the Translate Facebook app. Since 2017, the accuracy of online translation has improved so dramatically that some people have questioned whether language learning will even be necessary in the future.

Impressive as it often is, the accuracy of online translation varies, according to the languages that are being translated from and to, and the type of text. The most frequent errors that are made by online translation are listed below.

- word order
- words with more than one meaning
- pronouns (especially object and relative pronouns)
- articles
- phrasal verbs and idioms
- complex sentences
- cultural references
- style
- new or rare words
- punctuation

In the classroom, students can be given texts that have been translated from English into their own language and asked to identify and categorise the errors that

they find. It is likely that the software will make similar errors when translating into English from their L1. The activity is useful in providing training in intelligent use of online translation and can also be used to compare different services as well as to highlight differences and similarities between the languages.

2. *Dictionaries.* It has become common for learners to use online translation tools as dictionaries, but the practice should be discouraged as these tools are generally not appropriate for translating single words. Instead, a dictionary should be used. Most learners prefer bilingual to monolingual dictionaries and research suggests that the quality of the dictionary is more important than whether it is monolingual or bilingual. Recent years have seen the emergence of excellent bilingualised dictionaries, which combine the best features of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, although these are not yet available for some languages that are less widely spoken. The most appropriate dictionary for an individual student will also depend on the use that is made of it. Writing a composition in English requires a rather different kind of dictionary to looking up translations for words in a text that is being read.

As with online translation tools, learners need to know about the options that are available to them and to make a selection that is appropriate to their needs. For this, they will usually need guidance from a teacher. One way of doing this is to give students a short text with a small number of lexical items highlighted, along with access to a dictionary. Students explore the dictionary by looking up the highlighted words and filling in a given checklist.

3. *Flashcards.* The acquisition of vocabulary is one of the main challenges of learning another language and research suggests that the deliberate study or memorisation of new words can play an important role. This is especially the case with high frequency items for learners at lower levels. Research also suggests that digital flashcards, with a target item in English on one side of the 'card' and its meaning on the other, are one of the most useful tools to approach this deliberate study. At lower levels, translations are usually preferable to English definitions, because the latter often contain words that are harder to understand than the target item.

Many free digital flashcard systems are available, including Quizlet, Memrise and Anki as well as others intended for younger learners. The systems vary in terms of the kinds of learning tasks (e.g. games) that are used to practise the language, and the kinds of motivational techniques that are employed (e.g. levels and leader boards). Some systems allow teachers or learners to input their own sets of learning items. Others can only be used with vocabulary sets that have already been prepared. In the case of the latter, the relevance, quality and language pairings of these sets will be the most important criterion for selecting one system over another.

Flashcard study will not suit all learners, but all learners should, at least, be made aware of the possibilities. To encourage the use of these systems, teachers will need to spend time in the classroom making recommendations and allowing students to play with the apps.

4. *Other bilingual resources.* With internet access, there is a huge range of other bilingual resources that can promote English language learning. There are

thousands of websites and apps that are dedicated to learning and many adopt a bilingual approach. These include everything from explanatory grammar videos and conversation exchanges to enjoyable interactive games for all ages. The quality is, of course, very variable. In addition to these, English language learners are especially fortunate because of the wealth of sites offering subtitled movies, dual language books or comics or translated song lyrics.

It is worth spending some classroom time making students aware of these resources or encouraging them to share what they have discovered for themselves.

Teaching Activities. Supplementary bilingual learning material has long been popular. In some countries, 'Course Companions' which accompany international coursebooks are available. These usually contain bilingual word lists and grammatical notes that draw attention to areas of grammar that cause particular problems for learners with a particular L1.

Bilingual reference and practice books for grammar are also extremely popular. However, it is only in recent years that classroom activities which exploit the L1 have begun to reappear in coursebooks themselves. These tend to be short translation tasks which focus on grammar and vocabulary, and encourage learners to notice the similarities with or differences between English and their own language. A much wider range of classroom activity types is offered in *Translation and Own-language Activities* (Kerr, 2014) and *Using the Mother Tongue* (Deller and Rinvolucri, 2002). These include:

- contrastive analysis activities where the grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation of English and the L1 are directly compared;
- study of transfer effects;
- bilingual roleplays;
- bilingual writing;
- using bilingual resources to prepare students for English texts;
- responding in L1 to English texts (reading and listening) – e.g. bilingual note-taking and summarizing;
- making use of bilingual glossaries for reading texts;
- exploiting dubbed and subtitled videos.

Thus, for many years, the issue of L1 in English language teaching was barely discussed. It was largely absent from teacher training courses, teacher training manuals, teachers' magazines and as a topic for teaching conferences. It was simply assumed that teaching English through English was the best way to do it. The situation has changed dramatically over the last ten years. Research into the area has grown enormously. New editions of the most popular teacher training manuals include sections on using the L1 and it is now a popular conference topic. Exercises which involve translation are becoming more common in coursebooks. The latest version of the syllabus for the Cambridge English Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (CELTA) includes a section on multilingualism and the role of first languages.

For your further reading

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Internet Resources

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3. www.eslprintables.com/vocabulary_ worksheets/school/classroom_language/
4. en.islcollective.com
5. www.washington.edu/doit/Brochures/Academics

Appendix 1. OBSERVATION FORM

Topic: _____

Audience: _____

Elements of Trainer's presence	Body parts' movings	Voice	Classroom language	Questioning	Giving instructions	Giving feedback	The use of L1
Inappropriate							
Appropriate							
Comments/ Suggestions							

Appendix 2. BODY LANGUAGE QUOTES

1. The mediocre teacher tells. The good teacher explains. The superior teacher demonstrates. The great teacher inspires (William Arthur Ward).
2. You never get a second chance to make first impression (Will Rogers).
3. Of those who say nothing, few are silent (Thomas Neil).
4. Don't worry that children never listen to you; Worry that they are always watching you (Robert Fulghum).
5. The most important thing in communication is to hear what isn't being said (Peter F. Drucker).
6. What you do speak so loudly that I cannot hear what you say (RalphWaldo Emerson).
7. High expectations are the key to everything (Sam Walton).
8. People seldom notice old clothes if you wear a big smile (Lee Mildon).
9. The question is not what you look at, but what you see (Henry David Thoreau).
10. High achievement always takes place in the framework of high expectations (Jack Kinder).
11. A master can tell you what he expects of you. A teacher, though, awakens your own expectations (Patricia Neal).
12. We usually get what we anticipate (Claude M. Bristol).

13. They may forget what you said, but they will never forget how you made them feel (Carl W. Buechner).
14. One of the lessons of history is that nothing is often a good thing to do and always a clever thing to say (Will Durant).

Appendix 3. BLOOMS IN DETAIL

Level	Keywords			
Knowledge	What When Who Define	Distinguish Identify List Name	Recall Reorganise Show State	Write Which Indicate Tell How
Comprehension	Compare Conclude Contrast Demonstrate Predict Reorder Which	Distinguish Estimate Explain Extend Extrapolate Rephrase Inform	What Fill In Give an example of Hypothesise Illustrate Relate Tell in your own words	
Application	Apply Develop Test Consider	Build Plan Choose How would	Construct Solve Show your work Tell us	Demonstrate Indicate Check out
Analysis	Analysis Categorize Describe Classify Compare	Discriminate Distinguish Recognize Support your Indicate the	Relate Explain What assumption What do you	
Synthesis	Write Think of a way Create Propose a plan Put together What would be	Suggest How Develop Make up What conclusion What major hypothesis	Plan Formulate a solution Synthesize Derive	
Evaluation	What is Choose Evaluate Decide Judge Check the	Select Which would you consider Defend Check What is most appropriate Indicate		

Appendix 4. CLASSROOM QUESTIONING IN ENGLISH

Thinking/Learning	Type of Question
Knowledge/Comprehension	What happened when…? What are the main points…? Why did…?
Application	Think of alternative word… Can you use the word in a different context…? Can you think of another example that shows…? Does the same idea apply to…?
Analysis	What effect is achieved by…? Why do you think the author chose to…? Does this fit in with a pattern…? Why do you agree/disagree with…? What is suggested…How…?
Synthesis	Where else can you see this…? Create your own version of… Change the features/audience etc
Evaluation	What do you think of…? Which is the most effective…? Do you think this works well…? What are the weakest/strongest aspects of…?

Appendix 5. SOME STUDENT ACTIVITIES TO PROMOTE HIGHER ORDER THINKING IN ENGLISH

Thinking	Activity
Analysis	♦ Students create own text-based questions ♦ Debate ♦ Mind-map aspects of text/topic ♦ Concept map to explore connections
Synthesis	♦ Study of parody and pastiche ♦ Adopting style of author/piece after close analysis ♦ Experiment with genre/audience/features of text types
Evaluation	♦ Applying assessment criteria to own and others' work ♦ Devising 'reader expectation' criteria for different text types and applying them

Appendix 6. GIVING FEEDBACK

	Exercise 1: focus of feedback	Exercise 2: purpose of feedback
1	progress and language	to provide encouragement to learners to motivate learners to praise learners
2	structure of ideas	to help learners organise their essays/written work
3	language	to help learners improve their pronunciation
4	effort/attitude	to provide encouragement to learners to motivate learners to praise learners
5	ideas	to help learners to research and to get ideas for written work
6	behaviour/effort	to build confidence to provide encouragement to motivate learners to praise learners
7	behaviour	to try to improve learner's attendance
8	language and ideas	to help learners improve their writing to make it more cohesive
9	attitude and behaviour	to encourage learners to work outside the classroom to encourage learners to try harder
10	progress	to provide encouragement to learners to motivate learners to praise learners
11	quality of handwriting	to help learners improve the presentation of their written work
12	attitude/behaviour	to help learners improve their speaking and to make them more fluent

CONTENT

СОДЕРЖАНИЕ

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