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VAZIRLIGI**

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**TILLA O‘QITISH METODIKASI VA TA’LIM
TEXNOLOGIYALARI FANIDAN
O‘QUV USLUBIY MAJMUA**

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O'QUV-USLUBIY MAJMUA TARKIBI

1. Amaliy mashg'ulotlar.....
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 - a) fan dasturi.....
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 - f) testlar.....
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Lecture 1

Introduction to the methodology of teaching foreign languages

Plan:

1. Introduction to the course. The terms «Method», «Methodology».
2. Document of “Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment” (CEFR).
3. The modern model of teaching and learning English in Uzbekistan.
4. Lingua-didactic problems of teaching foreign languages in the system of continuous education (schools, lyceums and colleges)

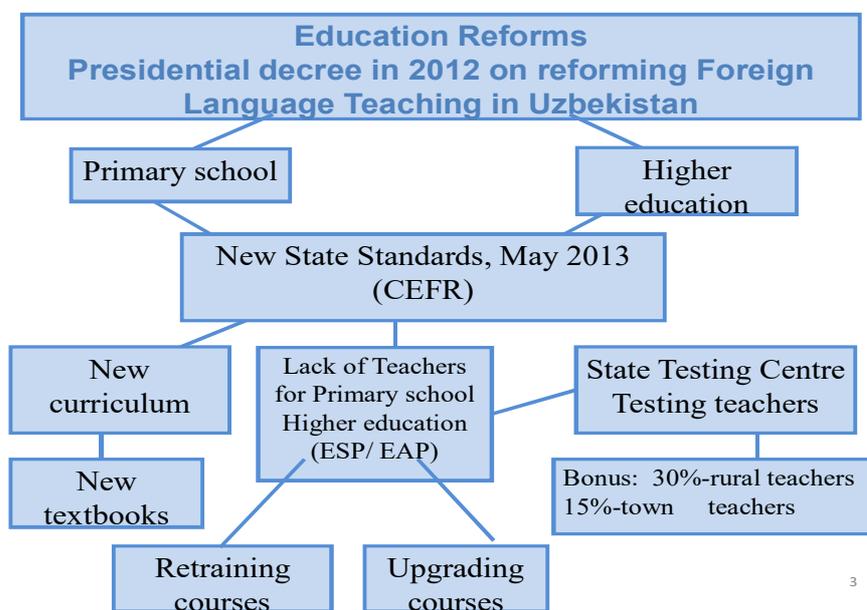
Key terms: CEFR, descriptors, learning, teaching, assessment, syllabus, curriculum, guideline, examination, coursebook, language proficiency, transparency of course, a single educational space, Modern languages, approach, multistage model of education, communicative competence

«**Method**» - from Ancient Greek - *méthodos*, “pursuit of knowledge, investigation, mode of prosecuting such inquiry, system”.

«**Methodology**» is a system of practices and procedures that a teacher uses to teach. It will be based on beliefs about the nature of language, and how it is learnt (known as 'Approach').

Example:

Grammar Translation, the Audiolingual Method and the Direct Method are clear methodologies, with associated practices and procedures, and are each based on different interpretations of the nature of language and language learning.



In the classroom many teachers base their lessons on a mixture of methods and approaches to meet the different needs of learners and the different aims of lessons or courses. Factors in deciding how to teach include the age and experience of learners, lesson and course objectives, expectations and resources.

The tasks of methodology of Teaching English.

The task of methodology is to enhance the process of teaching English by empowering and facilitating teachers to work proficiently. Teaching involves a continuous analysis of one's own work, the experiences

of other teachers and the search for new means to improve teaching. When teaching a foreign language a teacher must think about the specific qualities offered to students of a certain mother tongue. That means that the methodology of teaching English has to take into account the problems posed by the English language for the students who will learn it.

The methodology of teaching English stands in relation with several challenges or problems:

1. What to teach? That means the amount of knowledge, skills and habits that students have to obtain within the process of learning the language.

2. What are the aims of teaching? When a teacher is sure of the aim of teaching, he/she will have the easiness of reaching the intended goal.

3. How to teach? In this case one can call to mind the principles upon which teaching of English is based, the means, methods, fashion and tactics used in teaching in order to achieve the required final completion.

The answers to these questions define the echelon of methodology as a science. As a consequence it determines the nature of the problems to be dealt with. For successful teaching, teachers are required several initiatives.

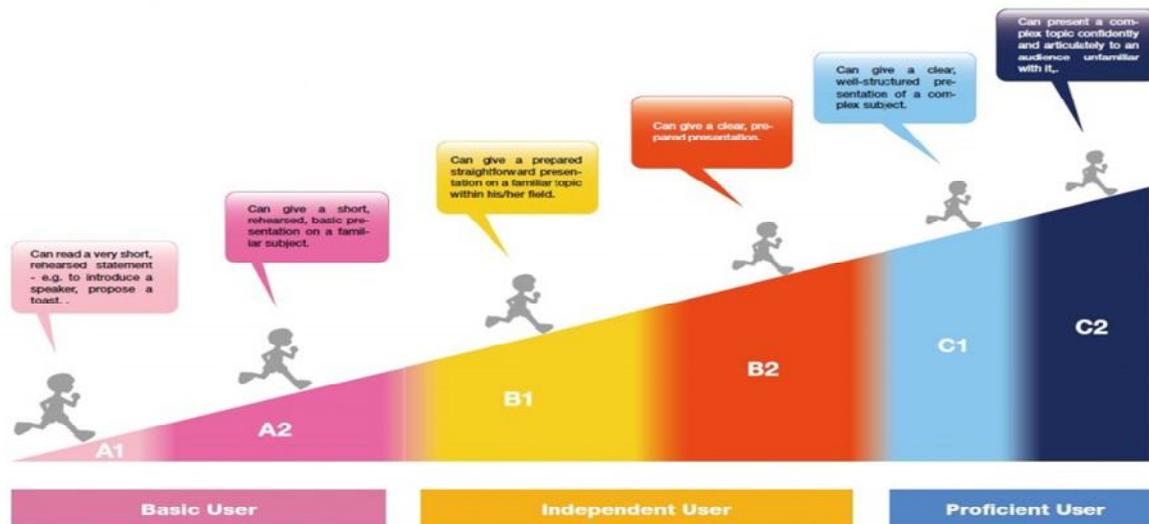
The teacher has: To awaken and develop the potentiality and ability of students for studying. Help students develop habits through frequent repetition. To inspire, to kindle the interest of the student in studying. Also, the teacher should know how to go from easy stages to more difficult ones. These are a few of ideas of language teaching set forth by H.E. Palmer that have proved to be sound and effective even today.

Document of “Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment” (CEFR).

The document of “Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment” (CEFR) was created by the Council of Europe. The CEFR describes language ability on a scale of levels from A1 for beginners up to C2 for those who have mastered a language. This makes it easy for anyone involved in language teaching and testing, such as teachers or learners, to see the level of different qualifications. It also means that employers and educational institutions can easily compare our qualifications to other exams in their country. The main function of this document was to provide a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curricula, guidelines, examination, and course books across Europe. It also provided a method of assessing and teaching which was applied to all Modern languages in Europe. The CEFR has been translated into at least 37 languages. The CEFR document enhances the transparency of courses, syllabuses and qualifications, thus promoting international cooperation in the field of Modern languages which requires mutual recognition of qualifications gained in different learning contexts and aids to promote students' mobility. According to the CEFR, learners of every LT context should be facilitated to gain the particular proficiency level in a particular stage of learning. **Descriptors in the CEFR.** In the CEFR document the reference of six levels is given and designed as illustrative descriptors (scales) in the term “Can Do” statements from level A1 to C2. The descriptors are built to do two dimensions: 1) through a vertical dimension we see a progression through all levels; 2) through a horizontal dimension the different context of teaching and learning are presented.

The modern model of teaching and learning English in Uzbekistan. In Uzbekistan ELT is seen as a career in a field of educational specialization: it requires a specialized knowledge base obtained through both academic study and practical experience. Nowadays the demonstration of a certain level of proficiency in English as component of certification is required.

In Uzbekistan the multistage model of FLT has been worked out on the basis of continuous, succession, taking into consideration the international standards, and localization of EL teaching and learning methodology and materials (adapting to the national context). It is related to the well-known multilevel model of FLT in the foreign countries.



| | | |
|------------------|----|---|
| Proficient User | C2 | Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations. |
| | C1 | Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices. |
| Independent User | B2 | Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options. |
| | B1 | Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics, which are familiar, or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. |
| Basic User | A2 | Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need. |
| | A1 | Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help. |

The domestic multistage model of continuous and successive FLT includes the following levels of FL:

| Educational stage | Classes | Levels according |
|-------------------|---------|------------------|
|-------------------|---------|------------------|

| | | to CEFR |
|---------------------------------|---|---------|
| Primary and secondary education | 1-4 forms at school | A1 |
| | 5-9 forms at school | A2 |
| | Language-oriented schools | A2+ |
| Special secondary education | Academic lyceums 1-3 courses | B1 |
| | Vocational colleges | |
| | Language-oriented academic lyceums | B1+ |
| Higher education | Bachelor degree non-linguistic institutes and universities | B2 |
| | Master degree non-linguistic institutes and universities | |
| | The second language in Bachelor and Master degree institutions and universities | |
| | Bachelor degree linguistic institutes and universities | C1 |
| | Master degree linguistic institutes and universities | |

School education falls apart into two stages: 1) the primary education (1-4 forms) and 2) the secondary education (5-9 forms). Education at academic lyceums is considered as upper secondary education. At vocational colleges ELT concerns 1) General English and 2) English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). ESP is traditionally associated with study at college and non-linguistic institute and university. In the Uzbek educational system study at lyceum and college is considered as a profile education: 1) study at academic lyceum provides intensive development of intellectual abilities, deep, differentiated and vocational-oriented education, after academic lyceums they can continue further education at institutes and universities, or undertake some job; 2) study at vocational college provides deep development of professional abilities, obtaining one of the professions, graduates of professional colleges get certificate of a junior specialist. Teaching and learning English at this stage of education demands study of general English and English for specific purposes, i.e. to develop both the language competency, study skills which will help them to succeed in further education and occupation/job.

In our conditions the CEFR is used for development of the language policy to set minimum language requirements for a wide range of purposes, in curriculum planning, preparing course books and development of methods of teaching and tools of evaluation. It is intended for dynamic progress in acquiring FL.

Lecture 2

Aims of teaching foreign languages

The questions to be discussed:

1. The category “goals of FL teaching and learning”.
2. Practical and cultural goals of EL teaching and learning.
3. Educational and developmental goals of EL teaching and learning.

Key terms: goal, objective, means, practical, educational, cultural, developmental, skill, language units/items, motivation, performance

Any kind of goal comes out of the required needs. Goal is the plod of planned results and consequences of imagination.

If one is asked why English is taught at schools, the answer may be that it is taught because of practical, educational, cultural and developmental needs to achieve special

goals. Educational goal comes out of a social order-task and it is oriented to formation and bringing up comprehensive intelligent individuals. Goals of teaching English have always been under discussion in different methodological works. In the second half of the last century, the terms *practical*, *educational* and *cultural goal* of teaching and learning English have been explained according to the requirements of society¹. In the 80s another term such as a developmental goal of teaching appeared². A detailed analysis of this term was given by the well-known training specialist G.V.Rogova³.

According to requirements of the State educational standards, the main goal of teaching a foreign language is to form communicative competence of learners at all levels with the aim of enabling them to express their ideas in daily work, including scientific and professional activities. Competences are divided into several groups – linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic, which we'll analyze according to the goals of teaching a foreign language. All these competences are directed at practical usage of mastered knowledge, ability and skills. Goals of teaching English are determined by the requirements of school, lyceum and college syllabus to achieve the final level of knowledge, sub-skills and skills by students as a result of learning the English language.

Goals of the English language teaching are determined by the tasks of all-round development of an individual and up-bringing of students as well as by requirements of the syllabus of a certain type of an educational stage.

There are four goals of the English language teaching:

- Practical
- Cultural
- Educational
- Developmental.

Practical and cultural goals of EL teaching and learning

The students mastering FL as means of communication should be able to use the language in the oral and written forms of speech. The requirements for practical mastery in language subskills (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar) and skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) are represented in the curriculum and syllabus for every stage. The State educational standard stresses that the learners should have a communicative competence which presupposes an adequate proficiency in a FL as a means of communication, instruction and independent learning.

It is necessary to distinguish between long-term goals, interim aims and short-term objectives which help the teacher formulate concrete, specific tasks for the lesson or part of it.

The length of the course, the number of hours and the complement of the group are also accounted for in achieving practical goals. The time budget for language learning is

¹ Общая методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. // Под ред. Рахманова И.В., Миролюбова А.А., Цетлин В.С. – М.: Просвещение, 1967. -С. 19-37.

² Программы средней школы. Иностранные языки. – М.: Просвещение, 1983. -С. 2.

³ Рогова Г.В., Вершагина И.Н.. Методика обучения английскому языку на начальном этапе в средней школе. – М.: Просвещение, 1988. -С. 34-37.

the main factor in mastering and maintaining language proficiency. Learning a FL enables the pupils to acquire new means of perceiving and expressing their thoughts about objects, notions, phenomena and their relationships. As a means of communication the target language faces some restrictions in terms of verbal means appropriate for a definite situation or occasion (register). **Therefore verbal behaviour of the learners is limited by a topical selection of material.**

As learners should master a FL as a means of communication, they should know how to use it in oral and written forms within the scope outlined in the curriculum/syllabus. As far as a FL is a mandatory subject in the curriculum, the responsibility lies upon the teacher to ensure the anticipated results in each purposeful activity and form of communication.

But the ability to communicate in any language consists of a number of subsidiary skills such as enunciation, accentuation, fluency and prosody. Learning a FL adds to students' mental powers, sharpens their wits, develops their intelligence and broadens their outlook.

Language study is essentially a subskill and skill-forming process and an important stage in this process is the elementary stage. **If we do not ensure subskills of accurate observation, reproduction, and imitation during the first stage, it is doubtful whether we shall ever secure them subsequently.**

The function of the primary (elementary) stage is to inculcate good subskills in a systematic way, and once this work is done there is little or no fear of learners going astray in their later work. If we take care of the primary stage, the next stage will take care of itself.

Every technique, method, exercise, drill or device should be used which may further the learners in their immediate purpose and bring them nearer to their ultimate goal. Adopt every good idea and leave the door open for all future developments: reject nothing except useless and harmful forms of work. This approach favours a communicative method of FLT for it embodies the most appropriate means towards the required end – the mastery of four areas of linguistic ability.

And finally, practical aims encompass certain volumes of language material: phonetic, lexical and grammatical items. Some of this material is subject to reproductive assimilation, some – to perceptive; these are also known as active and passive language material.

The goal envisages a guideline, i.e. strategy of teaching and is accomplished during solving of a number of specific tasks which act as tactics. They determine the learners' activities, their work with basic and ancillary means of instruction, inculcation of subskills (phonetic, grammatical, lexical, orthographic, etc.) and ability to understand English, to read aloud and silently, and to speak within a set range of situations.

It should be mentioned that the achievement of practical goals in FLT makes possible the realization of educational, cultural and developmental ones.

So, learning a FL is understood as a goal and as a means of instruction with clear-cut, short, interim and ultimate objectives, rational planning of all types of activity with special emphasis on communicative competence at all levels of teaching/learning.

As we know educational and cultural developments go together.

Cultural goal makes a substantial contribution:

- to developing pupils' linguistic outlook, as they get acquainted with some phenomena which are not typical of their mother-tongue (e.g. tenses, articles, EL word order);

- to developing pupils' communicative abilities;

- to widening pupils' communicative vision of the world, as it enables them to get acquainted with the life, customs and traditions of the people whose language they study;

- to developing pupils' intellect, their voluntary and involuntary memory, their imaginative abilities, logical thinking, etc.+

The cultural goal is achieved within:

- the critical, patient and creative attitude to oneself and others, to a new culture, event, knowledge;

- the development of different character traits, outlooks, beliefs, moral-esthetic and emotional experience, different kinds of motivation and the abilities to use them to contribute successfully into the process of real and pedagogical communication;

- the development of the awareness of the new activities, new people civilizations;

- the development of the desire to cooperate and socialize;

- the keeping cultural traditions of one's own country and understanding and respect others'; to compare different cultures, to express a personal point of view on other cultures, problems as well as to use the knowledge obtained from other subjects.

It is important to point out and note down that cultural goals are realized within the process of achieving practical objectives.

No doubt, education pays attention to the discipline; the idea of bringing up or being brought up can't be imagined without education. Every school subject has its own place in bringing up pupils. One of the four objectives of teaching the English language is the cultural goal. Teachers and methodist-scholars of the English language have always paid great attention to it. A lot of materials about disciplining have been published in different journals.

In methodology of the cultural goal of teaching the English language is described as giving pupils ideological-political culture, formation of skills to brainwork, developing their knowledge activity. The cultural goal can be achieved in two ways. The first one is observation pupils' training in the course of the teaching process.

The second instructive way of finding a means of achieving the cultural goal is in using language materials. For example, being respective to the partner while talking, using polite words and phrases (thank you, you are welcome and etc.) reciting poems, discussing together each others' activity or interpreting mutual friends' work in the English language. These activities lead the pupils to culture.

The news taken from English audio or graphical texts is one of the unequal means of instruction. The idea of texts should coincide with the content of the programme and satisfy cultural needs of learners.

At the primary level of teaching new information is delivered basing on micro texts, at the higher levels the extract of manuals related to artistic, political, bringing up and sport events are given to read and the information described in these books is useful

to pupils and improve their background knowledge. There are lots of extracts in textbooks and manuals which educate pupils to obtain high-principled-political ideas. The content of the texts about great thinkers or philosophers, scientists, spacemen, heroes of labor gives positive results in training pupils. The graphics and audio texts related to the dates which are shown separately in the calendar have also a great educative influence.

The cultural goal can be carried out in the process of out-of-class activities, groups united by the same interests organized in the class of a foreign language.

The role of educational arrangements with invitation of foreign guests, teachers or visitors, friendly meetings with the members of embassies is matchless.

The English language is the main factor in providing different deals related to the types of bringing up. Textbook/course-books are considered the primary means of pedagogical activity.

Thus in the process of teaching the English language great attention is paid to the upbringing of pupils.

The cultural goal of learning a foreign language intends to form students' world outlook, ideological conviction, patriotism, morality, self-responsibility for occurring around and aesthetic and spiritual development of the individual. To achieve this goal it is necessary to use all means: contents (the presence of various problems), organizations (discussion of these issues and their interpretation). In this respect the potential is unlimited, it is important not only to define good intentions but to identify concrete ways to implement them both during lessons and in extra-curricular work.

2. Educational and developmental goals of EL teaching and learning

The practical and cultural goals are closely connected with the educational one because FLL advances moral and aesthetic education. Teachers and methodologists pay much attention to educational capacities in the teaching and learning process. Of great importance is the linguistic aspect – the contextual side of the material in the foreign language: texts, exercises, ostensive and audio-visual materials used in the classroom, outside school hours, and independent learning.

The psychological factor is no less important because speech activity and the information it carries largely depends on the following circumstances: whether the learner works willingly, with interest, independently; which skill is practiced, whether the tasks are heuristic by nature; whether the learner can use obtained experience; whether the skills acquired at other subjects are applicable in this lesson, etc.

The goal of education is to develop individuals who adhere to definite moral principles, value knowledge and learning, can and will be able to think and find out things for themselves.

Learning, as we know, is a function of the total involvement and is the result of interactive process with students and teachers having an influence on the outcomes of such interaction.

Thus, learning a FL adds to the learners' mental powers, sharpens their wits, develops their intelligence and contributes to their general outlook.

Classroom language experiences should be functional. Language use and study should fulfill purposes that are meaningful and obvious to pupils. Repeated interaction with classical literature also increases pupils' sensitivity to social, cultural dynamics and to the emotional needs of others. The teacher's role and attitude should be consistent with educational goals. **“Consistency” here is one of trusting, i.e. respecting students' opinions and desires towards fairness. The “consistency” here is between having a rule and applying it in the same manner with all people including one's own.**

The “consistency” here is treating offenders with respect while demanding improvement. For example, it is inconsistent to shout at students when admonishing them for arguing loudly with each other or to resort to ridicule and derogatory personal remarks when reprimanding students for their disrespectful treatment of others. It is wise to respond to offences with opening remarks, such as: “It is not like you to say this...”, or “I realize you didn't want things to happen in this way...” rather than “I knew you couldn't be expected to act more rationally...”

We should act on a belief that all persons are capable of growth and improvement; it is worthwhile to make the best possible use of our time. We should start each student's day with a clean slate and not allowing ourselves to become cynical about the intentions or the potential breakdowns on the part of our students to respond to fair treatment. **We should act in accordance with an ethical framework that reflects qualities such as honesty, integrity, compassion, and the right to dissent responsibly.**

Education in its broadest sense means helping our learners to be intelligent, knowledgeable, well-integrated persons. Such education can be provided in the school situation only by enthusiastic, caring, sensitive, humane and competent teachers. While teaching is a science, it is primarily an art which teachers bring into their classrooms. The teachers' dedication, love for their profession, their students makes every hour a stimulating, motivating experience – one which the student will look forward to with the keenest anticipation.

Thus, the educational goal of learning the English language helps learners to develop their logical thinking, to improve memory and to raise the level of knowledge and general culture. It covers linguistic, psychological and social factors which are purposefully realized in the personality's viewpoints, convictions, relations and qualities.

The educational goals can be achieved by means of:

- selection of language material;
- successful organization and conduction of the English language lesson and an effective combination of its main components;
- choice of visual aids;
- the teacher's manners and appearance;
- teaching learners to work with books on their own, i.e. independently.

The **developmental goal** of teaching the English language is recently admitted as a scientific category in methodology of FLT. However, it is very difficult to find relevant

instructional materials related to this goal. There is brief information about the developmental goal in the book written by G.V. Rogova and I.N. Vereshagina.

The main idea of the developmental goal is how to teach a learner:

- to develop the learners' creativity, intellectual and cognitive abilities;
- to develop different types of memory (visual/audio, short/long-termed, voluntary/involuntary), attention, skills, necessary for creative activities;
- to develop mechanisms of anticipation, predicting, guessing, etc.;
- to develop the learners' initiative, logical thinking. These are abilities concerning to start, to go on and to finish their communication.

Learning a FL leads to new horizons of linguistic competence where graphic, phonetic, lexical and grammatical items come into play. Such learning develops logical thinking of the learners because knowledge acquisition is related to such categories as analysis, synthesis, comparison, deduction, and others. This process is also related to the work of the aural, visual, kinesthetic, and motor analyzers aspects. They have a direct impact on the development of memory as the learners have to memorize lists of words, word-combinations, phrases, models of sentence building as well as their use in communication.

Books, textbooks offer ample opportunities to develop pupils' Gnostic abilities. They learn a lot of interesting things about the countries, cities, events, historical places, schools, traditions, holidays and famous people (statesmen, public figures, and travelers), etc.

A well-organized, purposeful activity guided by the teachers and performed independently can ensure motivation – a positive interest, a desire and a greater willingness to learn a FL.

The developmental goal proposes developing of language intuition, language guessing, memory, logics (analysis, synthesis, comparison, sensory perception, motivational sphere, communicative skills; individual qualities such as hardworking, will, purposefulness, and activity).

In general the developmental goals of FLT concern development of interdisciplinary and supra-disciplinary subskills and skills (informative, communicative, and academic) and developing of intellectual abilities without which it is impossible to use the obtained knowledge and skills in the real life.

It is emphasized that all goals of teaching the English language are interrelated and interdependent.

The practical, educational, cultural and developmental goals of teaching the English language are bound with each other. But at the same time the practical goal occupies the dominant position. The goals of the EL teaching and learning can be summarized in the given below chart.

Table 3. Goals of EL teaching and learning

| Goals of EL teaching and learning | | | |
|--|--|---|---|
| Practical goal: to learn to communicate in the English language (speaking, listening, reading and writing) | Cultural goal: to form students world outlook, ideological conviction, patriotism, morality, self-responsibility for occurring around and aesthetic and spiritual development of the individual. | Developmental goal: to develop intellectual, sensory and motivated peculiarities | Educational goal: to develop memory and logical thinking; to ascend pupils' levels of knowledge and general culture. |

Questions:

1. How do you explain the term “goal of teaching and learning?”
2. What are the main goals of teaching English?
3. How can the practical goal of teaching English be carried out during the lesson?
4. What are the tasks of the cultural goal of teaching English?
5. What kind of interconnection is there between these goals?
6. Give the explanation of terms “goal” and “means”?

Tasks:

1. Identify practical, educational, cultural and developmental goals of any lesson's topic, for instance “My favorite writer”.
2. Here are some questions to be discussed. Read them and give your own opinions.

What do you think ...

- *The main focus in a language class should be on meaning or on grammar.
- *Language learners need immediate or long-term rewards.
- *The language classroom should have plenty of meaningful or rote learning.
- *A teacher's feedback to students should be given frequently or infrequently, so students will develop independence.
- *A communicative class should give special attention to accuracy or fluency.

* Language learners learn best by using plenty of analysis or intuition.

3. Various writers have attempted to establish lists of individual characteristics which have some bearing on FL learning. Tick the most important for successful mastering English. You can add other items.

Ability or aptitude _____

Learning style _____

Motivation _____

Independent work:

1. Look through these sites for further information. Write down your own notes on the topic.

1. <http://mousavia.CurrentTrends> in the Teaching
2. <http://www.cuc.edu>. Principles_of_Language_Learning_and_Teaching
3. www.cuhk.edu.hk/ajelt; <http://www.chineseupress.com/>

Lecture 3

Content of teaching English The questions to be discussed:

1. Theoretical problems of FLT content.
2. Content components of teaching English.
3. Content of teaching language material.
4. The content of ELT at schools, lyceums, colleges.

Key terms: content, language material, language minimum, cultural, developmental, skills, sub-skills, language units/items, motivation, performance

3.1. Theoretical problems of ELT content

One of the essential categories of FLT is the content or what to teach. In the teaching process there are different ideas of training specialists on the problem what to teach and mostly they are opposite to each other⁴. One of these matters for discussion is what should be taught, and the second one – what is the content of teaching itself?

Some training specialists recommend making a distinction between language and speech materials⁵. In M. West's opinion "a language is not a subject which can be

⁴ Рогова Г.В. Содержания обучения иностранному языку // Иностранные языки в школе, 1974, № 3; Шатиришвили Ш.А. Основы содержания обучения иностранным языкам в национальной школе. –Тбилиси: Изд-во Тбилисского ун-та, 1981; Лapidус Б.А. Проблемы содержания обучения языку в языковом вузе. –М.: ВШ, 1986; Джалалов Д.Д. Проблемы содержания обучения иностранному языку. –Ташкент: - Фан 1987.

⁵ Рогова С.В. и др. Методика обучения иностранному языку в средней школе. - М.: Просвещение, 1991.

taught, it is a subject which must be learnt". Language acquisition largely depends on systematic work that would bring satisfaction from this occupation and the feeling of progress. What the learners need are useful ideas, suggestions, explanations, demonstrations and examples of learning strategies which are consistent with current achievements in the field of FLT.

Discussion of problematic matters gives us an evidence to say it is impossible to determine the content of FLT without referring to linguistics — a science that deals with the study of languages as a definite system of codes. Thus, linguistics describes the standard use of the language, a set of rules, which covers this use. It also studies the usage, i.e. the way people use words and expressions in speaking and writing, as well as stylistic means, phonological, morphological, syntactical and lexical items.

Consequently, the dichotomy between language and speech plays an important role in FLT. **Language is a system of signs and speech is a manifestation of this language system in concrete communicative acts. Both language and speech make up two sides of the same phenomenon, one whole, and at the same time each of them has specific units.**

Language units include phonemes, morphemes, words, phraseological units, sentences, and texts. These language elements are organized on formal-semantic principles. Speech units include utterances of various lengths where language elements are organized on a semantic-communicative principle. In other words, speech units refer to a specific situation of communication.

According to opinion of training specialists, educational categories such as knowledge, experience, skills should be added to the content of teaching English too. There should be a clear demand, which helps to find the opposite sides and be analyzed as follows: it can be easily proved that a text cannot be added to the content of teaching. When you hear about themes of speech, remember that, the content of them should be taken into account. The theme is a general determination for getting information. It can be seen that the news can be expressed or received in the text. This means, information is the content of the text, while the text describes the theme. The theme is the cause and the text is the result, in its turn the text is the cause and information is the result. Therefore the theme is considered as one of the inseparable parts of the FLT.

Content components are connected with the goal of ELT. The goal determines the content because the content is acquired during the lessons and the result of each lesson depends on the predefined goal. The practical goal of teaching English clarifies how to use some particular language materials in communication, i.e. within which borders and in what capacity. So, the area (topic) of speech is defined. There are three phenomena such as, themes of speech (subjective side of the speech), language sub-skills and skills (procedural side) and language materials (objective side of learning) played a major role for improving the content of teaching English which must be discussed.

Some training specialists think that the content of FLT includes: a) exercises of different types; b) texts for oral and written work; c) laboratory exercises; d) topical selection of material⁶. The term of "exercise" is usually used with the aim to master

⁶ Общая методика преподавания иностранных языков в средних специальных учебных заведениях: Учебное пособие/Под ред. Миролюбова А.А. и Парахиной А.В. – М.: ВШ, 1978. -264 с.

language sub-skills and communicative skills in all speech activities. Exercises are organized as a system or complex directed to development of language sub-skills and skills. Exercises are usually shaped with the language material and task performing to achieve the practical goal. Therefore materials for exercises are taken from the content of teaching. Thus content of teaching is the foundation, source and object of exercises.

The content of FLT involves a dialectical unity of all specifically arranged teaching materials, teaching/learning process, sub-skills and skills, and common essential learning.

The terms “knowledge”, “experience” and “skill” came into this category by accident which are considered stable and substantiated terms in educational system. A language is taught for communication and via communication. As knowledge is absorbed within communicative activity, so a teacher does not conduct a lecture about language. At the same time knowledge in the content of FLT can take a role of, for example, socio-cultural knowledge. The assimilation and assessment of the achieved results connected with the skills and experience. Content of FLT includes knowledge and skills as well as experience. It is mentioned that, the skill is a step for experience that’s why experience is considered the final.

The aforementioned makes it possible to conclude that in FLT at school it is necessary to proceed from speech to language sequence, i.e. to teach the language via speech in real life situations.

The final purpose of ELT is development of abilities for usage and using language in different situations of communication. On the assumption of this the content of ELT from the subjective and procedural sides of speech activity can be presented in a following way: a) means of communication (phonetic, lexical, grammatical, country-study); b) knowledge – how to use these means in the process of communication; c) subskills and skills provide using them in communication which are developed in teaching/learning process; d) areas, themes, situations of communication within which the content of ELT can be realized; e) culture created the material basis of the ELT content.

3.2. Content components of teaching English

In the teaching process a teacher and students are main communicants so it is necessary to present ELT content within two systems.

| The objects of teaching | The objects of learning (assimilation) |
|--------------------------------|--|
| Language | Knowledge and subskills (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar) |
| Speech | Subskills (mechanics of speech production and perception) |
| Speech activity | Skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing |
| Culture | Knowledge and skills related to cultural awareness |

The first component of the content of FLT is the linguistic one which includes language material (phonetic, grammatical, and lexical minima) and speech material (utterances of different lengths) to be used in real acts of communication.

The selection of linguistic material, the so-called minimum vocabulary, minimum grammar is circumscribed by the syllabus for secondary schools.

For organization of successive intercultural communication we should single out linguo-cultural material which integrates cultural content and cultural learning components⁷ as domains:

- Cultural knowledge. Culturally marked lexical units (proverbs, sayings, tongue twisters, nursery rhymes, idioms, aphorisms and etc.)
- Cultural values. The ‘psyche’ of the country, what people think is important; it includes things like family, hospitality, patriotism, fairness etc.
- Cultural behavior. The knowledge of daily routines and behavior.
- Cultural skills. The development of intercultural sensitivity and awareness, using the English language as the medium of interaction.

These domains can be reflected in the structure and content of the cultural awareness, which is the foundation of communication and it involves the ability of to understand cultural values, beliefs and perceptions in both languages.

The second component of “what to teach” is a psychological one. We have already described the relation of methodology to other sciences, particularly methodology and psychology. It should be mentioned that dynamic stereotypes serve as psychological bases for subskills as automatic components of conscious activity formed as a result of drills or exercises. **Language proficiency largely depends on the mastery of a system of speech subskills and skills. In language acquisition these are subskills in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary; skills in listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing.**

Thus, a psychological component is related to the development of subskills and skills to use a FL for communicative purposes.

The third component of “what to teach” is an instructional one, i.e. rational approaches to FLT: the students should be taught how to learn English, how to work on the subject to achieve the ultimate goals.

Thus, an understanding of current theories of language learning and the achievement of related sciences give all grounds to define the content of FLT in the following terms⁸:

- 1) linguistic component covering language and speech material;
- 2) linguo-cultural component covering cultural-marked items and cultural information;

⁷ Cortazzi M., Jin L. Cultural mirrors. Materials and methods in the EFL classrooms. // In: E. Hinkel ed. Culture in Second Language Teaching and learning. –Cambridge: CUP, 2007. –P. 196-219.

⁸ Рогова Г.В., Рабинович Ф.М., Сахарова Т.Е. Методика обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе. -М.: Просвещение, 1991. -С.36-37; Фокина К.В., Тернова Л.Н., Костычева Н.В. Методика преподавания иностранного языка. Конспект лекций. - М.: ЮРАЙТ Высшее образование, 2009. -С.54-55.

3) psychological component, which includes development of sub-skills and skills, as well as cultural awareness which enable the learners to use them for communicative purposes;

4) methodological/instructional component that is related to techniques and procedures derived from application of didactic principles.

The content of FLT can be general and special. As it is determined in the State education standard (SES) content of FLT consists of themes included into curriculum of schools and secondary special schools. In all types of education the learning material should provide continuity and succession. In the SES the content of ELT and requirements to a certain proficiency level are presented. But a language material for a certain language is specified. Language material for FLT content is selected taking into account difficulties of language items for assimilation and interference phenomenon.

Linguistic and psychological components can be described in another way suggested by J. Jalalov⁹. There are three components of content teaching of the English language: speech themes and situations¹⁰; language skills and language material. Determination of themes depends on the type of an educational establishment. The second component proposes developing language skills according to the curriculum requirements to a certain level of the language proficiency of students in listening, speaking, reading and writing.

One of the important problems of FLT content is selection. Present time selection of FLT content is organized taking into account purpose and stage of students. The main principles for selection are: 1) adequacy, sufficiency of content for achievement of the goal of teaching; 2) relevance and availability of the content for its assimilation. Besides for selection of content of FLT the following principles are used: frequency of functions and notions; complication of difficulties depending on stages of teaching; motivation, which implies the choice of domains and communicative situations, which are typical of students' life and close to them; potential of content for further individuals' development.

The criteria for selection of cultural material: 1) accessibility to the students; 2) cultural diversity; 3) students' needs; 4) correlation of information with the target and native languages and cultures; 5) variability of the cultural material and its significance for the communicative aim.

In the process of selection of cultural material a teacher should answer the question: What difficulties can students face in the work with these materials?

Domains are spheres of communication (actions), areas of concern in which the social life is organized. There are four domains, taught at schools, colleges and lyceums:

- personal domain is centered on life style within a family and friends;
- public domain studies a person as a member of the society;
- professional (occupational for college) domain, where a person is engaged in his/her job or profession;
- educational domain – a person is engaged in the organization of his/her learning.

⁹Jalalov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. Foreign language teaching methodology. -T. Ўқитувчи, 2012.

¹⁰ The subjects of the content of FLT in the book: Гальскова Н.Д., Гез Н.И. Методика обучения иностранным языкам. Лингводидактика и методика. -М. Академия, 2007. -С.124-125.

The speech themes (topics) are chosen according to the goal of teaching the English language. The themes are considered as extra linguistic socio-psychological phenomena and they have not been researched completely yet. The main reason of it there is no total combination of themes. It is a usual thing because according to the epistemology studies there are no absolute borders. Speech themes should be chosen from real life situations. At secondary schools learning the English language is provided with minimum. The themes are based on the methodical tendency named “students and their surroundings”. First of all, students are required to be able to give information about themselves, their family, school and their relatives. The methodical classification of these themes consists of three topics: “The surrounding of a student”, “Our country”, “English speaking countries”. These three topics are based on the following scientific methodical tendencies:

Firstly, a student doesn't know any language items in the initial period of learning. Criteria: a language is strange but theme is familiar.

Secondly, according to oral topics the patterns and situations of interaction are taught, because listening and speaking comprehension will be a base for other skills. Criteria: oral topics are considered important.

Thirdly, themes are divided into two groups: reading (listening) and speaking (listening). Criteria: oral themes are base for reading and writing. Reading themes (upper intermediate) are used only for listening (speaking and writing are not important for reading themes).

Fourthly, there are no exact themes for listening and writing. Criteria: speaking and reading themes are completely irrelevant to listening and partially irrelevant to writing.

Fifthly, the lexical units in reading themes are used in speaking; but not compulsory in writing. Criteria: the degree of understanding of the text is checked on the basis of oral speech themes.

Sixthly, speech situations are given together with oral speech themes. Criteria: speech situations should be also chosen with speech themes.

Seventhly, during the choosing process of speech themes and speech situations receiving information should be taken into account. It means that the theme is connected with general speech situation but demanded information is appointed by subthemes. Criteria: topic and situation should be considered as support of information.

Eighthly, in the curriculum regulation oral speech themes and subthemes are given fully, speech situations are given in certain samples, reading themes are indicated with the names of genres and kinds of texts. For example, political, scientific and cultural themes are recommended for reading. Written text is chosen on the basis of foreign language sources. Criteria: themes are appointed according to types of speech interactions (skills).

Ninthly, there are two reasons for given speech themes firstly that most taken information in the English language depends on themes, from another side, choosing the language material is also based on themes. Criteria: the information in the English

language forms the internal feature of themes so information and theme are two sides of the teaching material¹¹.

The main principle of teaching is providing learners with information, it doesn't matter where, when or how it is taught.

The information should be suitable for learners' interest and needs and based on the materials directed to raise students' language level and intercultural awareness.

Well, theme as external indicator, information as internal indicator comprise as one component of the content of teaching the English language.

There is also a general criterion for selecting of the content of teaching the English language. Three of them are widely used in practice¹². The first criterion is sufficiency of fulfilling the goals. It means that chosen content provides development of language sub-skills and skills. Theme and language material serve for developing experiences.

The second criterion in choosing content of teaching is the existence of teaching conditions and possibilities. Condition (the type of educational institution – school, lyceum, college) psychological age factor of a learner, language experience, number of learners and weekly hours of the lesson) helps learners in assimilation of possibility content of teaching. The third criterion is taking into consideration receptive and reproductive features of the assimilation.

To show the methodical component we take developing listening skills for illustration. The term “listening” means hearing and comprehension of the content of received speech. Listening is a receptive kind of language activity. It is both an aim and a means of teaching. Language comprehension (LC) as a means of teaching can be:

1) the way of introduction of the language material in oral form (in a conversation, in speech patterns);

2) means of forming well-set acoustic images of language phenomena (words) together with their meanings, which is ensured by multiple perception of the same material by the ear;

3) means of acquiring pronunciation sub-skills, because instruction only won't help students to pronounce a sound which is strange to their mother-tongue if they don't hear how it is pronounced by a teacher or by the speaker;

4) major means of teaching speaking. Psychologists and training specialists (beginning with H. Palmer) have admitted the necessity of listening coming before outstripping speaking;

5) means of mastering the (teaching) phonic mechanics for reading aloud comprised also acoustic images. Feedback of reading a text aloud is organized in the aspects of correctness and fluency. LC as the means of teaching permits multiple listening of one and the same speech material; while LC as a language activity constitutes a skill of comprehending speech by ear at single (presented but once) perception (presentation).

¹¹ Jalolov J.. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. –T.: O'qituvchi, 2012. -59-60 b.

¹² Теоретические основы методики обучения иностранным языкам в средней школе // Под ред. Климентенко А.Д., Миролюбов А.А. –М.: Педагогика, 1981. -С 89-90.

The psychological mechanisms of auditory perception of the speech: Mechanism I - physical perception of speech. Mechanism II – auditory memory, i.e. ability of keeping the accepted images in memory. Short-term memory provides preservation of the coming information during the perception phase. Long-term memory preserves the articulator images of words, word-combinations, constructions, rules, which ensure comprehension. Mechanism III – mechanism of inner speech. It has interrupted character. The more familiar the received information is the more broken inner speech will be. Mechanism IV – recognition on the basis of language experience, the limits of the active and passive vocabulary, intonation. Mechanism V – anticipation. It sets the listener to logical understanding, comprehension. Mechanism VI – Logical comprehension. It requires some interest in what is being said (to the subject), a certain tempo of mental activity, attention and concentration.

Difficulties of listening and comprehension of the speech and factors influencing the success of listening comprehension you can see in the “teaching listening” section. Difficult phenomena are included in the content of teaching listening.

3.3. Content of teaching language material

It was mentioned before, that language material envelops vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation aspects.

Content of teaching vocabulary. There are active and passive types of lexical material. As it has already been mentioned, active lexicon is a vocabulary used when a pupil expresses his/her own opinion in English or comprehends the others’ speech. Passive is used when a student apprehends emerged vocabulary. Active one is reproductive and passive one is receptive vocabulary. Both of them make the real vocabulary of a student.

When a student runs into unfamiliar vocabulary he/she can understand it because of the resemblance in the mother tongue and this is called potential vocabulary. If a pupil understands the word independently then it is considered as potential vocabulary. This kind of words include international words: (tennis – tennis, business – biznes, club – klub); conversion (belonging to deferent parts of speech, but similar in its form: work – ishlamoq, ish. About – yaqinida, haqida.); compound words (book+shop, pen+friend); stem familiar words (work, write, sing-worker, writer, singer). Another type of these words can be understood in context.

Vocabulary in speech is divided into 3 parts: **easy, comparatively difficult and most difficult words.**

Potential vocabulary belongs to the first one and can be divided into the following subtypes: 1. Form and meaning are common in the English language and in mother tongue (club – klub, tennis – tennis); 2. Conversion in English (a work – to work: ishlamoq, ish; far – uzoq, uzoqda); 3. Parts of the word taught before (bookshop, schoolboy, homework); 4. Stem and affixes are familiar (work+er, difficult+y); 5. Full forms are familiar to recognize its abbreviation (UK – United Kingdom, Ruz – Republic of Uzbekistan).

Comparatively difficult words are frequently used which don’t cause any lexical

mistakes according to function and semantics (Ex. Qalam – pencil; gapirmoq – speak; non – bread). Content area of these words is similar in two languages and it helps to learn but they are considered comparatively difficult words.

The most difficult type of lexicon causes semantic, functional and formal difficulties. They are classified as followings: poly-semantic words; compound words with the unfamiliar stems; “false” similar words (magazine – jurnal); champion (champions of peace – tinchlik tarafdorlari); functional words – prepositions; article; auxiliary verbs).

Comparatively difficult and the most difficult words consist of content of teaching lexicon. Content of teaching lexicon includes the words which are the part of lexical minimum and learned by doing special exercises because of their difficulties. The difficulty appears in the form, meaning or usage of the words in different context. Actually, words can be difficult for their semantic, functional, formal points.

We should take into consideration lexical approximation. A learner doesn't have to use an exact word, which means she/he may use another synonym instead, which may not fully coincide with the context.

The content of teaching grammar. Content of teaching materials of language claimed as part of teaching grammar. Content of teaching grammar envelopes a teaching part of grammar phenomena with the help of special rules (*not exact rules but models or algorithms*) and particular exercises. We can say that each side of grammar phenomenon, two or three of them (function, semantics, and form) can be placed in content of teaching grammar.

Units of the English languages can be divided into the two following groups according to their difficulty: 1) the most complicated grammar phenomena in which quantity of mistakes increases while changing grades; 2) average difficult grammar occurrences which quantity of mistakes are met in different grades; 3) grammar occurrences in which reducing quantity of mistakes are considered or no mistakes during occurring speech.

It is clear from schooling experiences that some occurrences are taught easily. For example, the usage of the nouns in plural, function of possessive, meaning of prepositions, etc.

There exist other grammar occurrences in which mistakes are quickly resolved with the help of a teacher's footnote (ordinary general rule). But there are such kinds of grammar errors among them which are very stable (living) and they move from grade to grade. They are needed to be explained in details, not as special rules but with the help of models and speech patterns.

Teachers know well that to teach the article to the pupils is very complicated since comparing to the Uzbek language the article is “alien”. Indefinite article has three meanings in the pupils' reproductive speech: 1) to express unknown thing (person); 2) to express any item (event) in certain area; 3) to describe a person or an item who/what that is. Learning the article offers the difficulties in form, meaning and function. Therefore in order to teach “the article” the teacher should make his pupils to do, at least, four lessons. Teaching the most difficult grammar occurrences requires doing

rational exercises and learning the rules indeed (exercises are done without the rules while learning easier grammar units concerning the forth group).

The content of teaching grammar of the English language should be chosen according to the three following methodic measures: taking into consideration students' grammar experiences in the native language basing on the earned experiences of the English language and reckoning with order of grammar occurrences. These scientific measures belong to training specialist T.Q. Sattorov who researched perfectly grammar teaching matters of the English language at Uzbek schools. But anyway we shouldn't forget about grammar approximation. It means that we couldn't demand the students' perfect type of speech.

The content of teaching pronunciation. The main goal of Teaching Pronunciation at a secondary school is developing phonological competence, i.e. pronunciation and intonation sub-skills. The English pronunciation norm is called Received Pronunciation (RP). Components of Phonological competence: sounds, stress, rhyme, rhythm, intonation. Teaching Pronunciation at a secondary school is centered on the idea of approximation, which means:

- reducing the amount of phonetic material (4 types of English intonation are studied);
- admittance of some deterioration of pronouncing particular sounds (t, d, l, n, th, r), which does not disrupt communication between speakers.

In its syntactical function intonation serves:

- 1) to differentiate between the communicative types of sentences;
- 2) in its emotional function – it contributes to conveying the speaker's conversation, to the interlocutor;
- 3) in the function of separation it can promote differentiation of essential info from insignificant one.

The criteria to the selection of minimum pronunciation for a secondary school:

- adequateness to the needs of communication: The minimum intonation comprises four types of intonation patterns corresponding to four communicative types of sentences: statements, imperatives, questions, exclamations;
- styles of speech;
- normal/standard pronunciation: it means excluding jargonisms, elliptical forms ('cause, gimme, it aint gonna happen, wanna). Groups of English phonemes: vowels (long and short), consonants (which have their positional variants), double vowels, or diphthongs (which are strange to Uzbek-speaking pupils).

The general regularities of the English pronunciation are:

- no palatalization of consonants;
- no devoicing of voiced consonants in the final position or before the voiceless consonants: eyes – ice, back – bag;
- observing short and long vowels: e.g. sheep or ship;
- making two stresses in a long word.

By *pronunciation sub-skills* we mean sub-skills of correct articulation of sounds and join them in words, word combinations and sentences, as well as recognition of all the studied sounds. Speech sound articulation is important not only for pronouncing the words but also recognizing and spelling them.

By *rhythmical-intonation sub-skills* we mean sub-skills as producing intonationally and rhythmically correct speech and comprehension of the received speech.

In order to comprehend a spoken message, four main types of knowledge may be drawn on: *phonological* – the sound system; *syntactic* – how words are put together; *semantic* – word and propositional knowledge; and *pragmatic* – the meaning of utterances in particular situations. We review these types of meaning in turn, suggesting what role they might play in the overall listening process. In addition, we consider non-verbal signal bring the additional meaning, that’s why learners should assimilate *kinetic* knowledge conveyed by the facial and bodily movement of the speaker. This type of meaning takes place when the speaker is visible.¹³

Questions:

1. How do you differentiate the terms “language material, language minimum and content of teaching”?
2. What types of components content of teaching English do you know?
3. What types of approximation are there in the content of teaching English?
4. What kinds of criteria are there for choosing language material in the content of teaching?
5. What kind of approaches to listening do you know?
6. For specific levels of learners – elementary, intermediate, advanced – which approach to teaching listening do you consider the most suitable? Why?
7. When would an integrated approach to teaching listening be most appropriate?

Tasks:

1. Give the detailed definition of speech themes, speech skills (sub-skills) and language materials.
2. Here are some questions to be discussed. Read them and give your own opinions.

What do you think ...

- * Is vocabulary or grammar more important for organizing communication?
- * Do the language learners need immediate or long-term rewards?
- * What is the role of motivation in teaching language material?
- * Should a communicative class give special attention to accuracy or fluency?
- * Do the language learners learn best by using plenty of analysis or intuition?

3. Read guidelines for renewing the curriculum goal. Write a report on the topic “What has been done in the system of FLT under the given items of guidelines?” in order:

- to understand contemporary trends in curriculum design and curriculum renewal;
- to define principles to guide the language teaching/learning process;
- to create syllabuses;

¹³ Second Language Listening: Theory and Practice. / John Flowerdew, Lindsay Miller (ed.). -Cambridge University Press, 2005. -45 p.

- to devise strategies to cope with classes of mixed ability, mixed language background, and mixed achievement;
 - to elaborate assessment schemes to monitor, record and report on students' progress;
 - to choose, adapt, create and use appropriate teaching/learning materials and equipment;
 - to create schemes of work for particular groups of learners;
 - to evaluate classroom practices and improve them, and thus assist teachers to learn how to renew their own curriculum.
4. Work out some kind of topics according to SES for level A1 (which should cover all skills).

Independent work:

1. Look through these sites for further information. Write down your own notes on the topic.

1. <http://waucondastore.com/methods-teaching-english/>
2. www.Content-English.org
3. <http://www.onestopenglish.com/>

2. Study the information (taken from the work by Millrood¹⁴ and Celce-Murcia¹⁵). Give your arguments why these strategies are important for communication. Do we need mastering the strategic competence for communication? Prove your statements.

Success of communication depends on the choosing the successful discursive strategies adequate to the situation. E.g. The Prince (in «The Prince and the Pauper» by Mark Twain) was unable «to ask» because he was only competent in how to «gave the orders».

Successful strategies are known as the four maxims (by H. Grice) of good communication. These maxims include 1) quality (say only what is supported by evidence), 2) quantity (say no more and no less than you think is needed), 3) relevance (say what is relevant to the point of communication), 4) manner (present your ideas clearly and unambiguously). The four maxims of successful communication can be used in teaching how communicate effectively.

Strategic competence in the communicative aspect includes:

**Achievement*: strategies of approximation, circumlocution, code-switching, miming, etc.

**Stalling or time gaining*: using phrases like «Where was I? Could you repeat that?»

**Self-monitoring*: using phrases that allow for self repair like *I mean...*

¹⁴ Millrood R.P. English Teaching Methodology. – M.: Drofa, 2007.

¹⁵ Celce-Murcia M. Rethinking the Role of Communicative Competence in Language Teaching/ Soler E.A., Safond Jorda M.P. (eds). Intercultural language Use and Language Learning. -Springer, 2007.

**Interacting:* these are strategies that include appeals for help/clarification, which involve seeking out native speakers to practice with, actively looking for opportunities to use TL.

Lecture 4

METHODS AND PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Plan:

1. Distinction between the main categories of methodology.
2. Communicative language teaching and learning.
3. Linguo-cultural teaching and learning.
4. Methods of FL teaching and learning.
5. Age groups for choice of methods in teaching process.

Key terms: methodical categories, approach, method, technique, technology as a procedure, instruction, principle, communicative language teaching and learning, co-teaching and co-learning, linguo-cultural teaching and learning, thesaurus, the second language personality, linguo-cultural competence, interactive learning, learner-centered learning, cooperative learning, content-based learning, task-based learning, accuracy, fluency, age groups.

Methods of FL teaching



In methodology of FLT the different approaches are used to distinguish methods. They can be classified according to different criteria.

1. According to the sources of information (sources transmission and acquiring the knowledge): 1) verbal methods – lecture, conversation, explanation; 2) method of working with a book – working on textbook, reading additional literature, preparation of messages, abstracts; 3) method of observation, experiment; 4) methods of exercises and practice – practical experience of learners.

2. According to the quality parameters, as particular features of cognitive process, they are: 1) explanative-illustrative method; 2) reproductive method; 3) problem-recount method; 4) partly-searching method; 5) research.

3. In agreement with specifics of FLT and its action-oriented character there are methods of teaching: 1) demonstration (presentation); 2) explanation; 3) practice (training); 4) feedback and self-control.

4. The methods of interaction between a teacher and learners oriented to the FLT in the aspect of organization are: 1) familiarization of the teaching material on the basis of visual-sensory perception; 2)

independent comprehension of teaching material and operations with it; 3) practice for production of speech; 4) practice for reception of speech; 5) motivational production of oral and written speech; 6) motivational reception of oral and written speech; 7) control, correction and evaluation of speech acts in a productive aspect; 8) control, correction, evaluation of speech acts in a receptive aspect.

These methods demonstrate the interaction between a teacher and learners: a teacher (or textbook) organizes the algorithm of operations and actions, and learners implement them. These methods related to the general didactic methods reflect the specificity of EL as a subject and levels of FL acquisition. But at the same time they bring the dominant idea, for instance, method of observation or explanative-illustrative method. They are tools which can be used consecutively while working on the new material. If we use visual aids, motivational strategies, various situational contexts, during the presentation of new material, then learners will better percept, comprehend and remember the new material.

These methods put together a hierarchical system; they are in collateral subordination; a learner moves from step of familiarization to comprehension, then to training and to using, i.e. to communication. As well as in teaching process it is necessary to undertake an assessment for effective gaining accuracy and fluency by learners. For this aims various ways (methods) are used.

Distinction between the main categories of methodology

In determination of methods, the distinction between «philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principles and a set of derived procedures for teaching a language, is central»¹⁶. Although these categories of methodology is othen mixed.

E.Antony¹⁷ identified three levels of conceptualization and organization, which he named *approach, method and technique*. According to his model: *approach* is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; *method* is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; *technique* is a level at which classroom procedures are described.

Approach is considered to be the theory about the feature of language and language learning that stands as the source of practices and principles in language teaching. J.C.Richards and Th.S.Rodgers present linguistic and psycholinguistic aspects of *approach*, as follows: a) theory of language which has three different theoretical views of language and nature of language proficiency: the structural, functional and interactional view; b) theory of language learning which associates with a method at the level of approach emphasizing either one or both of these dimensions: process oriented and condition oriented theories¹⁸. The second level at which approaches and methods are treated is a design and it is a dimension specially developed for an instructional system which leads an approach to a method. At this level of method analysis objectives, language content, learning tasks and teaching activities, role of students, role

¹⁶ Richards J.C., Rodgers Th. S. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Second ed. -Cambridge: CUP, 2002. -P.19.

¹⁷Antony (1963:63-67), cited in the book: Richards J.C., Rodgers Th. S. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Second ed. -Cambridge: CUP, 2002.

¹⁸ Richards J.C., Rodgers Th. S. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Second ed. -Cambridge: CUP, 2002. -P.19.

of teachers and role of instructional materials are designated. And the third level of approach and methods analysis as procedure is concerned with how the tasks and activities are integrated into lessons and used as a basis for teaching and learning.

Thus, *methods* are held to be fixed in teaching systems with prescribed techniques and practices, whereas *approaches* represent language teaching philosophies that can be interpreted and applied in a variety of different ways in the classroom. Method can be distinguished according to the teaching and learning context and it is used in wide context (Communicative language teaching) and narrow context (project work, problem-solving, brainstorming). Approach and method are based on the *principles* as initial theoretical points. Procedure itself includes task, techniques and activities. Tasks and activities can be considered as exercises. Technique is a way for a teacher to organize a learner's activity. Through techniques we develop in learners productive, receptive and interactive skills that are necessary for effective communication.

Technology is meant as a procedure of teaching and learning FL in the classrooms. By technology of teaching we understand the complex or system including algorithm of operations and actions and ways of acquiring the content of FLT for achievement the result of FLT/ FLL as a certain level of communicative competence.

Pedagogical technology is the systematic method of creation, application and determination of the FLT process and acquiring the knowledge with the help of technical and human resources and their interaction for the goals of optimizing the forms of education. Technology can be manifested also at the level of operations and actions in the teaching and learning process.

In methodology the following technologies are distinguished:

- illustrative;
- dialogic;
- playing;
- problem-solving;
- project;
- case study;
- information-communication.

But we can meet and other classifications in methodology of FLT.

2. Communicative language teaching and learning

Communicative language teaching/learning (CLT/ CLL) can be interpreted in many different ways and used to describe a wide variety of classroom procedures, because it refers to a diverse set of rather general and uncontroversial principles. We sum principles pointed by J.C. Richards¹⁹ and basic characteristics of this approach in the Table 4. It is worth to compare their correspondence between two columns.

¹⁹ Richards J.C. (n.d.) 30 years of TEFL/TESL: A Personal reflection. - Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

Table 4. Principles and basic characteristics of CLT/CLL

| Principles of CLT/CLL | Basic characteristics of CLT/CLL |
|---|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The general goal of language learning is communicative competence. 2. Learners learn a language through using it to communicate. 3. Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities. 4. Fluency and accuracy are both important dimensions of communication. 5. Communication involves the integration of different language skills. 6. Learning is a gradual process that involves trial and errors. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language. 2. The introduction of authentic texts into learning situation. 3. The provision of opportunities for learners focus, not only on the language but also on the learning process itself. 4. An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as an important contributing element to classroom learning. 5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom. 6. Contextualization as a basic premise and linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methods. 7. Fluency as acceptable language is a primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context²⁰. |

Communicative approach is dominant one in teaching L2 and FL instruction and it emphasizes that language is best learned by using the communicative meaning, rather than focusing on explicit learning grammar and vocabulary, especially at schools.

The concept of communicativeness meets the needs of students and presents objectives, content and methods as a prevalent basis of the CEFR, being the accepted framework in the field of language teaching and learning; makes it possible to facilitate communication and interaction among students in order to promote students' mobility.

The following types of learning are associated with the Communicative Approach:

1. Interactive Learning: This concept goes right to the heart of communication itself, stressing the dual roles of «receiver» and «sender» in any communicative situation. Learning through interaction is proposed as alternative to learning through repetition and habit formation. Interaction and negotiation of meaning are seen as central of learning through tasks that require attention to meaning, transfer of information, and pushed output. The concept of interactive learning entails to be a lot of pair and group work in the classroom, as well as genuine language input from the «real world» for meaningful communication.

2. Learner-centered Learning: This kind of instruction involves the giving over of some «power» in the language learning process to the learners themselves. It also strives to allow for personal creativity and input from the learners, as well as taking into

²⁰English4room/info/.

account their learning needs and objectives. Learner-centered curricula are designed by considering the needs and interests of students, and process-oriented syllabuses which center on procedures, tasks and content.

3. Cooperative/Collaborative Learning essentially involves students learning from each other in groups. It has been comprised as a way of encouraging communicative instruction in the classroom and is seen as a stretch of the procedures of CLT. It is viewed as a learner-centered approach offering the advantages over teacher-fronted classroom methods, fostered competition rather than cooperation and favored majority of students. The concept of this type of learning stresses the «team» like nature of the classroom and emphasizes *cooperation* as opposed to *competition*. Learners share information and try to achieve their learning goals in a group. Within this approach teachers teach students collaborative or social skills so that they can work together more effectively.

4. Content-based Learning as an instruction in which teaching is arranged around the content of information that students will acquire. It joins language learning to content/subject matter and engages them both concurrently. Special information provides natural content for language instruction. Language is seen as a tool or medium for acquiring knowledge about other things, instantly proving its usefulness. An important factor in this kind of learning is that the content itself determines what language items need to be mastered, not the other way around. When learners study math or science using English as the medium, they are more intrinsically motivated to learn more of the language.

5. Task-based Learning: This type of learning proposes tasks as useful vehicles and instruction in FLT. This concept equates the idea of a «learning task» to a language learning technique in itself. This could be a problem solving activity or a project, but the task should have a clear objective, appropriate content, a working/application procedure, and a set range of outcomes. As learners work to complete a task, they have abundant opportunity to interact. During interaction they facilitate language acquisition, they get to listen to the language which may be beyond their present ability, but which may be assimilated into their knowledge of the target language for use at a later time.

As with content-based instruction, a task-based approach aims to provide learners with a natural context for language use. One way of attaining the focus on meaning is through content- or theme-based instruction, and contemporary teaching approaches such as content-based and task-based ones which are all applications of the communicative approach at vocational colleges.

Content and language integrated learning presupposes to enhance learners' linguistic competence thanks to a higher amount of a target language exposure. Among most favorably influenced by this kind of learning is the learner's lexicon. Through receiving FL input in different content subjects learners acquire more profound knowledge and specialized terminology for their future profession. But we should take into consideration that at vocational colleges we teach 1) general English and 2) specialized English. At the same time content-based instruction is aimed to use of socially oriented themes, represents an effort to link students with the world in which

students live. That's why this instruction can also be used in teaching/learning English at academic lyceums too.

3. Linguo-cultural teaching and learning

For the effective intercultural communication learners should know both the language and culture. Lack of knowledge of cultural specifics has a negative impact on understanding between the representatives of different cultures. That's why, in ELT the co-teaching and co-learning the language and culture is implemented.

Co-teaching/co-learning language and culture focus on values and beliefs, on one hand, and attitudes and behaviors, on the other. In fact a social or cultural blunder can be far more serious than a linguistic error when one is engaged in oral communication. Even when good cultural descriptions are available, it is hard to get learners to change their native verbal behavior based on a new set of assumptions.

There are social contextual factors, stylistic appropriateness and cultural factors²¹ which influence the norms and conventions of intercultural communication: 1) *social contextual factors*: the participants' age, gender, status, social distance and their relations to each other (e.g. Distance of power and affect); 2) *stylistic appropriateness*: politeness strategies, a sense of genres and registers; 3) *cultural factors*: background knowledge of the target language group, major dialects/regional differences, and cross cultural awareness.

Nowadays, the most accepted instructional framework in the co-teaching and learning programmes is communicative approach, whose main goal is to increase learners' communicative competence. This theoretical term means being able to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately in the target language and culture. However, it is also demands integrating culture-oriented instruction. One of the variants of culture-oriented approaches is linguo-cultural teaching and learning.

A language is a means of communication and a form of culture. That's why linguo-cultural approach matches many of the goals of Communicative Language Teaching by seeking: 1) an integration of linguistic and cultural learning to facilitate communication and interaction; 2) the potential co-teaching/co-learning language and culture to prepare learners to communicate with the representatives of the native speakers and non-native speakers in English in an appropriate way. English has become an international language or *a lingua franca* (language-mediator), that's why the bounds of usage the EL have been extended.

From the position of linguists the linguo-cultural approach is directed to study the current condition and functioning of a language and culture in the close interrelation in the different types of discourse²². This approach to FLT gives an opportunity to interpret

²¹ Celce-Murcia M. Rethinking the Role of Communicative Competence in Language Teaching/ Soler E.A., Safond Jorda M.P. (eds). Intercultural Language Use and Language Learning. -Springer, 2007. -P.46.

²² Воробьев В.В. Лингвокультурология. – М.: РУДН, 2008; Маслова В.А. Лингвокультурология. -М.: Академия, 2007.

the language meaning as a result of cultural experience or as units of cultural memory of people²³.

Linguo-cultural teaching and learning is based on the formula «from language facts to culture facts; from culture facts to language facts» and directed at developing the «second language personality» and the certain communicative skills which are necessary for undertaking the intercultural interaction. This approach presupposes to study the national-cultural features and differences between the target and native languages and aims for developing an intercultural/cross-cultural competence where the *thesaurus of lexicon* and *thesaurus of conceptual world picture* of the native speakers are to develop. So, teaching EL integrates itself teaching culture as a set of beliefs, values and norms shared by community members, serving their self-identity with this social group. This competence related to cultural awareness and influenced the productivity of intercultural communication. The result of developing the «second language personality» is a set of knowledge, abilities and skills for productive undertaking of intercultural communication.

Under the linguo-cultural approach the culture becomes the means of cognitive activity and language itself is a means of receiving new information about world picture of the English language speakers. Linguo-cultural teaching and learning is implemented through content-based and context-based language instruction. Content-based teaching of culture focuses on culture-related information, while context-based instruction emphasizes real-world situations where people need to behave in culturally appropriate way. Content-based teaching is knowledge-oriented and context-based instruction is skill-oriented.

The linguo-cultural aspect runs through all components of communicative competence, which includes: 1) cultural knowledge and its representations in language units' meaning and texts; 2) skills for comprehension of linguo-cultural information within the language units and texts; 3) skills to produce texts taking into consideration the linguo-cultural features.

Within integrating communicative and linguo-cultural teaching and learning (taking the linguo-cultural component as a point of departure) a variety of activities in the four language skills are presented for teaching intercultural communication.

No doubt, that an extended living experience among members of the target language group is probably the best experience for language acquisition if the learner has adequate basic preparation in both linguistic and socio-cultural competence coupled with good power of observation²⁴. In this case the native speaker may become as a model that is implicit in both the linguistic and sociolinguistic competences.

²³ Красных В.В. Этнопсихоллингвистика и лингвокультурология. - М.: Гносис, 2002. -С. 36.

²⁴ Celce-Murcia M. Rethinking the role of Communicative Competence in language Teaching/ Soler E.A., Safond Jorda M.P. (eds). Intercultural language Use and Language Learning. -Springer, 2007. -P.46.

4. Methods of FL teaching

In methodology of FLT the different approaches are used to distinguish methods. They can be classified according to different criteria.

1. According to the sources of information (sources transmission and acquiring the knowledge): 1) verbal methods – lecture, conversation, explanation; 2) method of working with a book – working on textbook, reading additional literature, preparation of messages, abstracts; 3) method of observation, experiment; 4) methods of exercises and practice – practical experience of learners.

2. According to the quality parameters, as particular features of cognitive process, they are: 1) explanative-illustrative method; 2) reproductive method; 3) problem-recount method; 4) partly-searching method; 5) research.

3. In agreement with specifics of FLT and its action-oriented character there are methods of teaching: 1) demonstration (presentation); 2) explanation; 3) practice (training); 4) feedback and self-control.

4. The methods of interaction between a teacher and learners oriented to the FLT in the aspect of organization are: 1) familiarization of the teaching material on the basis of visual-sensory perception; 2) independent comprehension of teaching material and operations with it; 3) practice for production of speech; 4) practice for reception of speech; 5) motivational production of oral and written speech; 6) motivational reception of oral and written speech; 7) control, correction and evaluation of speech acts in a productive aspect; 8) control, correction, evaluation of speech acts in a receptive aspect.

These methods demonstrate the interaction between a teacher and learners: a teacher (or textbook) organizes the algorithm of operations and actions, and learners implement them. These methods related to the general didactic methods reflect the specificity of EL as a subject and levels of FL acquisition. But at the same time they bring the dominant idea, for instance, method of observation or explanative-illustrative method. They are tools which can be used consecutively while working on the new material. If we use visual aids, motivational strategies, various situational contexts, during the presentation of new material, then learners will better percept, comprehend and remember the new material.

These methods put together a hierarchical system; they are in collateral subordination; a learner moves from step of familiarization to comprehension, then to training and to using, i.e. to communication. As well as in teaching process it is necessary to undertake an assessment for effective gaining accuracy and fluency by learners. For this aims various ways (methods) are used.

5. Age groups for choice of methods in teaching process

It is important for teachers to get acquainted with current instructional methods and their underlying principles as well as effective classroom techniques, materials, and assessment strategies appropriate to a certain stage depending on the learners' age group.

«Age» can be seen as a learner *variable*, a contextual consideration that can be rated alongside knowing «who» exactly your students are, and «where» and «why» they are learning English as foreign language. While it would perhaps be rash to say that this or that specific method matches this or that specific age group of learners, there are definitely general considerations for various age groups that ought to encourage teachers to be mindful/selective of the kinds of teaching *methods* and *techniques* they use according to the age of their students. Features of age groups and stages of education are presented in the Table 5.

We need to compare them in the aspect of opportunities for the ELT intellectual development.

Each approach and method put into practice will be shaped at least by the teacher, the students, the conditions of instruction, and the broader socio-cultural context. A particular method cannot be participation for success for everyone.

Table 5. Age group of learners

| Age groups of learners | Stage of education |
|--|---|
| <p>1. Young Learners: It is well-known that children (ages 5-12) are very much orientated in their minds around the «here and now» and directly visible/perceivable environment. Grammatical rules/explanations are usually lost on them, as are somewhat «adult» notions of what is correct and what isn't. They develop well when given plenty of examples and patterns to follow. They tend to have a much shorter attention span and need activities that capture their immediate interest. They also need much in the way of «sensory input» - that is, they need to have many or all of their five senses stimulated at once. While generally less inhibited than adults in terms of experimenting with new language, they tend to have more fragile egos and can be very sensitive to their peers.</p> | <p>Pre-school and primary education. 1-6 forms.</p> |
| <p>2. Teenagers: The ages 12-18 coincide with a time of rapid transition and change, both mentally and physically. As teenagers begin to develop more cognitive ability, they can be exposed to language learning techniques that require more logical and/or abstract thinking. Attention span begins to lengthen, but there are also more distractions of an emotional nature. Probably the most important considerations for these learners are «affective» ones. Issues to do with ego and self-esteem are at their height, and teenagers can be incredibly sensitive to the ways others see their physical, mental and emotional development. Real or perceived errors can shatter confidence and detract from risk-taking. Teachers of teenagers need to be able to find ways to draw on and develop cognitive,</p> | <p>Secondary education. 7-9 forms. Special secondary education - academic lyceum and vocational college students.</p> |

| | |
|--|-------------------|
| analytical and logic skills, whilst being constantly mindful of feedback techniques and confidence building strategies. | |
| 3. Adults: Teachers of adults need to bear in mind that these learners have longer attention spans and can handle learning that requires more cognition and abstract thinking. They tend to respond well to the teaching of grammatical rules. They may not be as willing to be «risk-takers», and generally need to feel respected and that they have a «choice-making» role in the classroom. | Higher education. |

First of all, choosing the method depends on the goal, characteristic, age, and contents of the lesson. The English teacher may choose from a wide range of methods such as conversation, presentation, re-telling, translation, etc. An EL teacher might also consider selecting from this range of methods.

For the 1-2 class learners at school the EL is presented, practiced and learned through speaking and listening. For these learners effective classroom strategies are traditionally involved as using plays, songs, rhymes and stories with repeated language structures. One way to capture young children under 7-8 years attention and keep them engaged in activities is to supplement the activities with lots of brightly colored visuals, toys, puppets, or objects to match the stories that a teacher tells or songs that a teacher sings. These can also help make the language comprehensible and can be used for follow-up activities, such as retelling stories or guessing games. Listening and drawing the pictures (animals) is a very effective method for teaching young children in the English classrooms. It is successful to move smoothly from one activity to another; one activity can be only for 5-10 minutes.

The goal of all early language education (1-4 forms) should be to hook pupils when they are young and keep them interested in learning English for the rest of their lives. So, the goals of English instruction for young learners should be to: 1) make children feel competent and confident while learning English; 2) provide a safe, entertaining, and educational environment; 3) create basis for life-long learning English.

ELT at colleges is organized within content-based and task-based instructions. The methods which are used at college: analysis and reading the specialized texts, working with terms, problem-solving, clustering, grouping, matching, etc. Word-problem activity can be built around almost any theme.

The audio/video means can be used in teenager groups at schools, academic lyceums and colleges. Diligently used, they help teachers assure themselves that their students perceive intonation and pronunciation easier, and understand English leisurely by hearing it. Students' reading may be corrected handier. Explanations may be offered to learners while they are watching a certain video material on the topic. While watching a film or a documentary they have the chance to hear native speakers talking. Students can also write a dictation (recorded on tape). Literary passages may be recorded and after the learners have heard them, they comment or analyze them, etc. When it comes strictly to video materials, we can distinguish between before-watching activities, while-watching activities, and after-watching activities. Including all these in

a lesson, working with the video images becomes really productive and offers learners the possibility to broaden both their cultural horizon and their knowledge.

Questions:

1. What differences can be pointed out between approach and method?
2. Can we say that technology is the same as method or not?
3. What principles of FLT do you know?
4. Why is CLT a dominant and effective approach in FLT? How is language viewed?
5. Can you interpret Linguo-cultural teaching and learning?
6. What criteria are used for distinguishing methods?
7. What kind of methods are used for organization of the new material?
8. Can we use the same methods in all stages of education?

Tasks:

1. Think of types of EL learning. What difference between them have you found out?
2. Tell about factors connected with communicate adequately norms and convention of intercultural communication?
3. Discussion on the topic: «Communication is a process». Explain the notion «to negotiate meaning».
4. Work in the small groups on the topic: «Instructions are suitable to ELT at school/lyceum/college».

Independent work:

1. Read the text and think of the issues connected with the communicative approach.

Communicative teaching language is widely used all over the world. A brief description of CLT is value-laden and direct transposition of this method and its principles carry the ideological value about choice, freedom, and equality that are not universal. According to P.N. Sullivan, Western values are reflected not only in principles of CLT but also in common CLT classroom activities and practices²⁵, such as pair and group work, and information gap activities. For mentality of learners from Eastern and Asian countries freedom of choice and equality and others in the EL classrooms are not appropriate. Effective classroom activities are not necessarily pair and group work in information gap activities, but activities that fit the students' discourse styles. Depending on the cultural, or even the physical setting, a teacher can use tasks, pair and small group learning or the whole class format. Often a combination of the three or two is appropriate.

²⁵ Sullivan P.N. Playfulness as mediation in communicative language teaching in a Vietnamese classroom/ In: Socio-cultural theory and second language learning. Eds. J.R. Lantolf . -Oxford: OUP, 2000. -P.115-132.

«Communicative language teaching methods designed to enhance the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning continue to be explored and adapted»²⁶. That's why, the CLT needs to be adapted to fit local context, local teachers in many EL settings may also need reexamine some of their traditional beliefs and assumptions about language teaching and learning. Embedded in communicative approach to teaching is a belief in humanistic and communicative nature of language, which is not always in accordance with traditional views.

2. Read and compare cognitive-acting approach with linguo-cultural teaching and learning. Think about the levels of the cognitive process.

Cognitive-action approach

Cognitive-action approach presupposes the language as a means of cognitive activity which is functioning at two levels: 1) cognitive level connected with the thinking (intellectual) operations; 2) action-oriented level connected with the process of production and comprehension of various discourses. That's why cognitive level is the library of meanings and the action is the library of texts. From the methodical point of view by the cognitive aspect we understand the level of acquiring foreign codes, and action is the level of communicative culture development.

Cognitive level includes thesaurus-1 related to the associative-verbal net of the language that forms the language picture of the world, the thesaurus -2 forms the conceptual (global) picture of the world (EL native speakers).

Taking into consideration cognitive process in EL acquisition we can point out the following levels: 1) the level of rules – realization of the speech action in accordance with the rules; 2) the level of meaning – understanding the meaning; 3) the level of speech activity – scheme of production of the utterances; 4) cultural level – understanding the social and cultural context; 5) cognitive level – understanding the cognitive strategies for the speech production and having opportunity to evaluate the language and speech levels himself/herself.

Lecture 5

Teaching aids and teaching materials for EFL classes

The questions to be discussed

- 1. The definition of teaching aids and teaching materials**
- 2. The requirements for modern textbooks for teaching a foreign language**
- 3. Classification of teaching aids**

²⁶ Savignon S.J. Communicative Curriculum Design for the 21-st Century// J. English Teaching Forum. 2002, 40 (1). -P 2.

Key terms: authenticity, clarity, practicality, appropriateness, Actual objects, Flash Cards, Slides, Charts, Pictures, Maps.

As we know, teaching is an art, which includes knowledge, presentation, an art of dissemination. Teaching demands broad knowledge of subject matter in all horizons, complete curriculum with standards, positive and caring attitude with enthusiasm, and a desire for learning and techniques of classroom management and a desire to make a difference in the lives of young people. I am sure that nobody will deny the fact that a teacher is an aid and the activities used by the teachers are materials in the classroom.

Teaching materials are the materials, which the teacher can use to help pupils learn a foreign language through visual or audio perception. They must be capable of contributing to the achievement of the practical, cultural, and educational aims of learning a foreign language. Good teaching materials will be helpful to reinforce the pupils' initial desire to learn the language.

By teaching materials, we mean the materials, which the teacher can use to help pupils learn a foreign language through visual or audio perception. They must be capable of contributing to the achievement of the practical, cultural, and educational aims of learning a foreign language.

The modern textbooks for teaching a foreign language should meet the following requirements:

1. The textbooks should provide pupils with the knowledge of the language sufficient for developing language skills, i.e., they must include the fundamentals of the target language.

2. They ensure pupils activity in speaking, reading and writing, i.e., they must correspond to the aims of foreign language teaching in schools

3. The textbooks must arouse pupils' interest and excite their curiosity

4. The textbooks must extend pupils' educational horizon, i.e., the material of textbooks should be of educational value.

Teaching materials acquire special importance in gaining cultural aims. In this connection, it is necessity to mention the qualities teaching materials should possess:

1. Authenticity

2. Clarity

3. Practicality

4. Appropriateness

The followings are the samples of teaching materials which are useful for every EFL classes:

Wall-charts: A wall-chart is a big sheet of paper with drawing or words to be hung in the classroom and used for revision or generalization of some linguistic phenomenon, such as “English Tenses”, “Passive Voice”, “Rules of Reading” and so on.

Posters or series of illustrations portraying a story. They are used as “props” in retelling a story read or heard.

- Pictures.** a) Object pictures (a bed, a cat, a table)
b) Situational pictures (the picture of a boy lying in bed)
c) Topical picture (a picture of a bedroom)

According to A. Spicer, “The purpose of teaching materials is not to usurp the role of the teacher, nor even to make his work easier. Their main purpose is to make it possible for the teacher to teach more effectively, more interestingly and more economically. It is equally important that the material should help the pupil to learn more easily and more rapidly.”

Teaching aids used in various combinations allow the teacher to develop his pupils’ oral-aural skills: These materials are valuable for presentation, exercised, revision, testing. Visual materials have an important role to play in the development of hearing and speaking skills.

Teaching became as important as tools of teaching in the past that you could not think of classroom without a teacher standing at the blackboard with chalk in hand, drawing diagrams and pictures or writing the lesson notes on the blackboard, which the students busily copied in their notebooks. However, the same methods are continuing in most of the Indian schools, but many schools have changed to the modern methods of teachings as explained above. The best is to make use of both the traditional as well as the modern methods of teaching. Teachers of today have to keep abreast of the modern technology available for teaching and use each and every opportunity to get their classrooms equipped with the same. The teachers of today will need to change their teaching strategies according to the need of the hour. They have to be selective in choosing teaching aids relevant to the lessons and subjects they teach.

Examples of teaching aids

- Actual objects
- Flash Cards
- Slides
- Charts

- Pictures
- Maps
- Bulletin Boards
- Models

Thus, these are examples of teaching aids, it is very helpful for teachers and also students.

Classification Of Teaching aids

Different list of teaching aids classified as follows:

Traditional Teaching Aids: Traditional teaching aids include learning through Books, Periodicals, Blackboard etc.

Visual Teaching Aids: Visual Teaching aids include posters, model, figure, chart, graph etc. It also includes graphics such as diagrams, cut-outs, globe, objects, cartoon, info-graphs, bulletin board, flannel board, picture, map and others.

Mechanical Teaching Aids: Mechanical teaching aids include an Audio teaching machine, tape recorder, radio, motion picture, Projector, epidiastope, filmstrips.

Audio-Visual Teaching Aids: This type of teaching aid includes video, Cassettes, Films, television, and others.

Visual Material Teaching Aids: Outline charts, organization charts, tabular charts, flow charts etc. are also used in visual Material Teaching aids.

Types of Teaching Aids

Following are the different types of teaching aids:

1. Visual Aids

Teaching aids which include learning through visual representation is called visual aids. Visual aids are the kind of material that we can see with our eyes. It is the most important teaching aid that teachers always use in their teaching-learning process everyday like book, blackboard, chalk, duster, indicator, picture, map, graphs, charts, posters, bulletin boards, museums, projectors and also important visual aids.

Ground substance: The ground substance is the substance that the student can see and touch. The student inspects and examines by touching and observing matter, which develops the students' senses, as well as the development of his thinking, understanding and observing power.

Model: When the actual substance cannot be brought into the classroom or its size is so large or it is not available then teachers prepare its sample or model which is shown in the classroom so that the student can easily be explained.

Image: Pictures affect students very much. Students are lost in reality by seeing pictures, so teachers also present any story or science or any other subject related picture to the students so that they can be shown and explained. The things taught through the picture can be remembered by the students for a long time, as well as the pictures can be easily shown in the classroom.

Map: We use the map only when we have to teach the students about historical events and geographical elements or places. While using the map, teachers should take care of some points such as names, titles, directions and signs etc. should be written on it.

Sketch: We need a drawing only when we do not have any real substance or model or map. In such conditions, we show students by drawing a drawing or sketch on a blackboard or on a whiteboard, like making a map of India, showing any state etc.

Graph: A teacher uses graphs only when he has to show any increasing or decreasing pattern. A graph is used in many subjects such as geography, history, mathematics, science, or also to explain climate. And graphs are used to give information about population etc. as well. Also, the graph is most commonly used in teaching mathematics and science.

Chart: The chart is used in Hindi, English, Geography, History, Economics, Civics, Mathematics and Science. For example, to show various forms of nouns in grammar in English or Hindi.

Bulletin board: A bulletin board is a board where students display pictures, villages, figures, articles or essential information in relation to the country's political, economic and social problems. Bulletin boards continuously increase the knowledge of the students.

Museum: The museum is also an important tool of education to increase the knowledge of the students in which all the objects are kept in one place, making the text more interesting and alive with these objects. The museum collects items that are very helpful in subjects like geography, history, mathematics, science.

Projector: Projectors play the most important role among the most used tools in the modern education system. Teaching-learning is made more simple and interesting through projectors. Through the projector, the students get a different kind of enjoyment and memory, development of observational power, curiosity etc.

Slides and Films: Slides and film are used as teaching aids and a projector is used for this. Slides of pictures or film strips can be shown by the projector in a sequence to give students knowledge.

Globe: With the help of the globe, children are shown the boundaries of continent, ocean, river, mountain. In the topic of geography, the globe is used for the most part, to

tell students about the shape of the earth, northern and southern hemisphere, latitude and longitude lines.

Audio Aids

This teaching aid targets to enhance the listening and communication skills of the students. There are some students in every classroom who are auditory learners, such students can get benefit with audio aids. Audio aids are included in audio content such as gramophone, radio, telephone, teleconferencing, and tape recorders in which students develop their mental powers and hearing powers by listening to contents.

Radio: Through radio, children are informed about the latest happenings and information. Teaching programs related to different subjects of different classes are narrated on the radio which develops the ability of the students' learning, listening, understanding and remembering as well.

Tape Recorder: Tape-recorder is a popular tool in the education world. With the help of a tape recorder, students can enjoy and learn through speeches of great leaders and poems of famous writers, their stories and the music of famous artists. It helps to correct all errors and thoughts related to students' speed of speech.

Teleconferencing: With the help of teleconferencing, students can be informed. Teleconferencing is a medium through which many schools can be linked together. Different teachers and different children can gain important information by talking through teleconferencing.

Audio-Visual Aids

Technology has developed and enhanced the experience of students with the addition of Audio-Visual educational aids.

Films: There are many advantages of movies or cinema in the field of education. The knowledge gained by it is more useful than other mediums because students can learn well by watching and listening. By showing movies, documentaries, and films, children can be easily given knowledge of different countries, places and events.

Television: All the benefits from cinema or film can also be derived from television, but its scope is much wider than cinema. In today's modern era, television broadcasts many types of educational programs in addition to entertainment programs to increase the knowledge of children. It is also used by universities like IGNOU and UGC to broadcast various types of educational programs with the help of satellites so that the students can learn.

Computer: The use of computers is one of the most used tools in the modern education system. With the help of this electronic device, the education world has got a golden opportunity of learning. The use of computers can be seen not only in the education world but also in different areas of their life.

A Learning aid is a process when we understand can others. Learning strategists understand the learn from lectures, reading, preparing, etc. It enhances learning and retention by the learner.

With the help of different types of teaching aids, the teacher makes teaching and learning interesting and attractive. It helps students in their mental development. With its help, the teacher saves time in explaining any topic. So, teaching aids are important tools in the education system.

Classification Of Teaching aids

Different list of teaching aids classified as follows:

Traditional Teaching Aids: Traditional teaching aids include learning through Books, Periodicals, Blackboard etc.

Visual Teaching Aids: Visual Teaching aids include posters, model, figure, chart, graph etc. It also includes graphics such as diagrams, cut-outs, globe, objects, cartoon, info-graphs, bulletin board, flannel board, picture, map and others.

Mechanical Teaching Aids: Mechanical teaching aids include an Audio teaching machine, tape recorder, radio, motion picture, Projector, epidiastope, filmstrips.

Audio-Visual Teaching Aids: This type of teaching aid includes video, Cassettes, Films, television, and others.

Visual Material Teaching Aids: Outline charts, organization charts, tabular charts, flow charts etc. are also used in visual Material Teaching aids.

Types of Teaching Aids

Following are the different types of teaching aids:

1. Visual Aids

Teaching aids which include learning through visual representation is called These type of teaching aids are the kind of material that we can see with our eyes. It is the most important teaching aid that teachers always use in their teaching-learning process everyday like book, blackboard, chalk, duster, indicator, picture, map, graphs, charts, posters, bulletin boards, museums, projectors and also important aids.

..... is the substance that the student can see and touch. The student inspects and examines by touching and observing matter, which develops the students' senses, as well as the development of his thinking, understanding and observing power.

.....When the actual substance cannot be brought into the classroom or its size is so large or it is not available then teachers prepare its sample or which is shown in the classroom so that the student can easily be explained.

..... affect students very much. Students are lost in reality by seeing them, so teachers also present any story or science or any other subject related to this teaching aid to the students so that they can be shown and explained. The things taught through it can be remembered by the students for a long time, as well as they can be easily shown in the classroom.

We use it only when we have to teach the students about historical events and geographical elements or places. While using the map, teachers should take care of some points such as names, titles, directions and signs etc. should be written on it.

..... We need a drawing only when we do not have any real substance or model or map. In such conditions, we show students by drawing a drawing or sketch on a blackboard or on a whiteboard, like making a map of India, showing any state etc.

..... A teacher uses graphs only when he has to show any increasing or decreasing pattern. It is used in many subjects such as geography, history, mathematics, science, or also to explain climate. These type of teaching aids are used to give information about population etc. as well. Also, it is most commonly used in teaching mathematics and science.

This teaching aid is a board where students display pictures, villages, figures, articles or essential information in relation to the country's political, economic and social problems. They are continuously increase the knowledge of the students.

It is also an important tool of education to increase the knowledge of the students in which all the objects are kept in one place, making the text more interesting and alive with these objects. The collects items that are very helpful in subjects like geography, history, mathematics, science.

This teaching aid play the most important role among the most used tools in the modern education system. Teaching-learning is made more simple and interesting through it.

Through , the students get a different kind of enjoyment and memory, development of observational power, curiosity etc.

These type of teaching aids are used as teaching aids and a is used for this. Slides of pictures or film strips can be shown by this teaching aid in a sequence to give students knowledge.

With the help of, children are shown the boundaries of continent, ocean, river, mountain. In the topic of geography, the is used for the most part, to tell students about the shape of the earth, northern and southern hemisphere, latitude and longitude lines.

This teaching aid targets to enhance the listening and communication skills of the students. There are some students in every classroom who are auditory learners, such students can get benefit with audio aids. These aids develop students mental powers and hearing powers by listening to contents.

There are many advantages of them in the field of education. The knowledge gained by it is more useful than other mediums because students can learn well by watching and listening. By showing them it can be easy to give knowledge of different countries, places and events.

The use of this teaching aid is one of the most used tools in the modern education system. With the help of this electronic device, the education world has got a golden opportunity of learning. The use of them can be seen not only in the education world but also in different areas of their life.

Lecture 6

TEACHING THE FOUR MAIN ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS

Teaching English language material

Teaching English vocabulary

The questions to be discussed:

1. The role of vocabulary in FLT.
2. What is vocabulary and what should be taught?
3. Different approaches to recognition of lexical (vocabulary) complexity.
4. Selection of vocabulary minimum.
5. Stages and ways of teaching vocabulary.

Key terms: vocabulary, word, lexicon, formal, functional, semantic, style, active (productive) minimum, passive (receptive) minimum, combinative, stylistic, frequency, word-building, polysemantic words, synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, context, definition, interpretation, static stage, dynamic stage, criteria of selection, pre-activity, while-activity, post-activity.

1. The role of vocabulary in FLT

The term «curriculum» includes the totality of the knowledge that is expected to be imparted to the learner in a school, lyceum or college. It provides a comprehensive plan on which the entire system of learning and teaching can be based. Hence, the curriculum should plan the use of receptive and productive skills, mastery of vocabulary, and acquaintance with the culture and literature of the people who use English as their first language²⁷.

Teaching vocabulary is a very important objective in the curriculum. According to psychologists, human beings learn the life experiences by words, because thoughts are made by words. Word is a central unit of a language: language first of all is the system of words. Without a sufficient vocabulary, students cannot communicate effectively and express ideas. Having a limited vocabulary is also a barrier that prevents students from learning a foreign language. If learners do not know how to expand their vocabulary, they gradually lose interest in learning.

The necessity of vocabulary enrichment is pointed out in curriculum. Fortunately, for students and teachers, the most vocabulary growth takes place through incidental learning, that is, through exposure to comprehensible language in reading, listening, speaking, audios and videos and so on.

It is necessary to study both theoretical and practical approaches to teaching vocabulary. Thus, knowing the vocabulary selecting criteria is significant for an effective learning.

The main practical aim of teaching vocabulary in the primary and secondary schools is to develop the learners' vocabulary subskills as a basic component of all language and communicative activities. One should realize that the terms “vocabulary” and “words” are not the same.

Learning a new language is basically a matter of learning the vocabulary of that language. Not being able to find the words you need to express is the most frustrating experience in speaking another language. Without doubt vocabulary is not the only thing you have to know about the language. Other levels of language (grammar, phonetic, phonological, and stylistic) are also important.

Nevertheless it is possible to have good knowledge of how the language system works and yet not be able to communicate in it; whereas if we have the vocabulary we need assimilate to communicate.

Anyone who learns a new language is likely to recognize more words than he/she can produce. It is difficult to produce a word correctly. It is necessary to pronounce or spell it in the right way, to use it in the correct grammatical form, to use it appropriately

²⁷ Мильруд Р.П., Максимова И.Р. Современные концептуальные принципы коммуникативного обучения иностранным языкам // Иностранные языки в школе. – М., 2000. - №4. – С. 9-15.

to the context. It may therefore be important for a teacher to decide which words are appropriate and relevant for students age and stage. What words can form the 'productive' or 'active' vocabulary? The teacher also should decide which words she/he wishes her/his students merely to recognize. In other words, what words are considered as the 'receptive' or 'passive' vocabulary. The production of words (while speaking or writing) in the target language takes much greater efforts from the learner. Of course, in productive vocabulary, the learner has an advantage to choose the word he wishes to use: whereas in receptive vocabulary (as in listening or reading) he has to handle with the language level of the speaker or writer.

2. What is vocabulary and what should be taught?

Vocabulary can be defined, roughly, as the words we have to teach in a foreign language class. However, a new item of the vocabulary may occur not in the form of a single word: for example, *pen-holder* and *merry-go-round*, which are made up of two or three words but express a single idea. There are also multi-word idioms such as *take the bull by the horns*, where the meaning of the phrase cannot be deduced from the analysis of the component words. A useful convention would be to cover all such cases as vocabulary «items» rather than «words». It is also called mental lexicon that is «vocabulary in mind»²⁸. It consists of the smallest independent meaningful units of speech. These units of speech are called words. The words have the word forms and meanings assigned to them. Words in the mental lexicon create lexical networks. Once activated, a lexical item stimulates the spreading of other associated lexical items, which in its turn causes the activation of a bigger network. Mental lexicon is stored in our memory and it is the process of mapping the meanings in the mind and putting these memory traces into some word groups. Mental lexicon performs the functions of word storage, retrieval, comprehension and use. The storage of words in the mental lexicon is the result of a person's cognitive processes in real-world situations. As a result of cognitive processes, the words make up the situation sets (associated with a particular situation, objects, phenomena or processes), semantic sets (associated with a concept) and collocation sets (associated with other words by habitual everyday use).

Language is created and developed by the society with the aims to interact and transmit material elements of a culture. The language as a means of communication was and always remains the constant participant of the society and people's activity. That's why the study of the vocabulary is intertwined with all the other aspects of the language:

a) with pronunciation: the lexical meaning is expressed with the help of phonic means of the language:

- short and long vowels (fill-feel, knit-neat)
- open and close vowels (beg-bag)
- voiceless and voiced consonants (lad-let);

b) with morphology: book- books;

c) with syntax: structural forms;

²⁸ Ur P. A Course in Language Teaching. Practice and theory. -Cambridge: CUP, 2003. -Pp. 82-90.

d) with spelling: fair tale – fare tail;

e) with stylistics: father, pa, daddy, pop, old man.

Under the vocabulary subskills we mean the ability:

- to transfer a word from the distant memory to immediate memory. The retrieval of the words from distant memory may be implemented through the activation of the mental lexicon. The activation is an attempt to map the idea onto words. Sometimes the meaning cannot be mapped onto the words and it becomes the cause of the «tip-of-the-tongue phenomenon» when the meaning needs to be expressed but the form cannot be retrieved from the memory.

- to check the correct selection of a particular word in the given situation. Here we may see the approximate word usage which can be hampered by the absence of the corresponding word in processing memory or in the mental storage. In this case the language users resort to lexical strategies such as circumlocution (putting the idea in a different way), word coinage (creating a non-existent word) and derivation (forming a word from the one that is known to the language user). Another strategy is using gestures and mimicry.

- to evaluate combinability of the word chosen instantly with other vocabulary items. A process of cognition produces the meaning, that a person is willing to communicate in the circumstances. It is necessary to consider the «word pragmatics», i.e. to see that a word does not elicit an unwanted reaction from other participants in the communication. Using a word means recognizing certain grammar norms and rules. Finally, the word is accessed in memory and is produced either in graphical or oral form.

- to choose the proper paradigmatic form of the word quickly suitable for a particular structure. This case is related to the use of words in both the speech production and comprehension cognitive processes. The perception of the situation presupposes looking for an appropriate word in the «master-file» (the main storage of words)).

What should be taught? The learner has to know how does a word sound like (its pronunciation) and how does it look like (its spelling form). These are fairly obvious characteristics, and one or the other will be perceived by the learner when encountering the item for the first time. In teaching, we need to make sure that both these aspects are accurately presented and learned. Another point is **grammar**. The grammar of a new item will need to be taught if this is not obviously covered by general grammatical rules. An item may have an unpredictable change of form in certain grammatical contexts or may have some idiosyncratic ways of connecting with other words in sentences; it is important to provide learners with this information at the same time as we teach the basic form. When teaching a new verb, for example, we might give also its past form, if this is irregular (*go, went*), and we might note if it is transitive or intransitive.

Similarly, when teaching a noun, we may wish to present its plural form, if irregular (*foot, feet*), or draw learners' attention to the fact that it has no plural at all (*advice, information*). We may present verbs such as *want* and *enjoy* together with the verb form that follows them (*want+to do, enjoy+doing*), or adjectives or verbs together with their following prepositions (*wait for, listen to*). The collocations typical of

particular items are another factor that makes a particular combination sound «right» or «wrong» in a given context. So this is another piece of information about a new item which it may be worth teaching. When introducing words like *decision* and *conclusion*, for example, we may note that you *take* or *make* the one, but usually *come* to the other; similarly, you *throw a ball* but *toss a coin*; you may talk about someone being *dead tired* but it sounds odd to say *dead fatigued*. Another typical feature is idiomatic word use or collocations. They often serve as instruments of individual expressive power. Collocations are also often noted in dictionaries, either by providing the whole collocation under one of the head-words, or by a note in parenthesis. Teacher should appeal learners' attention to the differentiative features of idiomatic expressions with word combinations.

By methodological typology of the language material we mean distribution of lexical units into groups in accordance with the degree of their complexity for assimilation.

3. Different approaches to recognition of lexical (vocabulary) complexity

There are different approaches to recognition of lexical (vocabulary) complexity:

- taking into account qualitative characteristics of words, that is formal, functional and semantic peculiarities of a particular word and complexity of their assimilation under the condition of contacted languages. When people are speaking or writing, their choice of words depends on the situation they are in. A variety of the language in a communicative situation is called a language style. It may be appropriate to use an informal style with close friends, a neutral style with business acquaintances and a formal style with an employer. Often in communication it is necessary to select specific vocabulary that helps to convey the message in the best way. People switch the vocabulary they use when they talk to different specialists or non-specialists, to adults or children, to indifferent or sensitive people. The selection of vocabulary for the purpose of achieving the best communicative result is called language register²⁹.

- taking into account quantitative characteristics of words (metaphorical word usage and word polysemy which is represented by homophones with a variety of assigned meanings) which imply wide use of words as well as their length which is measured in the number of letters or syllables.

The world is formed as the symbols of things and so are words in our mind. The word reminds us the symbol of the object and circumstance of the second signal system, for instance: when you hear or read the word «bread» you can easily imagine «food». The relationship between notions should be taken into consideration while teaching vocabulary. Firstly, in other words, there are narrow and wide-spread notions, for example: woman, man – person; daughter, son - child. Secondly, coinciding – two notions are different in their meanings: to visit– to come; thirdly, partly coinciding notions - one notion can partly cover the other one: scientist-methodist, pedagogue-musician; fourthly, words which do not coincide with each other, for example: pen-twilight, algorithm-holiday.

²⁹ Millrood R.P. English Teaching Methodology. -M.: Drofa, 2007. -P.93-94.

You can see the differences in the Table 9.

Table 9. Differences in the word notion

| Relationships between notions | Uzbek | English | Spanish | Deutch | French | Russian |
|-------------------------------|-----------|-----------------|-------------------|-----------------|------------------|------------|
| Fully the same | Suv | water | agua | wasser | eau | вода |
| Partly | qo‘l | 1.arm 2.hand | 1.brazo 2.mano | 1.arm 2.hand | 1.bras 2.main | рука |
| Fully different | Shanbalik | Lunch | Siesta | Herr | Grand dejeneur | Суб-ботник |

Words are very complicated in their meanings, material forms (phoneme, morpheme, grapheme) and expressions of connection between the objects and circumstances (its denotations).

Pay attention to the following examples:

| Uzbek | English | Spanish | Deutch | French | Russian |
|------------------|------------|-------------|-----------------|----------------|---------|
| Bormoq kelmoq | Go come | Ir verir | Gehen kommen | Ailer venir | Идти |

It can be clearly seen from the table that the infinitive form in Uzbek and other foreign languages has its significant but in Russian there is not significant of infinitive, it can be expressed in the context.

The associative communication is of great importance for memorizing and using new words. There are five types of associative communication: 1. synonyms; 2. antonyms; 3. equally related notions: table-chair (furniture); 4. widening of the meaning: table-furniture, apple-fruit; 5. connection of the notions: illness-death (cause and effect relations), soldier-army (the relations between the part and the whole).

4. Selection of vocabulary minimum

The term «selection» is widely spread in methodology of FLT. Vocabulary selection concerns solution of two problems: 1) defining units/items and principles (criteria) of selection.

Word-meaning is a practically rational for unit/item of lexical minimum selection. A word, word-combination, or phrase can be considered as a unit of selection.

Under the principle of selection we understand the measurement of indications, on which the evaluation of the lexicon is organized.

In accordance with indications' characteristics all the principles are distinguished into interrelated groups:

1 group – statistical principles:

- *frequency* (the total number of the word occurrence in the source or sources);
- *range* (words that occur across a wide variety of texts).

2 group – methodical principles:

- *thematic* (related to the topics given in the curriculum);
- *semantic* (words which reflect the main concepts of the topic, or situation);
- *learnability* (spelling, phonological difficulties, syntactic properties, polysemy, false friends, cultural aspects).

3 group – linguistic principles:

- *combinability*,
- *word-building value*,
- *polysemantic words*,
- *stylistic unboundedness*.

Methodological preparation of a new vocabulary should be done in two stages. The first stage correlates with the selection of the words for teaching. This stage is called static, then dynamic stage follows.

The phenomenon of making microsystem for students learning according to certain scientific criteria is called as methodological choice.

The active (productive) vocabulary is used in oral speech, passive (receptive) is used in written speech. The active (productive) minimum of foreign language in schools includes approximately 1000-1200 words. passive (receptive) vocabulary is chosen in compliance of the active (productive) minimum.

The basic principles of selection of the active (productive) minimum vocabulary are:

- semantic approach;
- combinative approach;
- stylistic approach;
- frequency approach;
- word-building value;
- value of polysemantic words;
- excluding synonyms;
- excluding international words.

The active (productive) minimum of vocabulary is selected from topics and communicative situations, dialogues and written speech, video- and audio-texts.

The criteria of selection of the passive (receptive) minimum vocabulary are:

- derivability;
- polysemantic character;
- frequency and wide usage;
- topical associations;
- semantic and word-building value.

5. Stages and ways of teaching vocabulary

The process of development of vocabulary subskills in the English classrooms proposes three stages.

Stage I is related to the presentation of a new vocabulary. The aim is to introduce a new word and disclose the meaning of each word. Ways and techniques to convey the meaning of a word are:

Direct way

- dictionaries – used in conveying the meaning of a word;
- synonyms– items that mean the same, or nearly the same; for example, *clever, smart* may serve as synonyms of *intelligent*;
- antonyms– items that mean the opposite; *rich* is an antonym of *poor*;
- hyponyms – items that serve as specific examples of a general concept; *dog, lion, mouse* are hyponyms of *animal*;
- morphological analysis (word building) – *You may wish to teach the common prefixes and suffixes: for example, it learners know the meaning of sub-, un- and -able, this will help them guess the meanings of words like substandard, ungrateful and untranslatable. They should, however, be warned that in many common words the affixes no longer have any obvious connection with their root meaning (for example, subject, comfortable). New combinations of prefixes are not unusual, and the learner is expected to gather the meaning from understanding of the components (ultra-modern, super-hero). Another way to learn the vocabulary structure is combining two words (two nouns, or a gerund and a noun, or a noun and a verb) to make one item: compound word, or two separate, sometimes hyphenated words (bookcase, follow-up, swimming pool).*
- contextual guessing – understanding the meaning through the context, or previous experience;
- definitions – explanation of meaning in English with the words familiar for learners;
- examples – situational and interesting information which can motivate learners;
- interpretation – if there is no equivalent in the native language;
- matching – synonyms, antonyms;
- analysis of the structure – familiar components of the word;
- making list of family words – finding the meaning of the general word via familiar words;
- familiar or famous (international) words.

Visual

- demonstration of school paraphernalia or drawings on the black board (realia);
- illustration material-pictures / objects;

- models;
- demonstration of movements, mime, body language;
- pictograms, pictures, schemes.

Translation

- giving an equivalent;
- translation-interpretation;
- comparing a foreign word to the native language word.

The choice of a successful way of semantization depends on the following factors:

1) whether the word belongs to the active (productive) or passive (receptive) vocabulary minimum;

2) on the stage of learning: at the junior level – visual techniques, speech-patterns, translation; at the intermediate level – synonyms, antonyms, word-building analysis; at the senior level - context, definitions;

3) on the level of the language performance of the learners in a certain stage of education;

4) on the qualitative characteristics of a word.

While introducing new vocabulary can be used direct and indirect ways for semantization. The more effective way is direct as definition, context, etc.

It is time to deal with the matters, first, how to work on a new word. There are 2 ways: 1) a word in isolation; 2) via the context.

The second, how to work on an isolated word:

- when you deal with proper names, geographical names;
- sometimes you can give some words to develop the language guessing abilities (the first word is given in the context, the rest – in isolation: a runner – in the context; a jumper – will be easily guessed);
- when teaching the students to work with a dictionary.

The work on a new word in the context is more widely used, in particular, in a phrase, in a situation, in a story, in question-answer form, in a talk. It leads to better assimilation of new words.

Stage II – drilling, its aim is to create or form the stereotypes of usage of a new word.

Stage III – situational (communicative practice) aimed to developing or improving the vocabulary subskills in the aspect of using vocabulary in the speech.

People can communicate using 400-500 words. An educated person uses 3000-5000 words to express his ideas in the written and spoken forms of speech. A person should know more than 3000-5000 words for reading and listening. Famous writers and poets use 20-25 thousand words in their works.

Many language teaching programmes aspire to teach only about 2000 words. Are the remaining words learnt from a dictionary? Definitely not. If the meanings have not been supplied by outside sources, as it were, then where have they been found? The answer is, of course, that we guess the meanings of the words by hearing them used in a certain situation or by reading them in a certain context and guessing their meaning from the context³⁰.

³⁰ Lado R., Fries C. Lessons in Vocabulary. - Michigan: The University of Michigan Press, 1990.

In connection with the matter of guessing importance in the communicative activity (during reading or listening) it is necessary to discuss some ways to learn words in the context in detail.

Inferring the word meaning from the context allows the student to infer or guess the meaning from the context or illustrations. Through the context students obtain a general understanding of an unfamiliar word if 1) they continue reading, if students know something about the content of reading or listening materials from their knowledge of the first language reading; 2) students know how the meaning of the words they learn refers to parts of reality.

For this purpose teachers need to know how to train students' subskills. The teacher can use the following techniques (for efficient readers) suggested by Yang Zhihong³¹:

1. Look at the unknown word and decide its part of speech. Is it a noun, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb?

2. Look at the clause or sentence containing unknown word. If the unknown word is a noun, what does this noun do, or what is done to it? And what adjectives describe it? What verb is it near? If it is a verb, what nouns does it go with? Is it modified by an adverb? If it is an adjective, what noun does it go with? If it is an adverb, what verb is it modifying?

3. Look at the relationship between the clause or sentences containing the unknown word and other sentences or paragraphs. Sometimes this relationship will be signaled by conjunctions like but, because, if, when, or by adverbs like however, as a result. The possible types of relationship include cause and effect, contrast, time, exemplification, and summary.

4. Use the knowledge you have gained from steps 1 to 3 to guess the meaning of the word.

5. Check if your guess is correct.

a) See the part of speech of your guess is the same.

b) Replace the unknown word with your guess. Does the sentence make sense?

c) Break the unknown word into its prefix, root, and suffix, if it possible. Is the meaning of the prefix and root correspond to your guess?

Through a range of instructional activities, student can actively and consciously develop their vocabulary subskills. Meaningful instruction should of course include the explicit teaching of word meaning and discussion about words and their prefixes, suffixes, and roots. But it should also include dictionary exercises, word family activities, semantic mapping, semantic feature analysis, word associations, synonym and antonym activities, cognate awareness exercises, practice with lexical sets, classification activities.

Although classroom instruction of these types of vocabulary work cannot account for all the words students need to learn to assimilate vocabulary via direct teaching.

The process of vocabulary acquisition has a certain laws and rules. The first encounter with the word is sometimes more important than its frequency in exercises. That is why it is essential to «prime the word», i.e. to prepare the learners for the

³¹ Yang Zhihong. Learning words. // English Teaching Forum. 2000. V.38, No3. - P. 19.

encounter with the new word through activation of prior knowledge and creating the necessity of using the word. Development of vocabulary in mind depends on the complexity of the concepts that are expressed with the help of words, because words with a concrete meaning are acquired easier and sooner than abstract ones. Learners acquire separate meanings of a word. First they acquire one component of meaning and then another. Basic terms (e.g. potato) are learned before superordinate words (vegetables). The storage of words in memory depends on the depth of meaning processing. The deeper learners get the meaning of the words in examples and associations, the stronger memory traces will be. Receptive skills come before productive skills and the learners find it easier first to understand a word and then to use it. The knowledge of a vocabulary item comes before the knowledge of a vocabulary collocation, i.e. the learners first acquire words and then learn how to combine them in collocations. Words are best remembered in their situational context (combination with other words) yet situational context can limit the potential use of the words to particular situations only. In a motivation activity the word is remembered the best. Motivation activities are more important than continuous repetitions.

There is a **three-phase framework of teaching vocabulary**. They can be broken down into three phases such as pre-activity, while-activity and post-activity (Table 10).

Table 10. Phases and activities

| Phase | Activity |
|----------------|---|
| Pre-activity | Exploring vocabulary forms (word derivation models). Exploring vocabulary meaning (synonyms, antonyms, polysemy). Exploring potential vocabulary use. |
| While-activity | Deriving words (e.g. creating the necessary form of the words). Using vocabulary (e.g. choose the right synonym). Communicating the message (e.g. describe the gadget using technical jargon) . |
| Post-activity | Reflecting on task fulfillment: focusing on vocabulary use; integrating vocabulary with teaching communicative skills (reading, listening, writing and speaking). |

Questions:

1. What is the difference between word and vocabulary terms?
2. What aspects of the language are connected with the vocabulary?

3. Why do we enrich vocabulary?

5. How do you explain the term «mental lexicon»?
6. What kinds of abilities are meant by vocabulary subskills?
7. What are the basic principles and criteria for selection the active vocabulary minimum?
8. What is the methodological preparation of new vocabulary?
9. Describe the **three-phase framework of teaching vocabulary**.

Tasks:

1. Give the explanation of terms «resource of choice», «criterion of choice», «unit of choice» and mark the statements as *T (true)*, *F (false)* or *D (debatable)*.

| Statements | T | F | D |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Vocabulary is more important in communication than grammar. | | | |
| 2. Vocabulary is stored in our memory as separate units. | | | |
| 3. Vocabulary is stored in our memory as collocations. | | | |
| 4. Vocabulary is stored in our memory as networks. | | | |
| 5. Recalling a word always means activating many words in memory. | | | |
| 6. One word of the same language means the same for different people. | | | |
| 7. Any meaning can be expressed by a word in any language. | | | |

2. As it has been mentioned there are some types of vocabulary sets (situation sets, semantic sets and collocation sets), *match the following vocabulary units with the types of «vocabulary sets»*.

| Vocabulary items | Vocabulary sets |
|------------------------------|--|
| 1. Custom-built car | Situation set Semantic set Collocation set |
| 2. Rust-proof paint | |
| 3. Far-reaching consequences | |
| 4. Drought-affected regions | |
| 5. The worst flood ever | |
| 6. Wintry showers | |
| 7. Beggarly pay | |

3. Find out one word which is used in the sense of: a physical organ; ‘a group’, ‘corpse’, ‘masses and ‘trunk’ or ‘mainpart’. (Make your own examples).

4. Read this extract; find out phrasal verbs with the verb «talk» and explain their meanings.

Every time I try to talk up a new idea to my boss, he talks down to me, or talks around the issue. I can talk back to him but fail to talk him into anything. We can talk over and out the problem but there is no way to talk him round. So we are just talking away. I talk up but we never come to talking through.

5. Think about activities for learning vocabulary through speaking.

Independent work:

1. Decide which are the core words in these sets. What reasons would you give?

- a) cause, bring about, effect, instigate, precipitate
- b) slim, slender, thin, emaciated, scrawny
- c) aspire, seek, desire, aim, strive
- d) assign, give to, hand over, allot, distribute, delegate
- e) grief, distress, bereavement, sorrow, affliction, trouble.

2. Find the active vocabulary in the given text taking into account the selection principles.

This is old Market Hill. At the bottom, is Market Square, and Queen's Walk is just at the top. At the bottom right corner, there is a travel agency. Just opposite it, is the supermarket. Next to it, is a large school that extends to the next corner. Halfway to the top of the hill there is a zebra crossing and a traffic light. Nearby is the main post office. Between the post office and the travel agency, there is a new fast food restaurant. Behind the post office, there is a very nice park where we usually go for a walk.

3. Within one theme create a system of exercises for developing vocabulary skills.

4. *Make up your own* while-activity and post-activity tasks for EL classrooms at school, lyceum and college.

5. Look through these sites for further information. Write down your own notes on the topic.

[Short Vocabulary Activities for the ESL Teacher - Readers provide the... Using the Internet to teach English for Special Purposes \(ESP\) effective...for-teaching-vocabulary/](#)

Lecture 7

Mastering the sounds of the language

The questions to be discussed:

1. The essence of teaching pronunciation.
2. Distribution and typology of pronunciation material.
3. Ways and principles of developing pronunciation subskills.

Key terms: pronunciation subskill, phonetic material, pronunciation minimum, content of teaching pronunciation (CTP), pronunciation norm, pronunciation unit,

phonetic phenomenon, phonetic system, phonetic exercise, phoneme/sound, approximation.

1. The essence of teaching pronunciation

Pronunciation plays a special role in the content of language material. Pronunciation mechanism envelops three parts as hearing (acoustic), uttering (motor) and meaning (semantic). Mastering phonetic side of the language, i.e. mastering pronunciation subskill is one of the core conditions of successful communication. We need to answer a question: What does pronunciation mean in the aspect of FLT?

Current opinion in FLT methodology regarding teaching pronunciation in the English classroom has at least two generally accepted theoretical cornerstones³². The suprasegmental features of English – stress, rhythm intonation, linking (connection of speech across words boundaries, where one ends in a vowel sound and the next begins with a consonant sound, or vice versa), reduction, and deletion – are called prosodies. These contribute more to meaning and overall listener perception of nonnative speaker fluency than do the segmentals, the individual vowel and consonant sounds. Although rules for suprasegmental use exist, these rules are broader and have much more variation than involved in learning articulation of the individual sounds. Because suprasegmentals carry more meaning and are difficult to learn, they require more focused, structured attention and more practice than the segmentals.

Second, pronunciation taught in isolation does not carry over to improved pronunciation in actual communication. This is true for both the segmental features and supra-segmental elements. Practicing sounds and prosodic elements in structure drill is important and useful, more communicative activities using connected speech are crucial in helping to build automaticity and carryover.

There a question appears – Is it possible to achieve a perfect pronunciation in English? Training specialists have the exact answer: it is difficult to achieve perfect pronunciation in teaching language at school, that's why the requirements are determined on the assumption of approximation. According to this assumption of approximation, it is available to limit the phonetic input and it is tolerated lower quality of some sounds articulation. But both of them occur in the bounds of non-infringement of process of oral communication. At the same time it is important to achieve the high level of approximation in articulating the long – short vowel sounds in English, voiced and unvoiced consonants in the end of the word, otherwise the meaning will be changed or even lost. For example: bed – bet.

Approximated pronunciation is firstly characterized by the conditions of the secondary education, i.e. the unnatural environment of teaching English, so pronunciation is more complex than vocabulary and grammar.

The main requirement is acquiring relatively fluent English pronunciation. Firstly it provides comprehension of communicants, secondly it demands acquiring middle

³² Parker M. Pronunciation and Grammar. Using Video and Audio Activities. // English Teaching Forum. 2000. V.38. No 1. –P.25.

speed of speech (it is known the speed of the EL speech – average pronunciation 130-150 words per minute. Keeping in mind that oral speech units exist only in sound images and that pronunciation is mixed with vocabulary and grammar subskills, they are usually acquired integrally. Pronunciation sub-skill provides the expression of speech units through relevant sounds.

The issue of when to start teaching pronunciation was the reason of various discussions. It is not logical to define a certain grade or stage in methodology as mastering pronunciation goes together with development of language skills. It is necessary to realize that almost all sounds are introduced in the initial stage of education; the middle stage continues teaching new sound combinations, stress and intonation; in the middle or higher stages pronunciation sub-skills are improved. Through listening pronunciation sub-skills are developing.

2. Distribution and typology of pronunciation material

EL phonetic minimum is selected in concordance with the vocabulary and grammar minima. Language material usually consists of active and passive minima. The notions of active and passive in phonetic (pronunciation) minimum are treated differently. Active and passive pronunciation minima are learned simultaneously. They are included in the complex of the language sub-skills and appear in speaking and listening.

Active and passive minima are distinguished as follow: active minimum admits approximation, but it is not found in passive one. Active minimum works in the range of limited phonetic material and in passive it is possible to meet variants of the English language phonemes.

Pronunciation minimum is general for a certain stage, for example, for secondary schools in spite of the learners' language experience. Pronunciation minimum includes sounds, sound combinations, stress, and main types of intonation.

It is known that pronunciation units that are easy to learn are not taught in separate exercises, because they are not included into the content of teaching pronunciation. Thus, minimum doesn't consider language experience, and the content of teaching pronunciation includes only difficult for assimilation phonetic phenomena that require special time and efforts.

There is a classification that takes into account the difficulties of assimilation which groups are included in the content of teaching pronunciation (CTP): difficult phenomena referring to articulation, opposition, position and acoustics.

The phonetic material is selected in compliance with the following criteria: (1) compliance with the need of communication; (2) appropriate style and standardized pronunciation; (4) prevalence.

According to the first criterion, there phonemes and intonation models are selected that have different meaning, as pronunciation minimum includes all phonemes (but not their variants).

Appropriate style for selection takes as a base full style of pronunciation, i.e., literary, academic style. Literary style could seem to be more artificial but it is more

suitable for secondary education. As a standard, the Received Pronunciation (RP) is admitted. Pronunciation minimum excludes the dialectal variants of pronunciation and conversation style of speech.

Prevalence is also like criteria of style and norm. The most used phonetic units are selected and included into phonetic minimum.

In addition, the most used intonation models in speech and difficult phonetic phenomena are included into minimum. In keeping the criteria, the phonetic peculiarities of the EL are taken into consideration.

In distribution of vocabulary and grammar material the first issue was to divide into active and passive. Distribution of phonetic material in pronunciation is particular. Distribution of phonetic material occurs according to the following scientific-methodical criteria: 1) speech orientation; 2) distribution of difficulties. The received lexical-grammatical distribution predetermines pronunciation distribution.

Typology of pronunciation material. The most appropriate methodological way is that phonetic material is distributed into types for developing pronunciation subskills.

There are two types in the FLT methodology. The first leads to find reasonable methods of teaching pronunciation through dividing all units of phonetic minimum into easy and difficult.

According to the second type only difficult units of the content of teaching pronunciation are divided into noted above four groups as articulation, opposition, position and acoustics.

From the content of typology we see that it covers sounds, sound units and phonetic phenomena. Typology of intonation is of another kind.

Methodical typology of the pronunciation units is allowed for all stages such as presentation, focused practice and communicative practice for developing pronunciation sub-skills.

3. Ways and principles of developing pronunciation subskills

Presentation of the pronunciation material occurs through the utterance of phonetic units by a teacher and hearing of the students. It is very important to solve the problems of presenting a pronunciation unit alone, in a word or in a sentence objectively for development of pronunciation sub-skills.

The following approaches are used for teaching pronunciation:

1. Articulatory approach – explanation of sounds articulation to students. The stages of working: 1) orientation – giving instructions about positions of the organs of speech for sound pronunciation; 2) articulation – students pronounce a sound; 3) pronunciation training in various combinations via exercises.

2. Acoustic approach to teaching pronunciation where emphasis is put on the conscious assimilation articulation features, on listening and imitation. Exercises are based on repetition and imitation

3. Differentiated approach proposes using of different analyses for developing pronunciation sub-skills from all positions. Here the more attention is paid to listening.

Besides ways of articulation of a sound are explained articulation, even attracting the mother tongue.

Thus, the main methods of teaching pronunciation are imitation and analysis. Imitative method is natural and simple. But it is based on unconscious acquisition of the language and its pronunciation.

Imitation requires from the teacher accurate pronunciation and from the learners sharp hearing ability.

Analysis-method, on the contrary, requires the work through consciousness, which results in the development of logical thinking. Understanding and uttering of a pronunciation unit is fulfilled via analysis.

Imitative method can be used alone when the existing pronunciation skill has a positive influence, but the analysis-method is always accompanied by imitation.

Phonetic exercises support the developing pronunciation sub-skills of the English language. It is necessary to point out that an exercise is a mental action directed to repetition, acquisition and development of actions.

Mastering pronunciation in the process of teaching English very much differs from learning lexical and grammar material, hence from learning native language pronunciation. Pronunciation is taught according to the following principles:

1. Taking into account the results of the comparative analysis of the English phonetic systems and typical errors of students' speech. Comparative analysis helps to define the difference and similarity between phonetic systems of the contacted languages.

2. Synchronous formation of speech action and hearing images of English pronunciation. Teaching pronunciation sub-skills of hearing and speech actions compose inseparable unit. Oral utterance is controlled by hearing analyzer.

3. Using reasonable methods in teaching pronunciation. At the beginning stage an imitation is recommended. Taking into consideration important pronunciation peculiarities of the learned language only the teacher who has language experience can be a sample of English pronunciation.

4. Wide using of educational technical means in teaching pronunciation. Acquisition of phonetic material is not restrained by a teacher's pronunciation. Learners hear a live speech of the teacher, or his/her recorded speech and speeches of other persons (speakers).

5. Separate usage of ways of pronunciation material presentation. According to the difficulty of the English phonetic units in methodology they are usually presented in a sentence, in a word or separately. Learners hear the sound in the sentence, in the word or separately, but in utterance they learn some of them separately, and others in the sentences.

The most relevant features of pronunciation – stress, rhythm, and intonation – play a greater role in English communication under school conditions than individual sound themselves. Therefore, teaching speech from the perspective of supra-segmentals seems indispensable, in communicative language teaching settings learning pronunciation should not be limited to finding stress and comparing individual vowel and consonant

sounds in a given word. It is necessary to develop a communicative competence where pronunciation is reflected in the linguistic competence.

Questions:

1. What can you say about the core of acquiring approximated pronunciation?
2. What are the main principles (criteria) of selecting phonetic/pronunciation minimum?
3. What elements does the content of teaching pronunciation include?
4. What backgrounds are put into the distribution and typology of phonetic material?
5. Describe the methods and ways of teaching pronunciation.
6. Name the principles of teaching pronunciation.
7. What do you think, should we work on the pronunciation at lyceums and colleges?

Tasks:

1. Analyze the terms concerning the matters of developing pronunciation skills.
2. Make up exercises on teaching pronunciation.
3. Analyze the presentation of phonetic drills in the English language coursebooks at school.

Independent work:

1. Find the additional information about ways, techniques of working on the pronunciation material at school.
2. Read about Letters-and-sounds approach. Think about other integrative approaches, for example whole-language approach.

A teacher teaches children individual sounds of the letters that are classified into several phases including so called tricky words (those that are exceptions to the rules: I, me and etc.) per phase. Having been introduced to certain amount of graphemes, children are encouraged to sound out the individual phonemes within a particular word and blend them all together afterwards. For instance, *s, a, t, p, i, n* are set 1 of phase 2 phonics; once children know how to properly say the sounds e.g. *s* is for *snake*, *a* is for *apple* and etc. they are asked to read the graphemes within a particular word and blend them into a word: *s a t -sat, p i n -pin*.

Lecture 8

Investigating the learning and teaching of grammar

1. Teaching grammar
2. Selection of the grammar material
3. The factors and ways of developing grammar skills

4. Principles of teaching grammar

Tayanch so'z va iboralar: Selection of the grammar material, Grammar, theoretical work, Micro-form, micro-meaning and micro-usage, approach

Teaching grammar

Grammar is central to the teaching and learning of languages. It is also one of the more difficult aspects of language to teach well. Many people, including language teachers, hear the word "grammar" and think of a fixed set of word forms and rules of usage. They associate "good" grammar with the prestige forms of the language, such as those used in writing and in formal oral presentations, and "bad" or "no" grammar with the language used in everyday conversation or used by speakers of nonprestige forms. Language teachers who adopt this definition focus on grammar as a set of forms and rules. They teach grammar by explaining the forms and rules and then drilling students on them. This results in bored, disaffected students who can produce correct forms on exercises and tests, but consistently make errors when they try to use the language in context.

Other language teachers, influenced by recent theoretical work on the difference between language learning and language acquisition, tend not to teach grammar at all. Believing that children acquire their first language without overt grammar instruction, they expect students to learn their second language the same way. They assume that students will absorb grammar rules as they hear, read, and use the language in communication activities. This approach does not allow students to use one of the major tools they have as learners: their active understanding of what grammar is and how it works in the language they already know. The communicative competence model balances these extremes. The model recognizes that overt grammar instruction helps students acquire the language more efficiently, but it incorporates grammar teaching and learning into the larger context of teaching students to use the language. Instructors using this model teach students the grammar they need to know to accomplish defined communication tasks.

Selection of the grammar material

Micro-form, micro-meaning and micro-usage are recognized as the unit of grammar selection. The grammar phenomena for the oral speech of the learners are selected from the real live speech of foreign native speakers and fictions. The resource of selection active grammar is the spoken literary language. Passive grammar minimum is selected from the written texts for students' receptive speech development.

Active and passive minima do not differ very much as in vocabulary (active minimum is in the passive input), active minimum is selected for all stages of the secondary schools and passive grammar minimum is selected only for lyceums and colleges – for advanced students.

The formation of grammar minima directly deals with the speech themes and vocabulary minima which impact on the grammar selection.

The methodological criteria in preparation of educational grammar are classified as follow.

Criteria of selecting *active* grammar minimum:

1. Criterion of prevalence of grammar phenomena in oral and written speech. The most frequent phenomena in people's speech are «picked up» from the all grammar system or material.
2. Criterion of being grammar unit as a sample. It requires the ability to developing grammar subskills through given samples (e.g., building noun, adjective, adverb with the help of suffixes).
3. Criterion of isolation of mono-semantic facts. With the aim to prevent difficulties the most frequent and stylistically appropriate units are selected, but only one of the grammar form to excluding synonyms is selected.

Criteria of selecting *passive* grammar minimum:

1. Criterion of wide usage in literary written style of speech.
2. Criterion of polysemantics.

The element of action and criteria of selecting grammar material are directly linked. Some of them function as the main, others as complementary. Types of speech activity need various language material input. The most demanding in them are reading and listening. The grammar input for speaking and writing is relatively less than for reading and listening.

The preparation of the English language grammar material requires successful approaches to the selection, distribution and methodical typology of the content of grammar teaching. That's why the selection should be relevant to the above criteria.

The next task of preparation of language material is the presentation of the selected minimum. The distribution of the grammar minimum requires functional approach (according to the communicative tasks). Grammar is divided into communicative units (sentence), so the speech pattern performs as a unit of distribution.

The speech pattern embodies in itself all sides of speech, i.e. vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and graphic aspects, as speech pattern is considered to be the unit of learning and distribution.

Reproductive way of learning English is based on speech patterns leading to expected results. The speech pattern means a model of a sentence/utterance which is recognized as a grammar unit/item. Grammar was distributed in two ways: with the help of the rules and speech patterns. The third way is «lexical approach» which is used when the grammar phenomenon is presented in isolation: if it is used in the only sentence, it needs to be learned without a rule, it should be learnt as a word (lexical item). According to the current educational requirements the method of grammar distribution means using primarily speech patterns, and necessary grammar rules if it is necessary.

The process of distribution consists of three stages: 1) defining the general sequence; 2) distribution among the grades; 3) distribution in a school year. Each stage has its own methodological criteria. General distribution is measured according to the criterion of importance of grammar phenomena. For example, in distribution of present indefinite and present continuous tenses of the English language, the first one is considered to be the most important for the speech process. The most important grammar phenomena are distributed at the initial stage of education.

Besides, the importance of distribution of grammar among grades occurs when one takes into account the criterion of correlation of grammar with vocabulary. The vocabulary in this case is of primary significance which in its turn influences the distribution of grammar units.

The third stage is a very complex process of distribution. Here are detected the cases of positive or negative transfer of language experience of students. This instructional measure is a major factor of preventing difficulties, i.e. this criterion is directed to prevent the expected grammar errors in the language acquisition. It is called preventing difficulties appearing in the speech.

The first and second distribution is presented in syllabus. The third one is reflected in the English language course-books. The result of analysis of translingual and intralingual comparison of the selected language material are the basis of the grammar typology determination. It was emphasized in the typology of vocabulary material, that the grammatical facts for learning are also differentiated. The details of easy/difficult acquisition are looked thoroughly. Identification of difficulties and their typology give the opportunity to create a system of exercises, to work out ways of teaching and assign the time period of assimilating the material. The typology of grammar material can be associated with the typology of difficulties in the process of assimilation. It is known that identification of the difficulties is a multistage instructional organization: analysis of language errors, comparison of the contacted languages (a foreign and native languages) and contrast of the dissimilar elements. The analysis of the errors, comparing and contrasting are organized according to grammatical meaning, form and usage. Grammar phenomena are taught for developing grammar subskills with the aim to communicate. The process of developing students' grammar subskills is organized within three stages:

1. Presentation stage, in which we introduce the grammar structure, either inductively or deductively. There are a variety of techniques and resources that can be used during this stage. Selection of them should be made according to teacher strengths, student preferences, and the nature of the grammar phenomenon.

2. Focused practice stage, in which the learner manipulates the structure in question while all other variables are held constantly. The goal of this stage is to allow the learner to gain control of the form without pressure and distraction trying to use the proper form of communication.

3. Communicative practice stage, in which the learner is engaged in communicative activities to practice the structures being learned.

It is necessary to pay attention also to teachers' feedback and error correction which can take place throughout the aforementioned two stages, in particular, on the 2-d stage when correction should be predominantly straightforward and immediate; on the 3-d stage communication should not be interrupted, but the teacher should take notes of the errors and deal with them after the communicative exercises. Moreover grammar facts presented in the speech patterns are introduced orally to learners at the lower and middle stages of education, and in written form at the middle and higher stages. Grammar phenomenon is presented via speech pattern or a rule, or via lexical approach. There are two kinds of rules: rule-instruction and rule-generalization. The rule-instruction is a mental activity aimed at using or reading/listening comprehension of structures, in psycholinguistics the rule is studied in speech issues, this program is called algorithm. Introducing the rule is the advance guiding base directed to providing speech act. In other words, a rule can be defined as a base of speech practice. The rule-generalization is a simple theoretical information related to grammar material that was learned in the process of speech acquisition. The rule should be laconic, clear and accurately formulated directed to using or recognizing grammar phenomenon.

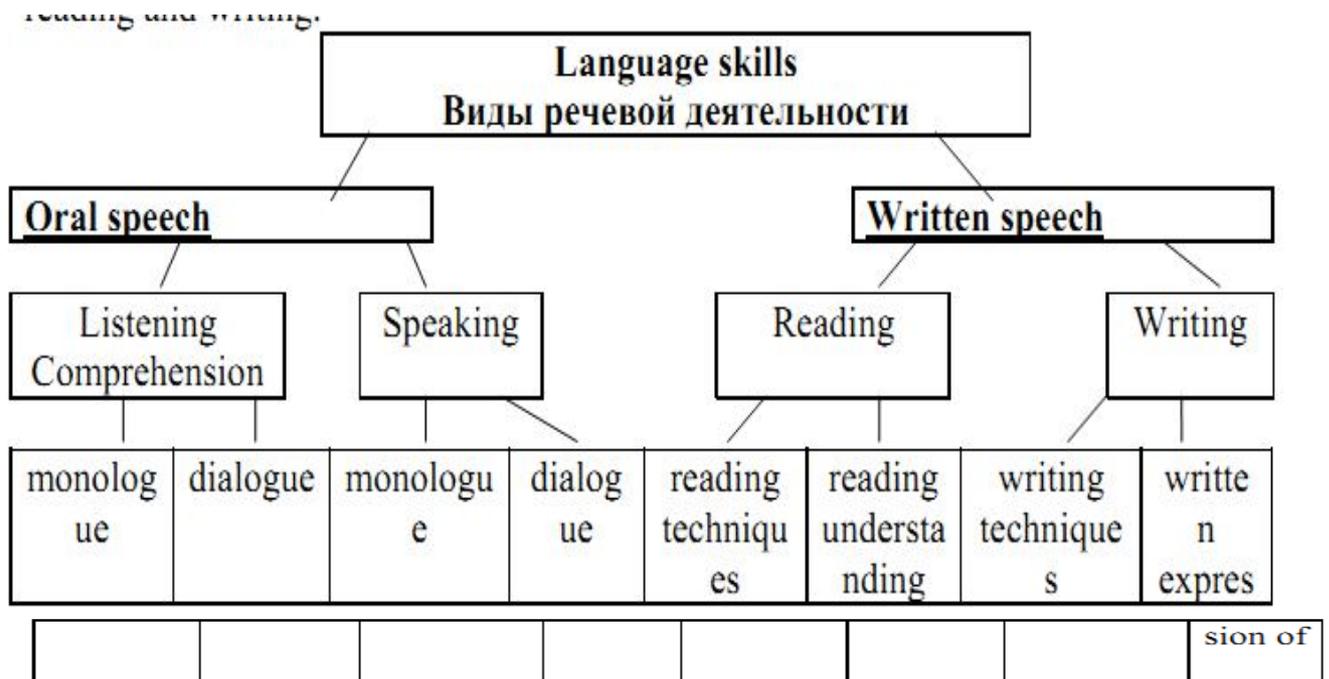
The rule and model are methodological notions with the same essence. The usage of the model provides capturing of the structural form in person's mind. Verbal abstraction is expressed by words occurred discursively. The speech patterns play the role of samples for composing sentences. Discursiveness must be limited as much as possible.

Lecture 9 TEACHING LISTENING IN ENGLISH

Plan:

1. The importance of Listening Comprehension
2. The Difficulties in Auding Foreign Language
3. The Content of the Material for Listening Comprehension
4. The ways (techniques) of teaching Listening Comprehension

Tayanch so'zlar: listening-comprehension, audio materials, content



1. The importance of Listening Comprehension.

“The reason why we have two ears and only one mouth is so that we may listen more and talk less”. Without actually having been taught to listen a pupil (student) may be able to express himself orally, but he will never be able to communicate with speakers of English if he is unable to understand what is said to him. Until now we spoke of teaching various aspects of the language, namely, phonetics (pronunciation), vocabulary and grammar. The knowledge of each of the aspects is of great importance to learners. However, when we say a person knows the language we first of all mean he understands the language spoken and can speak it himself. Language came into life as a means of communication. It exists and is alive only through speech. When we speak about teaching a foreign language, we first of all have in mind teaching it as a means of communication.

Speech is a bilateral process. It includes hearing, on the one hand and speaking, on the other. When we say “**hearing**” we mean **auding or listening and comprehension**. That’s why it is important to teach to all language skills. Through language skills the information is given (speaking and writing) and information is perceived (listening and reading) speech is divided into 2 forms: oral speech (language) and written language (speech). Teaching spoken (oral) language comprises listening comprehension and speaking. They are closely interrelated with each other. Teaching written language (speech) consist of teaching reading and writing.

2. The Difficulties in Auding a Foreign Language.

Auding or listening and comprehension are difficult for learners, because they should discriminate speech sounds quickly, retain them while hearing a word, a phrase, or a sentence and recognise this as a sense unit. Pupils can easily and naturally do this in their own language and they can not do this in foreign language when they start learning the language. Pupils are very slow in grasping what they hear, because they are conscious of the linguistic forms they perceive by the ear. This results in misunderstanding or a complete failure of understanding. When auding a foreign language pupils should be very attentive and think hard. They should strain their memory and will power to keep the sequence of sounds they hear and to decode it. Not all the pupils can cope with difficulties entailed. The teacher should help them by making this work easier and more interesting. This is possible on condition that he will take into consideration the following three main factors, which can ensure success in developing pupils skills in auding:

1. linguistic material for auding
2. the content of the material suggested for listening and comprehension
3. conditions in which the material is presented

1). The difficulties and peculiarities of Listening Comprehension may be grouped into 2 groups:

1. Extralinguistic difficulties

- mechanic way of speech of Listening Comprehension material (фонограмма, видеограмма и т.д.)
- listening to the speaker himself from his mouth
- tempo of speech
- tempo of speech
- the situation- position the listening comprehension carries out, the discipline of the pupils, noise, the number of the students
- the necessity of speaking
- the attentiveness of the listeners
- the number of listening
- the existence of pictures, and some other base means

2). *Linguistic difficulties:*

- the form of speech- monologue and dialogue
- the phonetic difficulties, the correct pronunciation of words
- vocabulary (lexical) difficulties- familiar words, multiple meaning of word; conversion
- grammatical difficulties: familiar -unfamiliar tense forms, grammatical forms, the structure of sentences
- stylistic difficulties: dialectal or literary standard form of the listening speech.

1. Comprehension of the text by the ear can be ensured when the teacher uses the material which has already been assimilated by pupils. However, this does not completely eliminate the difficulties in auding. Pupils need practice in listening and comprehension in the target language to be able to overcome three kinds of difficulties: phonetic, lexical and grammatical.

Phonetic difficulties appear because the phonic system of English and Karakalpak differ greatly. The hearer often interprets the sounds of a foreign language as if they were of his own language which usually results in misunderstanding. The following opposites present much trouble to beginners in learning English: [θ-s], [ʌ-o], [s-z], [θ -f], [! -z], [w-v] and etc. They can hardly differentiate the following words by ear: worked-walked; first-fast-forced; line-lion; tired-tide; bought-boat-board.

The difference in intonation often prevents pupils from comprehending a communication.

e.g.: Good `morning (when meeting); Good ,morning (at parting). The teacher, therefore, should develop his pupils ear for English sounds and intonation.

Examples for lexical difficulties: **The horse is slipping. The horse is sleeping. They worked till night. They walked till night.** Pupils often misunderstand words because they hear them wrong. The most difficult words for auding are the verbs with postpositions, such as: **put on, put off, see off, go in for, etc.**

Grammatical difficulties are mostly connected with the analytic structure of the English language, and with the extensive use of infinitive and participle constructions; -ed as the suffix of the past Indefinite and the Past Participle. This is difficult for pupils when they aud.

1. The content of the material for auding is exactly determined for each form in the secondary school syllabus G.V.Rogova divides it into 3 parts:

- linguistic
- psychological, it includes the assimilation of all the habits and skills of listening -comprehension
- Methodological part. Teaching the pupils for the ways and techniques of auding. Besides, by the technology of hearing the rules, principles, methods and means of teaching to aud are identified.

2. *The content of the material influences comprehension. The following factors should be taken into consideration when selecting the material for auding:*

- the topic of communication: whether it is within the ability of the pupils to understand, and what difficulties pupils will come across (proper names, geographical names terminology etc.)
- the type of communication: whether it is a description or a narration. Description as a type of communication is less emotional and interesting that is why it is difficult for the teacher to arouse pupils' interest in auding such a text. Narration is more interesting for auding. Consequently, this type of communication should be used for listening comprehension

The context and pupils' readiness (intellectual and situational) to understand it.

- The form of communication: whether the text is a dialogue or a monologue. Monologue speech is easier for the learners, therefore, it is preferable for developing pupils' ability to aud.

3. *Conditions of presenting the material are of great importance for teaching auding, namely:*

The speed of the speech the pupil is auding. The hearer cannot change the speed of the speaker. There are different points of view on the problem of the speed of speech in teaching auding a foreign language. N.V.Elukhina believes that in teaching auding the tempo should be slower than the normal speed of authentic speech. However this slowness is not

4. *The ways (techniques) of Teaching Listening Comprehension.*

Teaching Listening Comprehension process consist of two stages:

- The first stage consist of forming such skills in pupils as assimilation of phonemes, words, syntagmas, sentences necessary for listening comprehension, to differentiate and understand them.
- The second stage consist of forming and developing such habits and skills as understanding unfamiliar dialogic speech, micromonologue texts and analysing them by hearing. The content of the text undergoing for listening mustn't be familiar. They mustn't see the graphical expression of the text.

This stage should be fulfilled in the following chronical sequences:

- **the preparation for listening comprehension :** The teacher selects the texts or compiles them according to the age, knowledge level, language material assimilated by the pupils. Unfamiliar vocabulary, grammar structures names of cities, geographical names and other difficulties the correct pronunciation and the meaning of some words must be explained to the pupils by the teacher before. Even about

gained at the expense of time required for producing words (that might result in violating the intonation patterns of an utterance), but of the time required for pauses which are so necessary for a pupil to grasp the information of each portion between the pauses.

The number of times of presenting the material for auding: whether the pupils should listen to the text once, twice, three times or more. Pupils should be taught to listen to the text once and this must become a habit. However they sometimes can grasp only 50% of the information and even less, so a second in case the pupils cannot grasp most of the information, practice proves that manifold repetitions when hearing do not help much.

The presence or absence of the speaker is another factor. The most favourable condition is when pupils can see the speaker as is the case when the teacher speaks to them in a foreign language. The most unfavourable condition for auding is listening and comprehending a dialogue, when pupils cannot see the speakers and do not take part in the conversation.

Visual "props" which may be of two kinds, objects and motions. Pupils find it difficult to aud without visual props. The eye should help the ear to grasp a text when dealing with beginners. The voice of the speaker also influences pupils' comprehension. Pupils who get used to the teachers' voice can easily understand him, but they cannot understand other people speaking the same language.

Consequently, in teaching listening comprehension the teacher should bear in mind all the difficulties pupils encounter when auding in a foreign language.

three words (place names, city names and etc.) can be translated and written on the blackboard.

- **the process of having listening comprehension.** Listening comprehension activity may be carried out in the following methodological consequence:
 - A) writing the translation of place and geographical names, surnames and etc. On the blackboard from the text or sounding speech.
 - B) Listening to a reading of a teacher, from the mouth of a native-speaker, recording and so on. Pupils should listen to the speech only once in a normal tempo. The following tasks may be put forward before listening:
 - a) listen and grasp the meaning; b) listen and answer the questions; c) listen and grasp the meaning, then retell it in English or in Karakalpak; d) give suitable title to the text; e) make a plan of retelling and so on. Such tasks may be recommended in the 5-7 forms before listening and in the 8-11 forms after the listening.
 - C) Doing exercises stimulating (facilitating) the comprehension of the unfamiliar content of the text. The following questions may be useful: Where was it? Who was he or she? What was he or she? When was it? How did finish? Did you agree? What was happened?
 - D) If it must necessary for deeper understanding the text (speech) must be put for listening for the second time.(Syllabus requirement is only one time)
 - E) Testing (control) understanding of the text (speech) listened.
 - F) The analysing of the content. Individual view point of each pupil; What the author's senses are.

Lecture 10 TEACHING SPEAKING IN ENGLISH

Plan:

1. General Remarks
2. The Most Difficulties of Teaching Speaking a Foreign Language
3. The Content of Teaching Speaking in English
4. Techniques for Teaching Speaking

Tayanch so'z va iboralar: speaking, activity, difficulty, content, technique

1. The knowledge of each of the aspect of the language is of great importance to learners. However, when we say a person knows the language we first of all mean he understands the language spoken and can speak it himself.

Speaking in English is also one of the language skills. By speaking information is given. Language came into life as a means of communication. It exists and is alive only through speech. When we speak about teaching a foreign language, we first of all have in mind teaching it as a means of communication. Speech is a bilateral process. It includes hearing, on the one hand, and speaking, on the other. When we say "hearing" we mean auditing or listening and comprehension. Speaking exists in two forms: dialogue and monologue. Speaking is closely interacted with other language skills. If the pupil acquires listening and understanding (Comprehension) skills well his speaking abilities also develops in a quick tempo.

Reading is also interrelated with speaking. The pupil gives information, can speak according to the material he reads. reading is the material base for speaking. The language learner (pupil) can express (write) the information in written form through reading, speaking, and listening.

The secondary school syllabus requirement is to carry on a conversation and to speak a foreign language within the topics and linguistic material. Thus, speaking is the practical aim in teaching oral language. Finally, it is use for developing pronunciation habits and skills and, therefore, for reading and writing since they are closely connected with pupils' ability to pronounce correctly what they read and write. Thus speaking is the most important part of the work during the lesson.

Consequently oral language is:

- an aim when pupils make use of the target language as a means of communication, i.e. the target language is used for:
 - (1) Teacher-pupils communication in the classroom;
 - (2) pupils' communication when talking on a topic under Teacher's supervision;
 - (3) pupils' communication when working at a text-discussing the problems touched in it;
 - (4) pupils' communication during out-of-class activities in the target language;
- a means of teaching and learning a foreign language when it is used:
 - (1) within the methods of acquisition of new information about a linguistic or language phenomenon and drill and transformation to form pronunciation, lexical, grammar, etc. habits in pupils;
 - (2) for checking pupils' comprehension.

2. Speaking a foreign language is the most difficult part in language learning because pupils need ample practice in speaking to be able to say a few words of their own in connection with a situation. This work is time-consuming and pupils rarely feel any real necessity to make themselves understood during the whole period of learning a new language in school. The stimuli the teacher can use are often feeble and artificial. The pupil respects the sentence he hears, he completes sentences that are in the book he constructs sentences on the patterns of a given one. These mechanical drill exercises are, of course, necessary; however, when they go on year after year without any other real language practise they are deadening. There must be occasions when the pupils feel the necessity to inform someone of something, to explain something and to prove something to someone. This is a psychological factor which must be taken into account when teaching pupils to speak a foreign language.

Difficulties of Teaching Speaking a foreign language may be divided into 2 groups:

A) Extralinguistic Difficulties

B) Linguistic Difficulties

A.

1. Speech (speaking) may be addressed to someone, or to be devoted to some events, things, some life situations.
- 2) Creating speech situations, speaking a union (a Group of people) when speaking.
- 3) The existence of various aids (visual and etc.), means and so on.
- 4) The necessity of speaking
- 5) The peculiarities of the conditions where speaking is carried out (the division of the class (form) into 2 parts or not classroom placement and etc.
- 6) Using various kinds thetic movements, mime and so on while speaking. Besides, there are some psychological difficulties of speaking. The pupil needs words, phrases, sentence patterns, and grammatical forms and structures stored up in his memory ready to be used for expressing any thought he wants to. In teaching speaking, therefore, the teacher should stimulate his pupils' speech by supplying them with the subject and by teaching them the words and grammar they need to speak about the suggested topic or situation. The teacher should lead his pupils to unprepared speaking through prepared speaking.

B. Linguistic difficulties of Speaking

1. the right selection of lexical and grammatical items (material), speech patterns necessary for speaking.
2. the difficulties in the usage , meaning and content of the lexical and grammatical (item) necessary for speaking.
3. the difficulties in the correct pronunciation, tone (tune) and rhythm affecting the speaking process.
4. the difficulties in the usage of speech patterns, phrases

Besides speaking has the following difficulties too:

- a) speaking not in a literary standard language but in a colloquial style
- b) sentences, phrases are made very short: Have you? and you? How many books have you? - One. and the like.
- c) shortened forms are widely used: don't, won't, I've, shan't and so on.
- d) shortened words are widely used: laboratory - lab; microphone-mike; mathematics-maths.
- e) making remarks: Well, Hello, why not, Hey, etc.

Speaking exists in two forms: dialogue and monologue. There are some peculiarities of the monologue and dialogue speaking. Speech may also be divided into: prepared (ready-made) and spontaneous (unprepared). It is considered prepared when the pupil has been given time enough to think over its content and form. He can speak on the subject following three plan made either independently at home or in class under the teacher's supervision. His speech will be more or less correct and sufficient fluent since plenty of preliminary exercises had been done before. In schools, however, pupils often have to speak on a topic when they are not yet prepared for it. As a result only bright pupils can cope with the task. The teacher should encourage each pupil to speak on the subject in his own way and thus develop pupils initiative and thinking. The pupils' speech is considered unprepared when, without any previous preparation, he can do the following:

- speak on a subject suggested by the teacher (E.g. winter holidays, or Football match).

- speak on the text read. For example, pupils have read two or three chapters of Robin Hood.

-speak on the text heard: - Discuss a problem or problems touched upon in the text read or heard.

- have an interview with "a foreigner".

-Help "a foreigner", for example, to find the way to the main street or square of the town; or instruct him as to places of interest in the town.

This may be done directly or with the help of "an interpreter."

There are, of course, other techniques for stimulating pupils' unprepared speech. The teacher chooses the techniques most suitable for his pupils since he knows their aptitudes, their progress in the language, the time he has at his disposal for developing speaking skills, the concrete material at which pupils are working.

It should be said that prepared and unprepared speech must be developed simultaneously from the very beginning. The relationship between prepared and unprepared speech should vary depending on the stage of learning the language. In the junior stage prepared speech takes the lead, while in the senior stage unprepared speech should prevail.

3. The content of teaching speaking in English comprises the following three aspects: Linguistic, Psychological and methodological.

Linguistic Aspect (chapter) consists of the language materials and speech materials, sentence structures, speech patterns and so on. necessary for speaking. These materials must be selected on the base of certain topics. Besides, some extraslinguist elements such as mime, actions and some other means must be kept in mind.

Psychological Aspect of speaking includes speech skills (language skills). That is reproduction, putting in the right place, transformation, extension, adding and mixing. Reproduction means reproducing (saying aloud, repetition) of what he (she) heard from the mouth of a teacher or recording.

Methodological Aspect includes the usage of methods, techniques of teaching speaking.

It is important that pupils should use the means of basement (опора, таянч). That is the means (опора) of listening, seeing, words and etc.

4. As it was mentioned above there are 2 forms of speaking; monologue and dialogue. Each form has its peculiarities, In teaching monologue we can easily distinguish three stages according to the levels which constitute the ability to speak:

(1) the statement level; (2) the utterance level; (3) the discourse level.

Rule for the teacher: In teaching monologue instruct pupils how to make statements first, then how to combine various sentences in one utterance and, finally, how to speak on a suggested topic.

A dialogue consists of a series of lead-response units. The significant feature of a lead-response unit is that the response part may, and usually does, serve in its own turn as a fresh inducement leading to further verbal exchanges, i.e., lead-response-inducement-response.

In teaching dialogue we should use lead-response units as a teaching point and pattern-dialogues as they involve all features which characterise this form of speech. (see pp. 189-193, Rogova).

When a pattern dialogue is used as a unit of teaching there are three stages in learning a dialogue: (1) receptive; (2) reproductive; (3) constrictive (creative).

Rule for the teacher: In teaching dialogue use pattern dialogues; make sure that your pupils go through the three stages from receptive through reproductive to creative, supply them with the subject to talk about.

As to the relationship between monologues and dialogues, it should be vary from stage to stage in teaching speaking in schools. In the junior stage (4-6) dialogue speech, the one which allows the teacher to introduce new material and consolidate it in conversation, must prevail; in the intermediate stage (7-8-9) dialogue and monologue must be on an equal footing.

Lecture 11 TEACHING READING IN ENGLISH

Plan:

1. Reading as an aim and a means of teaching and learning a foreign language
2. The content of teaching reading
3. Some difficulties pupils have in learning to read in the English language (Linguistic and Extralinguistic)
4. How to Teach Reading
5. Mistakes and How to correct them

Tayanch so'z va iboralar: reading, skill, mistakes, learning process

1. In recent years, language teaching methodologists have gained a greater appreciation of the nature of the reading skill. They have come to understand that in fact it is not a single monolithic skill. Rather it is a behaviour which is made up of a large number of component skills sometimes referred to as microskills. These range from such foundational skills as the ability to recognise the letters of the alphabet and to match spoken words and sentences with their written representation, to quite sophisticated skills such as skimming a piece of writing to gain a general idea of its content, or evaluating a text for its general tone or bias.

Methodologists have also come to believe that the types of reading done in the language classroom should reflect the many uses to which reading is put in real life. You use reading not only for study purposes but also for daily living. You read not just novels, essays, and poetry, but also newspapers, instruction manuals and the labels on the products you buy in the supermarket. Thinking of this variety of reading tasks, you can see that different tasks require different approaches. For maximum efficiency, students must be taught to vary their approach to suit the purpose of their reading.

Reading is one of the main skills that a pupil must acquire in the process of mastering a foreign language in school. The syllabus for foreign language lists reading as one of the leading language activities to be developed. It runs: By the end of the course pupils must be able to read easy texts of social-political contents, popular-science and fiction. In learning to read they should acquire skills in skimming and searching reading.

Therefore reading is in one of the practical aims of teaching a foreign language in schools. Reading is of great educational importance, as reading is a means of communication, people get information they need from books, journals, magazines, newspapers, etc. Through reading in a foreign language the pupil enriches his knowledge of the world around him. He gets acquainted with the countries where the target language is spoken.

Reading develops pupils' intelligence. It helps to develop their memory, will, imagination. Reading ability is, therefore, not only of great practical, but educational, and social importance, too.

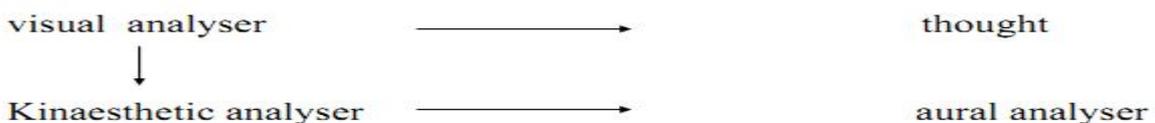
Reading is not only an aim in itself, it is also a means of learning a foreign language. When reading a text the pupil reviews sounds and letters, vocabulary and grammar, memorises the spelling of words, the meaning of words and word combinations. The more the pupil reads the better his retention of the linguistic material is. Reading helps them to acquire speaking and writing skills as well.

Reading is, therefore both an end to be attained and a means to achieve that end.

2. The Content of Teaching Reading

Reading is a complex process of language activity. As it is closely connected with the comprehension of what is read, reading is a complicated intellectual work. It requires the ability on the part of the reader to carry out a number of mental operations: analysis, synthesis, induction, deduction, comparison.

Reading as a process of connected with the work of visual, kinaesthetic, aural analysers and thinking. The visual analyser is at work when the reader sees a text. While seeing the text he "sounds" it silently, therefore the kinaesthetic analyser is involved. When he sounds the text he hears what he pronounces in his inner speech so it shows that the aural analyser is not passive, it also works and, finally, due to the work of all the analysers the reader can understand thoughts. The speech of reading depends on the reader's ability to establish a direct connection between what he sees and what it means. To make this easier to understand it may be represented as follows:



There are two ways of reading: aloud or orally, and silently. In teaching a foreign language in school both ways should be developed.

The eyes of a very good reader move quickly, taking long "jumps" and making very short "halts". We can call this ideal reading "reading per se". Reading per se is the end to be attained. It is possible provided:

- (1) the reader can associate the graphic system of the language with the phonic system of the language;
- (2) the reader can find the logical subject and the logical predicate of the sentence;
- (3) the reader can get information from the text (as a whole).

These are the three constituent parts of reading as a process.

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

- 1) graphic-phonemic exercises which help pupils to assimilate graphemic-phonemic correspondence in the English language;
- 2) structural-information exercises which help pupils to carry out lexical and grammar analysis to find the logical subject and predicate in the sentence following the structural signals;
- 3) semantic-communicative exercises which help pupils to get information from the text.

The actions which pupils perform while doing these exercises constitute the content of teaching and learning reading in a foreign language.

3. Reading in English language is one of the most difficult things because there are 26 letters and 146 graphemes which represent 46 phonemes. Indeed the English alphabet presents many difficulties to Karakalpak-speaking pupils because the Karakalpak alphabet differs greatly from that of the English language. A comparison of some letters show that they are the most difficult letters for the pupil to retain. (H-N; G-C; C-K; R-J). It is not sufficient to know English letters. It is necessary that pupils should know graphemes or consonant combination is read in different positions in the words (window, down). The teacher cannot teach pupils all the existing rules and exceptions for reading English words. When learning English pupils are expected to assimilate the following rules of reading: how to read stressed vowels in open and closed syllables and before "r"; how to read -ay-, -oo-, -ou-, -ow-; the consonants -c-, -s-, -k-, -g-; -ch-, -sh-, -th-, -ng-, -ck and -tion-, -ssion-, -ous-. The pupils should learn the reading of some monosyllabic words which are homophones. For example, son - sun; tail - tale; too- two; write - right; eve - I, etc.

The most difficult thing in learning to read is to get information from a sentence or a paragraph on the basis of the knowledge of structural signals and not only the meaning of words. Pupils often ignore grammar and try to understand what they read relying on their knowledge of autonomous words. And, of course, they often fail, e.g. the sentence He was asked to help the old woman is understood as Он просил помощь старушке, in which the word he becomes the subject and is not the object of the action. Pupils sometimes find it difficult to pick out topical sentences in the text which express the main ideas.

To make the process of reading easier new words, phrases and sentences patterns should be learnt orally before pupils are asked to read them. So when pupils start reading they know how to pronounce the words, the phrases and the sentences, and are familiar with their meaning.

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

4. The teacher can use the whole system of exercises for developing pupils' ability to read which may be done in two forms - loud and silent.

Reading aloud.

In teaching reading aloud the following methods are observed: the phonic, the word, and the sentence ways. When the phonic way is used, the child learns the sounds and associates them with graphic symbols - letters. In the word way a complete word is first presented to the child. When several words have been learnt they are used in simple sentences. The sentence way deals with the sentences as units of approach in teaching reading. The teacher can develop pupils' ability to read sentences with correct intonation. Later the sentence is split up into words. The combination of the three methods can ensure good reading.

Reading in chorus, reading in groups in imitation of the teacher which is practised in schools forms rather kinaesthetic images than graphic ones. The result is that pupils can sound the text but they cannot read. The teacher should observe the rule "Never read words, phrases, sentences by yourself. Give your pupils a chance to read them."

Teaching begins with presenting a letter to pupils or a combination of letters, a word as a grapheme. The use of flash cards and the blackboard is indispensable. Flash cards. When the teacher uses them allow him:

- a) to present a new letter (letters);
- b) to make pupils compose a word;
- c) to check pupils' knowledge of letters or graphemes;
- d) to make pupils recollect the words beginning with the letter shown (p - pen, pupil, etc.);
- e) to make pupils show the letter (letters), which stand for the sound [ou], [a:], [o], etc.

In teaching to read transcription is also utilised. It helps the reader to read a word in the cases where the same grapheme stands for different sounds: build, suit, or words which are not read according to the rule: aunt, colonel.

At an early stage of teaching reading the teacher should read a sentence or a passage to the class himself. When he is sure the pupils understand the passage he can set individuals and the class to repeat the sentences after him, reading again himself if the pupils' reading is poor. The pupils look into the textbook. [T-Class-T-P1-T-P2-T-Pn-T-C] This kind of elementary reading practice should be carried on for a limited number of lessons only. When a class has advanced far enough to be ready for more independent reading, reading in chorus might be decreased, but not eliminated: T-C-P1P2Pn.

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

- a) diagnostic reading (pupils read and he can see their weak points in reading);
- b) instructive reading (pupils follow the pattern read by the teacher or the speaker);
- c) control reading or test reading (pupils read the text trying to keep as close to the pattern as possible).

5. Mistakes and How to Correct them.

In teaching pupils to read the teacher must do his best to prevent mistakes. The following techniques may be suggested:

1. The teacher writes a word (e.g. black) on the blackboard. He underlines ck in it and asks the pupil to say what sound these two letters convey. If the pupil cannot answer the question, the teacher asks some of his classmates. They help the pupil to correct his mistake and he reads the word
2. One of the pupils asks: What is the English for «Зара- черный»? If the pupil repeats the mistake, the “corrector” pronounces the word properly and explains the rule the pupil has forgotten. The pupil now reads the word correctly.
3. The teacher or one of the pupils says: Find the word “Зàðà” and read it. The pupil finds the word and reads it either without any mistake if his first mistake was due to his carelessness, or he repeats the mistake. The teacher then tells him to recollect the rule and the word correctly.
4. The teacher corrects the mistake himself. The pupil reads the word correctly. The teacher asks the pupil to explain to the class how to read “ck”.
5. The teacher tells the pupil (to write the word “black” and underline “ck”). Then he says how the word is read.

Another question arises: whether we should correct a mistake in the process of reading a passage or after finishing it. Both ways are possible.

Silent Reading.

In learning to read pupils widen their eyespan. The eye can move faster than the reader is able to pronounce what he sees. Thus reading aloud becomes an obstacle for perception. Special exercises may be suggested to develop pupils’ skills in silent reading. For instance, “Look and say”, “Read and Look up”. (M.West).

Teaching silent reading is closely connected with two problems:

- (1) instructing pupils in finding in sentences what is new in the information following some structural signals, the latter is possible provided pupils have a certain knowledge of grammar and vocabulary and they can perform lexical and grammar analysis;
- (2) developing pupils’ ability in guessing. Pupils should be taught how to find the logical predicate in a sentence. The teacher may ask his pupils to read a text silently and find the words conveying the new information in the text according to their position.

To read a text the pupil must possess the ability to grasp the contents of the text. The pupil is to be taught to compare, to contrast, to guess, and to foresee events.

One of the most frequently used techniques by which children attack new words is through the use of picture clues. The use of context clues is another word -getting technique.

In teaching pupils to read much attention should be given to the development of their ability to guess. One of the best ways to develop this skill is to give the pupil the text for acquaintance either during the lesson or as his homework. To develop pupils’ reading skill, i.e. to teach them to get information from the text it is necessary that text should be taken as a whole (the teacher does not break it into pieces). / For detail, see G.V.Rogova, p. 210-215/

Lecture 12 TEACHING WRITING IN ENGLISH

Plan:

1. Roles of writing in the Learning and Use of Language. Writing as a skill.
2. Difficulties pupils have in Learning to Write English
3. Stages in the Development of Writing Proficiency
4. How to Teach Writing

Tayanch so'z va iboralar: writing, difficulties, stages, writing proficiency, writing, difficulties, stages, writing proficiency

1. The aims of instruction in a foreign language includes, besides speaking and reading it, also writing it. Every school graduate must be capable of writing a letter in the foreign language he has studied, to keep up a correspondence in it with friends living abroad. Writing in the foreign language is also a very important means of instruction. As a means of instruction writing serves to consolidate both acquired linguistic knowledge and habits of using the language. Writing helps pupils to assimilate letters and sounds of the English language, its vocabulary and grammar, and to develop habits and skills in pronunciation, speaking, and reading. So writing is very important skill. The practical value of writing is great because it can fix patterns of all kinds (graphemes, words, phrases and sentences) in pupils' memory, thus producing a powerful effect on their mind.

Writing includes penmanship, spelling, and composition. The latter is the aim of learning to write. Proficiency in expressing one's thoughts in written form promotes proficiency in the use of the spoken language. Writing is also a highly effective means of testing the pupils' knowledge and mastery of the foreign language. Setting test papers enables the teacher to appraise the attainments of the whole class and of each pupils in the acquisition of knowledge, in habit formation and in the development of specific skills. In the English language classroom, writing activities serve two different purposes. On the one hand, they help your classroom pupils to learn the kinds of personal, academic or professional writing which they will use in their daily lives. On the other hand, writing in English has a more purely pedagogical role. It reinforces the learning which goes on through the medium of the listening, speaking and reading skills. Since writing is a complicated skill it should be developed through the formation of habits such as:

- (1) the habit of writing letters of the English alphabet;
- (2) the habit of converting speech sounds into their symbols-letters and letter combinations;
- (3) the habit of correct spelling of words, phrases and sentences;
- (4) the habit writing various exercises which lead pupils to expressing their thoughts in connection with the task set.

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

1. Auditory perception of a sound, a word, a phrase, or a sentence, i.e., proper hearing of a sound a word, a phrase or a sentence.
2. Articulation of a sound and pronunciation of a word, a phrase, and a sentence by the pupil who writes.
3. Visual perception of letters or letter combinations which stand for sounds.
4. The movements of the muscles of the hand in writing.

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

Our methodology believes that a conscious to teaching and learning a foreign language can ensure pupils' progress in writing.

2. Since pupils should be taught penmanship, spelling, and composition it is necessary to know the difficulties Karakalpak pupils find in learning to write English. The writing of the English letters does not present much trouble because there a lot of similar letters in both languages. Only a few letters, such as s, r, t, b, h, l, f, j, I, G, A, N, etc., may be strange to Karakalpak pupils.

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

The most difficult thing for Karakalpak pupils in learning to write is English spelling. The spelling system of a language may be based upon the following principles:

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

Writing a composition or a letter which is a kind of a composition where the pupil has to write down his own thoughts, in another problem to be solved. The pupil comes across a lot of difficulties in finding the right words, grammar forms and structures among the limited material stored up in his memory. The pupil often does not know what to write, he wants good and plentiful ideas which will be within his vocabulary and grammar.

3. In the teaching of writing, just as in the teaching of reading, it is helpful to have a long-range overview of how proficiency develops. You will notice that the links between reading and writing become closer as students progress through the three main phases of the sequence.

1. Early stages of writing.
2. Proficiency level. Low beginners.

1. Pre-writing

- a. Brainstorming in various forms, oral and written
- b. Analysis of models
- c. Reading
- d. Notetaking

2. Writing and Revising

- a. Time for multiple drafts
- b. Feedback from teacher and other

Basic Writing Skills and Reinforcement of Speaking and Listening.

3. Skills and features of English to learn: use printed/cursive forms of roman alphabet. Learn general spelling and punctuation rules. Use simple word, phrase, and sentence forms.

Expanded writing skills. Proficiency level. High beginners and intermediate students. Skills and features of English to learn. Use commonly occurring word, phrase, and sentence patterns. Write paragraphs with topic sentences and supporting details. Use link words to signal organisation of paragraphs. Practice techniques for pre-writing, revising, editing.

Academic writing skills. Proficiency level. High intermediate and advanced students. Skills and features of English to learn.

Use discourse patterns expected in academic writing. Develop a thesis with appropriate supporting details. Become more independent in the writing process.

General Lesson Plan for Composing Assignments. It is difficult to give a lesson plan which will cover all types of writing tasks. When your pupils are composing you should always have a pre-writing phase and you should always allow plenty of time for revising. In fact, it is so difficult to separate writing and revising that the most appropriate lesson format consists of just two main phases:

Your pupils may need writing instructions at the most basic level - learning to form the letters and other symbols of the English writing system. Pupils needing such instruction range from those who have neither reading nor writing skills in any language to those who are fully literate but who happen not to have learned a language which uses the Roman alphabet.

Here are some general points to consider when teaching writing at this very basic level :

Teaching the printed forms of letters, both capitals and lower case, has the advantage that there will be a closer match between the shapes which students write and the shapes which they must read. However, older learners may feel that printed letters are for children and insist on learning the cursive forms which they associate with adult handwriting. Choose the forms which work best for your students.

- When you began to learn to write in English, you may have learned the letters in alphabetical order. A more efficient to their shapes. For example, a number of lower case letters in their hand printed form are 'ball and stick' figures: a, b, d, p, q.

- At the same time that pupils are developing a legible handwriting, they can also learn spelling rules of wide applicability, as well as the use of common punctuation marks (especially the period, question mark, comma, and apostrophe).

Keep in mind that your students should be able to understand everything that they are asked to write. Thus it makes sense to present new content first via the listening and speaking skills, and to use reading and writing to reinforce what has been mastered in the aural/oral activities.

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

1. The teacher shows the learners a letter or both a capital and a small letter, for instance, Bb. Special cards may be used for the purpose. On one side of the card the letters are written. On the other side there is a word in which the letters are written. On the other side there is a words in which this letter occurs. E.g. Bb bed

2. The teacher shows his pupils how to write the letter. He can use the blackboard. E.g. V and W are made with one continuous zigzag movement. Q is made without lifting the pen except for the tail. L is also made without lifting the pen.

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

3. The teacher asks pupils to write first the letter, then the word in their exercise-book.

When pupils are writing he walks round looking at the work they are doing and giving help to the pupils who need it. Since habits are formed and developed through performing actions pupils are told to practise in writing the letter and the word (words) at home.

The teacher's handwriting and his skill in using the blackboard is of great importance. Children learn by imitating. They usually write in the way the teacher does, so he must be careful in the arrangement of the material on the blackboard because pupils will copy both what is written and how it is written.

Consequently, training in penmanship implies: visual perception; observations accompanied by some explanations on the part of the teacher; practice under the teacher's supervision in class, and independently at home.

In spelling instruction the teacher should take into consideration the difficulties of English Spelling and instruct pupils how to overcome these difficulties. The following exercises may be suggested for the purpose:

1. Copying. The aim of this exercise is to allow the pupils to practise what has been taught in Listening and Speaking. Writing does this because the movements of the muscles of the hand are now called in to help the ear, the eye and the muscles and nerves of the throat and tongue. The "look" and the "feel" of the word are used to help the memory (F.French).

For better assimilation of the spelling of words, it is recommended that various associations should be established, such as:

a) associations by similarity in Spelling:

within the Eng. language {room, spoon, moon; thought, bought, brought; night, right, light}

between Eng. & Rus words - биография - коммунизм - энтузиазм
biography - communism - enthusiasm

b) associations by contrast in spelling:

two - too | spelling alone distinguishes these

see - sea | homophones

one - won

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

Copying may be carried out both in class and at home. In copying at home the following tasks may be suggested:

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

b) underline a certain grammar item; c) underline certain words depicting, for example, the names of school things.

2. Dictation. This kind of writing exercise is much more difficult than copying. Dictation is a valuable exercise because it trains the ear and the hand as well as the eye; it fixes in the pupil's mind the division of each

sentence patterns, because the teacher dictates division by division. E.g.: Tom and I/go to school/ together.

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

(a) visual dictation as type of written work in intermediate between copying

and dictation. The teacher writes a word, or a word combination, or a sentence on the blackboard. the pupils are told to read it and memorise its spelling. then it is rubbed out and the pupils write is from memory.

(b) Dictation drill aims at consolidating linguistic material and preparing pupils for spelling tests.

(c) self-dictation. Pupils are given a text (a rhyme) to learn by heart. After they have learned the text at home the teacher asks to recite it. Then they are told to write it in their exercise-books.

3. Writing sentences on a given pattern. The following exercises may be suggested:

(a) substitution. Mick has a sister. The pupils should use other words instead of a sister. (b) Completion. E.g. He came home late because..

(c) Extension. Ann brought some flowers (adjective before flowers)

4. Writing answers to given questions. The question helps the pupil both with the words and which the pattern required for the answer. the object of every kind of written exercise mentioned above is to develop pupil's spelling in the target language and to fix the linguistic material favourable conditions for developing their skills in writing compositions. By composition in this case we mean pupil's expression of their own thoughts in a foreign language in connection with a suggested situation or a topic within the linguistic material previously assimilated in speech and reading.

In teaching compositions the following exercises may be suggested:

1. A written reproduction of a story either heard or read.

2. A description of a picture, an object or a situation.

3. A descriptive paragraph about a text, or a number of texts on a certain subject. Pupils may be given concrete assignments.

4. An annotation on the text read.

5. A composition on a suggested topic.

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

Various kinds of tests may be recommended in teaching writing to measure pupils' achievements in penmanship, spelling and composition (see G.V. Rogova, p. 231-32)

5. Exercises for beginning writers should build on material which is already familiar to the students. The pre-writing phase should contain a lot of oral work and the actual writing done by the students should be

limited and controlled in various ways. Here are some suggestions for beginning writing activities.

- Have pupils dictate the first part of a story. After three or four sentences have been dictated, give the students the story to complete independently in writing.
- Give students copies of cartoons from which the characters' dialogue has been omitted. Have them compose orally, experimenting with various things the characters might say, and then write their ideas on the cartoons.
- Have students invent and act out brief social exchanges: asking directions, making a purchase in a store, greeting someone in the street, ordering food at a snack bar. Then have them write these dialogue form.

Lecture 13

TEACHING THE TEXT: THE GOALS

Plan:

1. The main goals of teaching the text
2. Comprehension of content
3. Language learning

Procedure:

Pre-activity

Students should read the text and judge how truthful, consistent or logical the text is.

Stress

Almost everyone in society has a job to do. Having work is important as it gives certain social status, pays salary and maintains self-esteem. Job can be rather rewarding. However, many people nowadays are leading hectic lifestyles. They work too much and have little breaks. This inevitably leads to stress. We often hear the word "stress" in everyday life, although it is not clear what it really is. "Stress" means pressure and tension. It is a common problem in modern life. Unfortunately, too much stress results into physical, emotional and mental health problems. The reasons for stress are numerous. It's not only overworking or having no time for rest. Stress factors also include dangerous situations, difficulties at home, divorce, loss of close friends, etc. Changes for the better can also cause stress. For example, getting married, having a baby, moving houses, entering a university. Of course, everything depends on the way a person reacts. Experts advise not to worry too much and stay calm in any situation. It is very important to try to avoid stress or at least to minimize it. When noticed on early stages, it can be fixed easier. One of the best ways to fight stress is to keep a sense of humor in difficult situations. Even doctors agree that laughter is the best medicine for all diseases. Other ways to cope with stress include regular leisure activities and interesting hobbies. If someone feels depressed, a good solution is taking up yoga classes or swimming, bicycling, knitting, gardening, painting, etc. Anything, that can help a person to relax and get a new lease on life, is considered to be helpful.

While-activity

Task 2 *Read the following passage and look at the statements below, which are all True as regards the text. Each statement has a blank space and after each one there are four alternatives (a-d). Add each alternative in turn to the statement and decide what effect each one has on the sentence: is the information in the sentence now True/ False/Not Given?*

UFFIZI TO DOUBLE IN SIZE

Italy is to try to turn the Uffizi gallery in Florence into Europe's premier art museum, with an ambitious 56m euro (\$69m) scheme to double its exhibition space. Giuliano Urbani, Italy's culture minister, said the enlarged gallery would surpass "even the Louvre". By the time work is completed, visitors to the extensively remodeled Uffizi will be able to see 800 new works, including many now

confined to the gallery's storerooms for lack of space. The project - the outcome of nine months of intensive work by a team of architects, engineers and technicians - is a centrepiece of the cultural policy of Silvio Berlusconi's government.

With refurbishment plans also afoot for the Accademia in Venice and the Brera in Milan, Italy is bent on securing its share of a market for cultural tourism that is threatened by the Louvre and by the "art triangle" of Madrid, which takes in the Prado, the Thyssen collection and the Reina Sofia museum of art.

Schemes for the expansion of the Uffizi's exhibition space stretch back almost 60 years. The latest was mooted in the 1990s. But the one adopted by the current government has reached a far more advanced stage than any of its forerunners. Roberto Cecchi, the government official in charge of the project, said last month that all that remained to do was to tender for contracts. The target date for completion of the project is 2006.

But the first changes will be seen as early as this month when a collection of pictures by Caravaggio and his school, currently crammed into a tiny room on the second floor, is to be moved to larger premises on the first.

MrCecchi said the biggest problem was "inserting a museum into a building that is itself a monument". The horseshoe-shaped Palazzo degli Uffizi, begun in 1560, was designed by the artist and historian Giorgio Vasari.

The latest plans are bound to stir controversy, involving as they do the creation of new stairwells and lifts in the heart of the building. There has already been an outcry over one proposed element, a seven-storey, canopy-like structure for a new exit by the Japanese architect Arata Isozaki.

At the heart of the plan is the opening up of the first floor, which for decades was occupied by the local branch of the national archives. This will allow visitors to follow a more extensive, and ordered, itinerary that would turn the Uffizi into what Antonio Paolucci, Tuscany's top art official, called "a textbook of art history".

As at present, visitors will be channeled to the second floor, where they will be able to study early works by Cimabue and Giotto before moving on to admire the gallery's extraordinary collection of Renaissance masterpieces, including Botticelli's Primavera. Asked if the expansion might increase the risk of inducing Stendhal's syndrome - the disorientation, noted by the French novelist, in those who encounter dozens of Italian Renaissance masterpieces - MrCecchi replied fatalistically: "Yes. It'll double it."

Example:

There are plans to increase ... the space for displaying art at the Uffizi.

(a) twofold (b) slightly (c) by 100% (d) with great care

(a) True. It says in the text: "to double"

(b) False. See (a).

(c) True. It says in the text: ... to double ..., which means an increase of 100%

(d) Not Given. There is no mention of whether care or great care will be taken, even if we expect it to happen ourselves.

1. ... works are not displayed, because there is not enough space in the gallery.

(a) About half of the Uffizi's

(b) Many of the Uffizi's

(c) Large examples of the Uffizi's

(d) The majority of the Uffizi's

2. Architects ... have been working on the Uffizi project.

(a) as well as other professionals

(b) engineers and technicians

(c) of international repute

(d) from all over the world

3. Architects have been working on the Uffizi project _____.
- (a) with great enthusiasm (b) with various other agencies
(c) for nine months (d) for more than nine months
4. ... the plan to increase the space for displaying art at the Uffizi gallery is ambitious.
- (a) The writer feels that (b) It is clear that the cultural minister does not feel
(c) To most Italians, (d) The writer does not feel
5. From the author's point of view, the plan to increase the space for displaying art at the Uffizi gallery is ... ambitious.
- (a) not that (b) not at all
(c) fairly (d) clearly
6. Plans to increase exhibition space at the Uffizi go back ... years.
- (a) 60 (b) exactly 60
(c) nearly 60 (d) more than 60
7. The Uffizi scheme will ... be finished by 2006.
- (a) possibly (b) ,at all costs,
(c) definitely (d) have to
8. The present scheme will ... be controversial.
- (a) possibly (b) definitely
(c) probably (d) not
9. The Palazzo degli Uffizi was designed by Giorgio Vasari,
- (a) who was an artist (b) who was an historian
(c) who was not a well-known historian (d) who wrote many books on art history
10. A collection of pictures ... , now in a small room on the second floor, will soon be transferred to larger premises.
- (a) by Caravaggio (b) by Caravaggio and other artists
(c) of international importance (d) by Caravaggio and his followers
11. One proposed seven-storey building at the Uffizi is ... disapproved of.
- (a) not (b) very much
(c) widely (d) unfortunately
12. The first floor of the Uffizi gallery was occupied by the local branch of the national archives
- (a) for a long time (b) for a few years
(c) which frustrated the Uffizi administration (d) for many years
13. Removing the national archives from the Uffizi will allow ... visitors to follow a more extensive, and ordered, itinerary.
- (a) most but not all (b) all
(c) only some (d) the majority of
14. ... the Renaissance masterpieces at the Uffizi, including Botticelli's Primavera, are extraordinary.
- (a) To all Italians, (b) The writer does not think
(c) To most people, (d) According to the author,

Post-activity
Answer the questions

1. What are the main goals of teaching the text?
2. What is the comprehension of content?
3. What is language learning?

LECTURE 14 TYPES OF TESTS AND ASSESSMENT OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Plan:

Aim of the lesson: By the end of the lesson the Ss will be able to explain what is Assessment as a new method, to learn Assessment as a new method

Plan:

1. Teaching and Testing
2. Assessment
3. Types of assessment

- What are the principles of language testing? Appendix 3
- How can we define them?
- What factors can influence them?

What is testing???



Definition: "A test is an activity whose main purpose is to convey how well the testee knows or can do something" (Ur 1996:33)

how well the

esting

Assessment
Evaluation

Teaching Vs Testing

- Both testing and teaching are so closely interrelated (or the relationship between them is as a partner)
- The test is geared to the teaching that has taken place, whereas in the latter case the teaching is often geared to the test

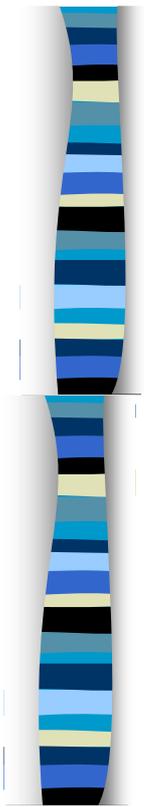


Types of tests

Five types of testing:

- Proficiency test
- Achievement test
- Diagnostic test
- Placement test
- Direct & indirect test





Testing and Assessment

Two types of assessment:

- **Formative**
it's assessment with the purpose to check on students' progress or to see how far they have mastered what should they learn.
- **Summative**
it's used at the end of the term, semester or year in order to measure what has been achieved by groups and individuals

Effect of testing

The effect of testing on teaching and learning is known as backwash. There are two different backwashes in the test, they are:

- The test will cause harmful backwash if the test content and testing techniques are at variance with the objective of the course.
- It will have beneficial backwash if the result of the test give an immediate effect on teaching (the syllabus was redesigned, new books were chosen, classes were conducted differently)

| | ASSESSMENT OBJECTIVES | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|------------------|
| | 3.1 (SPEAKING) | 3.2 (READING) | 3.3 (WRITING) |
| ORAL | ✓ | | |
| READING AND WRITING | | | |
| Question 1 | | ✓ | |
| Question 2 | | ✓ | |
| Question 3 | | ✓ | |
| Question 4 | | | ✓ |
| Question 5 | | | ✓ |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |

Assessment Process

- Induction
- Preliminary interview
- Intermediate interview
- Final interview
- Re-sit period
- Within 2 working days
- Within 5 working days –
 - initial summary
 - Learning opportunities & outcomes
 - Learning strategies
- Formal feedback, progress and action plan
- Full evaluation and assessment of performance. Sign off mentor
- Takes place immediately on same placement

The Experience!!

- **Placement experience from week 6**
- **Diversity of experience**
- **Minimum of 5 disciplines**
- **Access to 12+ speciality services**

What is meant by “writing”?

- Writing is highly sophisticated skill combining a number of diverse elements, only some of which are strictly linguistics.
- Mainly, the following elements are recognized by most of the teachers—
 1. Content/ideas
 2. Organization of the content
 3. Use of the grammatical forms and syntactic patterns
 4. Style – choice of structure and words to give a particular tone.
 5. Mechanics – punctuation marks and spellings

Difference between composition or essay

- Composition is a task where students manipulate words in grammatically correct sentences and link them to form a piece of continuous writing. It communicates the writer's thoughts and ideas on a certain topic.

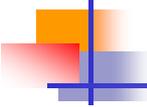
- Essay writing is not just to produce grammatically correct sentences. It demands creativity and originality. The purpose is not only to inform but also to entertain.

Types of writing tests

- Subjective test—
 1. **Situational composition**
 2. **Controlled writing**
 3. Free/creative writing
 - Objective test—
 1. Reference, linkage, expansion
 2. Grammar, style, organization, mechanics
 3. Judgement skills, etc.
- } Guided writing

How a writing test should be

- Clearly defined purpose and audience for writing
- No choice of tasks
- Restrict students' answers
- Test only writing ability, nothing else
- Well-defined and authentic task
- Ensure long enough sample
- Appropriate scales for scoring



Introducing assessment

Students need to understand clearly what is expected from them

- Ways we can support students to undertake the assessment include:
 - Discussing the assessment tasks and its requirements including its relevance to the learning outcomes
 - Developing shared understanding of relationship between the assessment task and assessment criteria and standards
 - Providing scaffolding tasks in tutorials that assist students to undertake the tasks.
 - Scaffolding is breaking learning down into stages or its elements.
 - Examples include presenting a draft of a foundational element of the assessment for feedback, provide a planning template for students to complete.
 - Activities may directly relate to summative assessment or be in a related context.

Warning: Avoid reducing responses to a formula. Ensure that any sample assessment or scaffolding does not limit opportunities for students to innovate. We need to encourage innovative responses to tasks.



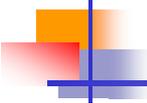
Formative and Summative Assessment

- **Summative assessment** is that which is graded
- **Formative assessment** is that which is offered as advice or feedback to student and which does not contribute marks toward their final grade
 - Tutorials are important times for students to obtain feedback on their work prior to them submitting summative assessment
 - Summative assessment tasks provide an opportunity for formative feedback to support students to improve on later tasks



Supporting learning through feedback

- Feedback should be **specific and timely** not just a grade
- **Relate to criteria** for assessment - No hidden criteria
- **Stay as objective as possible** - It is important to focus on the students' work rather than on comments that could have the effect of personally downgrading or humiliating students.
- Include **suggestions for improvement** - It is not enough simply to make demands. If you don't let students understand how to arrive at the demands, there's no point in making them. Encourage your students to see feedback as opportunity for improvement.
- **Be encouraging** in feedback - Avoid negating positive comments with 'but' or 'however'
- **Use the Rule of Thumb** - Positive, areas for improvement and plan for actions



Other sources of feedback

□ **Self assessment** - Students assessing their own work

Benefits:

- Develops reflective practice skills
- Encourages self directed learners

Note:

- Students need support to reflect effectively. This could include frameworks for reflection or developing relevant criteria for assessing their own or others' work

□ **Peer Assessment** - Students assessing their peers' work

Benefits :

- Assists students to focus on the requirements of the tasks
- Interchanges are in the language students are familiar with
- Students are more likely to ask for clarification from their peers
- Frees teacher to reflect on issues arising across the whole group and provide useful inventions

Note:

- Students need guidance to provide relevant and supportive feedback to others

Lecture 15

Assessment of vocabulary and grammar

1. Assessment of language performance in English.
2. Language portfolio.

Key terms: assessment, control, objects of assessment, functions of assessment, forms of assessment, evaluation, testing, feedback, content feedback, form feedback, errors and mistakes, language shortcomings/ language gaps, language portfolio

Assessment of language performance in English Assessment of language subskills

Linguistic competence refers to the mastery of knowledge of the language code itself. It involves controlling the format organization of the language for producing or recognizing «correct» sentences and organizing them to form texts.

Pronunciation is tested globally in different types of conversational exchange. Interview, reading aloud, etc., that go in the classroom. The purpose of testing pronunciation is not only to evaluate knowledge and award grades, but also to motivate students to be sensitive to this aspect of English. The most effective way of testing pronunciation is to actually listen to the learner. But it is not always possible in the teaching condition. So, the alternatives are: testing segments and word stress with the help of dictation exercises, listening activities designed to test the learners' ability to discriminate phonemes or group of phonemes.

The following exercises can be used for this purpose:

1. «Same or Different?»: The students listen to a pair of words or pair of sentences and indicate whether they are the same or different:

Bad – bed; suck – sock; spring – springer.

2. Fill in the Gap: the students listen to a sentence and select from a set of words the one they hear and need for the sentence:

Where did you see the..... ? (pupil, purple)

He can ... national songs? (think, sing, thin).

Vocabulary and grammar skills are the integral part of communicative skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing). They influence the effectiveness of speech reception and production. Vocabulary and grammar skills are tested when language is used.

Examples for testing vocabulary skills:

1. Choose the appropriate synonym to the given word.

Shape a) form, b) size, c) rate, d) oval

2. Complete the sentence with suitable words.

Use this _____ to find an _____ answer to the problem. (option/ appropriate)

Do not spend _____ time _____ piano. (much/playing)

Examples for testing grammar skills:

1) Complete the dialogue with *will* or *be going to*.

Stan: _____ you _____ (have) lunch with me tomorrow?

Tess: Sorry, I _____ (not be) in town tomorrow.

2) Write questions to the given short answers.

- Yes, I am.

- No I can't.

- Yes, he did.

Assessing of listening

The goal of assessment is revealing the level of listening proficiency, i.e. reception and comprehension of the oral speech/audio-text.

In domestic methodology four levels of comprehension are singled out:

1) the level of fragmental comprehension;

2) the level of general comprehension;

3) the level of details comprehension;

4) the level of critical comprehension.

It is accepted that the first level gives evidence that the students' listening comprehension skills are not full because they comprehend only some fragments. So, we deal with the following three levels of comprehension, where the fragmental level of comprehension can be defined as assessment. In Table 19 the ways for testing of these three levels of comprehension are given.

Table 19. The ways of assessment of different levels of listening comprehension

| | | |
|----------------|--------------------------|------------------------|
| General/global | Comprehension of details | Critical comprehension |
|----------------|--------------------------|------------------------|

| comprehension | | |
|--|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - question-answering activities and tasks touching the general content of the text; - multiple choice; - telling the key idea of the text; - enumeration of the main facts; - making the plan; - singling out key words after re-listening; - defining the main subject and type of the text; - matching the headline/picture with the content of the text. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - question-answering task and activities touching the general content and details/facts; - making the full scaled plan; - retelling the text using visual aids (picture, schemata, key words or plan); - dramatization on the basis of the text content; - resume/ text evaluation; - drawing diagram, scheme, table, picture; - dividing the text into paragraphs and finding the headlines to them; - evaluation of people' behavior; - filling the gaps. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - review of the text; annotation; - comparison of different points of view; - agreement or disagreement to the author's views and inferences; - interviewing; - discussion or conversation. |

Assessment of the first two levels of comprehension (given in the table) can be organized during teaching process at school, lyceum and college. The tasks and texts should correspond the students' age and be practical. Depending on the complicity of the texts and purpose, listening skills of students are tested within scanning, skimming, intensive and extensive listening through appropriate tests. But the level of critical comprehension demands language experience and fluency in reception and listening skills. So, it can be achieved in the linguistic schools, lyceum and colleges.

Testing of listening comprehension may involve macro- and micro-skills:

Macro-skills: listening for specific information (details, facts); listening for understanding the gist (the main idea of the text); following directions; following instructions;

Micro-skills: interpretation of intonation patterns (e.g. recognition of impolite tone, or irony); recognition of functions (e.g. request, command, advice, etc.)

For testing (exams) the text should replicate those (what?) used in everyday life, taking into account the students' age and level of English. Teachers can use: radio news, weather forecast, short stories, dialogues, announcements, monologues, instructions, directions, etc.

Assessing of speaking

An assessment of spoken proficiency is carried out within production and interaction aspects, given or chosen themes, dialogue or monologue, prepared or spontaneous talk. Speaking is in a close interrelation with listening, because one of the communicants is a speaker-producer of the verbal/oral speech, the second one is a listener-receptor.

Among the macro-skills of language, it has been widely recognized that speaking in EL is the most difficult language skill to assess.

Assessment of spoken speech is shaped as the use of activities undertaken to acquire and streamline the data about students' speaking outcomes during and after teaching/learning activities. Assessment of speaking performance can be organized through different speaking activities such as discussions, problem-solving, role-plays, conversations, story-telling, and so on.

Arthur Hughes singled out the operations and skills for assessing oral abilities³³, which we should take into consideration (see Table 20).

Table 20. Operations and skills for assessment of oral abilities

| Operations | Skills |
|---|--|
| <p>Expressing: likes, dislikes, preferences, agreement / disagreement, requirements, opinions, comment, attitude, confirmation, complaints, reasons, justifications, comparisons.</p> <p>Directing: instructing, persuading, advising, prioritizing.</p> <p>Describing: actions, events, objects, people, processes.</p> <p>Eliciting: information, directions, clarification, help.</p> <p>Narration: sequence of events.</p> <p>Reporting: description, comment, decisions and choices.</p> | <p>Informational skills: express, describe, explain, make comparisons, analyze, apologize, summarize, etc.</p> <p>Interactional skills: respond, express (dis)agreement, indicate, suggest, argue, elicit, repair breakdowns, etc.</p> <p>Skills in managing interactions: initiate interactions, change topics, turn-taking, come to a decision, end and interaction</p> |

Below we present a sample of testing students' speaking performance.

| |
|---|
| <p>Instruction</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. You have 5 minutes to read the task and think about what you want to say. 2. If there is anything which you don't understand, please ask the teacher. 3. You can make a few notes if you want to. 4. After this 5 minute preparation time, you will talk about the subject with a teacher. |
| <p>Task</p> <p>What makes a good friend?</p> <p>You are going to talk to the teacher about what you value in your friends.</p> <p>Look at the suggested information to be incorporated below:</p> <p>Kindness Honesty Fun to be with Support A 'shoulder to cry on'</p> <p>Shared interests Other...</p> |
| <p>Reflection</p> <p>Do you think it's better to have one or two really close friends, or a wider circle of less close friends?</p> <p>What are the qualities in yourself that you think your friends value?</p> <p>There is an English saying, «Blood is thicker than water», meaning that family relationships are more important / reliable than relationships with friends.</p> <p>Do you agree with this?</p> |

³³ Hughes A. Testing for Language Teachers. The 2-d ed. - Cambridge: CUP, 2003.

There are five components generally recognized by educators in analysis of the oral speech process: 1) pronunciation, including segmental features, vowels and consonants, the stress and intonation patterns; 2) grammar; 3) vocabulary; 4) fluency; 5) comprehension. These components can be taken as macro-criteria for testing students' speaking performance.

Three frameworks about general purposes of testing oral skills were suggested: 1) linguistically-oriented, 2) communication-oriented, 3) situation-based.³⁴

1. Linguistically-oriented framework concerns *vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation*. This work/goal can be carried out/achieved by *structured speaking tasks*, and *short-answer questions, reacting to phrases tasks*. Structured speaking tasks are typically used to evaluate pronunciation, spoken vocabulary and spoken grammar skills. Short-answer questions and reactions to phrases can also be used to evaluate overall understanding and comprehensibility. Short-answer questions test shows comprehension of questions and ability to give relevant information in response. The difference between this and more extended simulations is that the questions and answers are limited and all the information needed for answering the questions is usually provided in the task materials. Reacting to phrases is another structured task which is often used in tape-based tests. The task usually tests the examinees' knowledge of conventional politeness exchanges such as greetings, thanks, apologies, expressions of agreement and polite disagreement, and so on.

2. Communication-oriented framework refers to the overall communication activity in such a task as *telling* a narrative or *expressing* and *defending* an opinion, *discussing* factors that support the chosen opinion and argue against others – for the beginning and intermediate levels, *comparing* and *contracting* things through which advanced oral skills for description are needed.

3. Situation-based task design belongs to the task-based approach to defining the test construct. This approach is typically used in specific-purpose testing – ESP at colleges.

The first two frameworks are appropriate for testing students' speaking performance at schools, lyceums and colleges. We can find out how students understand linguistic rules and use them in communication.

In Table 21 you find some examples, suggested by S. Luoma³⁵, that show the types of test items and their functions.

Table 21. Speaking tasks and speaking tests

| Speaking tasks | Examples of speaking tests and their explanation |
|----------------|--|
|----------------|--|

³⁴ Luoma S. Developing Speaking Tasks. In Assessing Speaking. -Cambridge: CUP, 2004. -Pp. 139-169.

³⁵ Luoma S. Developing Speaking Tasks. In Assessing Speaking. -Cambridge: CUP, 2004. -Pp. 139-169.

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| Description tasks | <p><i>Example 1.</i> A one-to-one interview: Describe to me the room or area where you live.</p> <p><i>Example 2.</i> A pair task in an interview test (two pictures are provided): Describe your pictures to each other and then talk about what is similar in your pictures and what is different.</p> |
| Narrative tasks | <p><i>Example 1.</i> A tape-based test (Six pictures should be provided). Please look at the six pictures below. Tell the story based on these pictures starting with picture number 1 and going through to picture number 6. Take one minute to look at the pictures.</p> <p><i>Example2:</i> A face-to-face paired interaction test. Each of you has a set of pictures. Together they make a story. Each of you tells one part of the story.</p> <p>The narrative is a monologue, and as the test is tape-based the examinees have to tell it in one long stretch without any feedback from a listener.</p> <p>Narrative tasks are used as speaking tests to show how well the examinees can recount a sequence of events, usually in one time frame, either present or past. Most often, the tasks are based on picture sequences, where the content of the pictures guides what will be said. It is likely to create some interaction even though one of the pupils is always the main speaker while the narrative is being constructed. Information gap between the two speakers is therefore likely to occur. Also, the choice of good sequences is a difficult matter. Personal stories often reveal embarrassing details that speakers would be shy to discuss in a test or, if not, they may be so uneventful that the speakers would consider them unworthy to tell.</p> |
| Instruction tasks | <p><i>Example 1:</i> A one-to-one interview Imagine that we are standing in front of your house. Tell me how to get to the shop from there.</p> <p><i>Example 2:</i> A face-to-face paired interaction test — Feeding the puppy. You cannot go home but your puppy needs to be fed. Your friend says he will do it. Tell your partner exactly what to do, what he'll need and where to find things. Follow the instructions below. Find what you need in the picture. Tasks — what you have to do; what you need; where to find things. The main purpose in giving directions and instructions is getting the message to the partner and making sure that it has been understood. This tends to mean short exchanges between the speaker and the listener.</p> |
| Comparing and contrasting tasks | <p><i>Example:</i> Interaction for a pair task in a paired interview. Candidate A compares and contrasts two or three of these photographs, saying what kind of clothing the people are wearing and why the protection might be necessary.</p> |
| Explaining and predicting tasks | <p><i>Example 1:</i> A taped-based test Explaining the contents of a graph or explaining a process is a fairly common task in many professional and study settings. To do well on the task, the speakers need to set the scene and identify parts of the information or stages in the process that they are explaining and present them in coherent order. They also need to explain the significance of the important parts or stages, so that the listeners understand what the explanation is about and why it is being given. Predictions go together well with explanation tasks, and they can also be fairly in a monolog way. As predictions involve speculation, they may become more interactive in a face-to-face setting.</p> |

| | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Decision tasks | <p><i>Example 2:</i> In a paired interview Discuss and decide together: 1) what the advantages and disadvantages are of attending trade fairs, for instance, and 2) which members of staff would most usefully represent a company at a trade fair.</p> <p>In speaking tests, the issues that need to be decided are usually not clear-cut, so that arguments for and against different solutions are needed. The speakers express their opinions about the concerns and justify them in order to air different viewpoints before negotiating the conclusion.</p> |
| Role-plays and simulations | <p>Role-plays simulate different kinds of communication situations that the target group of the test could plausibly meet outside the test. They can be completed between two examinees or between one and a tester.</p> <p><i>Example:</i> A job interview.</p> <p>The employer — inquiring information about candidate’s abilities, qualifications, and character</p> <p>The candidate — providing information about himself and inquiring information about the company</p> <p>Role-play tasks are a way of making communication in a test more versatile because, rather than talking to a tester, the examinees take on a new role and a new, simulated role relationship to their communication partner. Their performance shows their ability to adapt to the requirements of the new role and situation. As long as the situation is relevant for the target audience and the purpose of the test, this gives useful information for the tester. The information may simply be a new perspective into the examinees’ linguistic resources, or the use of different functions from other tasks in the test.</p> |

Assessing of reading

Assessment of reading performance is carried out within skimming (reading for gist), scanning (reading for details), and extensive (reading for pleasure focuses on informational content). Reading presupposes forming receptive and comprehension skills.

At the beginning level of reading in English classrooms, the *receptive tasks* include: *recognition* of alphabetic symbols, capitalized and lowercase letters, punctuation, words, and grapheme-phoneme correspondences. They are referred to as «literacy» tasks, implying that the learner is in *the early stages* of becoming ‘literate’. The following tasks for testing are used: 1) reading aloud; 2) written response; 3) multiple-choice; 4) picture-cued.

Scanning and skimming reading. A combination of bottom-up and top-down processing may be both used to assess lexical and grammatical aspects of reading ability. These types of reading involve the different testing tasks: 1) question-answer; 2) cloze tasks; 3) multiple-choice (form-focused and for reading comprehension); 4) true or false; 5) matching tasks; 6) editing tasks; 7) picture-cued tasks; 8) gap-filling tasks; 9) ordering tasks; 10) to get the main ideas or details/facts; 11) non-verbal tasks for information transfer such as charts, maps, graphs, and diagrams; 12) transformation; 13) extending or compression; 14) summarizing (a synopsis or overview of the text) and responding (personal opinion on the test as a whole); 15) note-taking and outlining.

Testing (exam) focuses on evaluation of reading comprehension, which can be involved in macro- and micro-skills.

Macro-skills for testing reading comprehension are: skimming to obtain the general idea (gist) of the text; scanning to locate specific information in the text; identifying the stages and arguments; identifying examples in support of the argument in topic sentence.

Micro-skills for testing can be: identifying referents of pronouns; infer the meaning of words using the text as a context; understanding the structure.

Assessing of written work

Writing involves content, organization, style, syntax, mechanics, grammar and spelling. It was pointed out that «If we limit our feedback to pointing out or correcting errors, our students will concentrate on producing error-free writing, neglecting the interest or even the meaning of the content. The equation teaching writing – error elimination is counterproductive»³⁶. So it is necessary to conduct feedback in fair balance of content feedback and form feedback.

The experienced teachers consider that teachers should ignore the language mistakes that do not hinder learning, so teachers may correct only those mistakes which are very basic and those which affect meaning.

Study the ways and strategies of errors correction³⁷ (Table 22) and discuss them in the group.

Table 22. Ways and strategies of errors correction

| Ways and strategies for error correction | Goal, functions and explanation of error correction |
|---|--|
| Giving clear instruction | To help the students to concentrate on particular aspects of language, we can tell them that a piece of work will be corrected for only one thing, the use of tenses, for instance. By doing this, we ensure that their work will not be covered by red marks, and we encourage them to focus on particular aspects of written language. We can individualize language work by identifying for each student a few kinds of errors and assigning that focus on these. |
| Using students work as material | Where a piece of writing contains a number of common errors, we may photocopy the work (erasing the writer's name) and show it to the whole class, asking them to identify problems. In this way the attention of the class can be drawn to common mistakes and photocopied document can form the basis for remedial work |
| Discussing errors | We will learn about our students' errors if we give them the opportunity |

³⁶ Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. -Romania: Polirom, 2003. - P. 201.

³⁷ It was adapted from the book: Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. -Romania: Polirom, 2003. - P. 202-203.

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| | to make them, fix them, and discuss them. We can ask our pupils to discuss where they think their mistakes come from and why they make them. This will help us to realize which mistakes the pupils can recognize and which ones they cannot. Asking the pupils to discuss their mistakes may provide us with wide information about interference, typical mistakes, usage of skills and give us clear evidence of language learning. |
| Pointing out strengths as well as weaknesses | Our students will have the chance to perceive a correct model in their own use of language and will be likely to continue taking risk if they see that their good qualities are noted and encouraged. |

There are different types of writing performance in English which should be assessed³⁸.

Imitative: at this stage, form is the primary concern to assess learner's skills in the fundamental and basic tasks of writing letters, words, punctuation, and very brief sentences. This category also includes the ability to spell correctly and to perceive phoneme-grapheme correspondences in the English spelling system.

Intensive: this refers to producing appropriate vocabulary within a context, collocations and idioms, and correct grammatical features up to the length of a sentence.

Responsive: assessment tasks here require learners to perform at a limited discourse level, connecting sentences into a paragraph and creating a logically connected sequence of two or three paragraphs. Form-focused attention is mostly at the discourse level, with a strong emphasis on *context* and *meaning*.

Extensive: extensive writing implies successful management of all the processes and strategies of writing for all purposes, up to the length of *an essay*, a term paper, a major research project report, or even a thesis. Students focus on achieving a purpose, organizing and developing ideas logically, using details to support or illustrate ideas, demonstrating syntactic and lexical variety, and in many cases, engaging in the process of multiple drafts to achieve a final product.

A piece of writing (for instance, essay) as a final work at advanced level can be evaluated on the basis of criteria: 1) task achievement: relevance and appropriateness of ideas and examples, coverage, variety, suitability of the text, type and length, awareness of a target reader, precision; 2) organization: cohesion, coherence sequencing, paragraphing, layout and punctuation, length/complexity of sentence, textual fluency; 3) range: structures, vocabulary, appropriateness, flexibility, detail, avoidance of repetition; 4) accuracy: grammar, vocabulary, spelling.

Language portfolio

³⁸ Brown H. D. Language assessment-- principles and classroom practices. - New York: Pearson Education, Inc., 2004.

The basic idea of a portfolio is to provide a much wider range of evidences of the language skills of a student. It involves analyzing and evaluating multiple examples of a student's work and assessing a student's proficiencies and problem areas. Portfolio involves scoring a wide range of student's work based on predetermined criteria. All students can have benefits from this type of self-assessment, because portfolios offer students the opportunity to demonstrate what they have learned and experienced with the target language. It can include the whole range of language evidences reflecting a much wider range of skills. It might include tests, readings, written work, essay plans, feedback and reflections.

The process of actually developing and finding content for the portfolio often means that both the teachers and the students play a role in the form they take. For example, it may be left to the student to decide what examples of writing or reading to include in the portfolio. In doing this the students 'own' their portfolios and learn and reflect from the process of actually choosing the content for the portfolio itself³⁹.

Language portfolio was created under framework of Council of Europe and it included three components:

1. The language passport, which is a record of language learning both inside and outside the classroom. This has personal information like any passport, plus a grid which provides information about the languages that the person speaks and their level, using the Common European Framework of Reference.

2. The language biography which is a diagnostic self-assessment of FL, or L2 skills. It is done through a series of 'can do' statements where the student ticks check boxes to demonstrate what s/he can and can't do in a given language.

3. Finally, there is a language dossier/file. It is here where the students provide actual evidence of their language ability through a variety of artifacts.

Questions:

1. What do we mean by assessment?
2. What objects of assessment can you enumerate?
3. What function does assessment fulfill in the ELT process?
4. What are the forms of assessment?
5. What can you say about feedback and correction?
6. Think about purposes of testing spoken skills and how they are undertaken in the ELT process.

Tasks:

1. Describe the various types of tests which you know.
2. Discuss macro and micro skills testing.
3. Discuss beneficiaries of using language portfolio in the ELT process.

³⁹ Lam R., Lee I. Balancing the dual functions of portfolio assessment// J. English Language Teaching. 64/1, 2010. -Pp. 54-64.

4. In the sample of Bavarian Assessment Criteria for A2 level (CEFR) described above macro-criteria are reflected. Examine these criteria and requirements to speaking proficiency for A1, A2, B1 levels given in the State Educational Standard.

| |
|---|
| Pronunciation: comprehensibility and effective communication of meaning, including stress and intonation |
| Lexical and structural range, flexibility and appropriacy: adequacy of repertoire in relation to task and topics |
| Accuracy: lexical and grammatical - frequency and communicative significance of mistakes and errors |
| Interaction: initiation, response, independence, participation, negotiation of meaning, turn-taking and accommodation. |
| Communicative effectiveness: relevance, coherence, organization of ideas, sequencing and task achievement. |

5. Study the content given in the box.

| Tasks for Different Types of Writing⁴⁰ |
|--|
| <p>Imitative writing</p> <p>1) Tasks in (Hand) writing letters, words, and punctuation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - copying; - listening cloze selection tasks; - picture-cued tasks; - form completion tasks; - converting numbers and abbreviations to words. <p>2) Spelling tasks and detecting phoneme-grapheme correspondences</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - spelling tests; - picture-cued tasks; - multiple-choice techniques; - matching phonetic symbols: n/au - now' is expected to be written by the test taker.) |
| <p>Intensive writing</p> <p>This is also called controlled writing and thought of as a form-focused writing, grammar writing, or simply guided writing. Students produce language to display their competence in grammar, vocabulary, or sentence formation, and not necessarily to convey meaning for an authentic purpose.</p> <p>1) Dictation and Dicto-Comp (rewrite the paragraph from the best of students' recollection from a listening piece).</p> <p>2) Grammatical transformation tasks:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - change the tenses in a paragraph; - change full forms of verbs to reduced forms (contractions); - change statements to yes/no or why-questions; - change questions into statements; - combine two sentences into one using a relative pronoun; - change direct speech to indirect speech; - change from active to passive voice. <p>3) Picture-cued tasks:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - short sentences; |

⁴⁰ See: gaining.educ.msu.edu/resources/files/Assessing%20Writing.pdf

| |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - picture description; - picture sequence description. <p>4) Vocabulary assessment tasks: the major techniques used to assess vocabulary are (a) defining and (b) using a word in a sentence.</p> <p>Task forms include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - multiple-choice techniques; - matching, picture-cued identification; - cloze techniques; - guessing the meaning of a word in context, etc. <p>Vocabulary assessment is clearly form-focused in the above tasks, but the procedures are creatively linked by means of the target word, its collocations, and its morphological variants.</p> <p>5) Ordering tasks: at the sentence level (reordering sentences).</p> <p>6) Short-answer and sentence completion tasks.</p> |
| <p>Extensive writing (higher-end production of writing)</p> <p>The genres of a text that are typically addressed here include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - short reports (with structured formats and conventions); - responses to the reading of an article or story; - summaries of articles or stories; - brief narratives or descriptions; - interpretations of graphs, tables, and charts. |

6. Study the test formats used for assessment of language skills. Explain their effectiveness in the EL teaching process .

| Language Skills | Test Formats |
|------------------------|--|
| Reading skills | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Multiple-choice items 2. Short answers test 3. Cloze test 4. Gap-filling test 5. False/true statement |
| Listening skills | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Multiple-choice items 2. False/true statements 3. Gap-filling tests 4. Dictations 5. Listening recall |
| Writing skills | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Dictations 2. Compositions 3. Reproductions 4. Writing stories 5. Writing diaries 6. Filling-in forms 7. Word formation 8. Sentence transformation |

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| Speaking skills | <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Retelling stories2. Describing pictures3. Describing people4. Spotting the differences |
|-----------------|--|

Independent work:

1. Search the different types of tests in the Internet and prepare a presentation to the class.

2. Find and study samples of descriptors for self-evaluation in the terms «I can do», «I understand» and try to create descriptors for school, lyceum and college on the basis of content and requirements, given in the State Educational Standard.

EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Plan:

1. What is extracurricular activity?
2. Types of EA

Tayanch so'zlar: extracurricular activity, teaching, students development

Extracurricular or extra academic activity (EAA) are those that fall outside the realm of the normal **curriculum** of school or university education, performed by **students**. Extracurricular activities exist for all students.

Such activities are generally **voluntary** (as opposed to mandatory), **social, philanthropic**, and often involve others of the same age. Students and staff direct these activities under **faculty** sponsorship, although student-led initiatives, such as independent newspapers, are very common.



It has been argued that extracurricular activities are not very important in a schoolchild's life. I, however, differ with that. A student's social life is as important as their academic life, for their development.

There is so much pressure on students, especially in secondary schools, to perform well in their exams and attain high grades. This, by all means, is not wrong – wanting students to perform exemplarily well in their exams is normal. The problem comes in when students have no life outside their classrooms; when all they do and think about is their books. They become zombies whose world revolves around books, with no room for their development as human beings.

Many parents, guardians, and students themselves do not understand the importance of extracurricular activities. Teachers in many schools have had to convince some parents and guardians to permit their children to participate in extracurricular activities. This is because the parents feel that those afterschool activities distract them from their studies, or caused them to get home late. Some students also feel that they do not need the activities, all they need is to concentrate on their books.

This notion couldn't be any more untrue. Co-curricular activities are just as important as academics. They both complement each other to develop a well-rounded student with more social skills than one who only concentrates on their books. Education should go beyond the four classroom walls; it should be more than just books.

There are so many activities that a student can choose from, including sports such as athletics, football, and rugby, scouts, debate, chess or even music. Some students who are interested in more than one activity end up participating in them, as long as they have enough time left for their studies.

BENEFITS OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

- IMPROVED ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

Studies have shown that students who participate in co-curricular activities have a marked improvement in the grades. This can be attributed to skills they learn such as better time management to accommodate their hobbies and class activities, better organizational skills and a boost in their self-esteem. Skills learnt in clubs such as debate can be applied in the classroom too, as the students learn how to express themselves better.

- BETTER TIME MANAGEMENT SKILLS

A student has to learn how to balance their academic life with their hobbies. They need to know how to incorporate their club and sports activities into their school life and allocate enough time for each. They learn how to plan out their day to include study time and co-curricular activities time, and will know how to make use of any free time they may have. Such a student is also less likely to procrastinate.

Students learn new skills that are useful in their school life and day-to-day activities. Students learn skills such as teamwork, better social skills, and critical thinking. According to studies, students who participate in co-curricular activities were found to have better leadership skills and learnt how to relate better with their peers than those who didn't.

- SENSE OF COMMITMENT

Students who participate in co-curricular activities have a sense of commitment to whatever they are involved in. This is because as they take part in whatever sports or club activity they are a member of, they have to commit to it and give their all, and this commitment extends to all other areas of their lives.



6 – Semester The syllabus design

The questions to be discussed

1. Types of language teaching syllabus
2. **Choosing and Integrating Syllabi**
- 3.

Key words: syllabus design, English courses

"Syllabus Design for English Language Teaching". It mainly provides detailed elucidation of the process of designing a syllabus as one of systematic steps of curriculum development in language teaching. Curriculum development in language teaching should be done since it implies an effort carried out by the language teachers to improve the quality of language teaching through some stages of systematic planning such as a needs analysis, formulation of learning objectives, development of syllabus and teaching materials, teaching materials' implementation as well as evaluation to find out the effectiveness of the curriculum by taking into account the achievement of learning goals in language teaching program.

Curriculum and syllabus are two major documents necessarily prepared in a course design task. Where a curriculum describes the broadest contexts in which planning for language instruction takes place, a syllabus is a more circumscribed document, usually one which has been prepared for a particular group of learners (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986). In other words, a syllabus is more specific and more concrete than a curriculum, and a curriculum may contain a number of syllabi. A curriculum may specify only the goals ± what the learners will be able to do at the end of the instruction ± while the syllabus specifies the content of the lessons used to lead the learners to achieve the goals (Krahnke, 23 1987). Content or what is taught is the single aspect of syllabus design to be considered. It includes behavioral or learning objectives for students, specifications of how the content will be taught and how it will be evaluated. The aspects of language teaching method which are closely related to syllabus are the theory of language, theory of learning and the learner type. The choice of syllabus should take those three aspects into consideration. Furthermore, to design a syllabus is to decide what gets taught and in what order. For this reason, the theory of language explicitly or implicitly underlying the method will play a major role in determining what syllabus is adopted. In addition, a theory of learning will also play an important part in determining the syllabus choice. For example, a teacher may accept a structural theory of language, but not accept that learners can acquire language materials according to a strict grammatical sequence of presentation. While the basic view of language may be structural, the syllabus, in that case, may be more situational or even content-based. Learner type is another variable in the choice of syllabus of syllabus. Learner types can be seen in practical and observable terms, such as type of cognitive activity, life style, aspirations, employment, educational and social backgrounds and so on ((Krahnke, 1987). The choice of a syllabus is a major decision in language teaching, and it should be made as consciously and with as much information as possible. According to Krahnke (1987), there are six types of language teaching syllabus including:

1. A structural (or formal) syllabus. It is one in which the content of language teaching is a collection of the forms and structures, usually grammatical, of the language being taught. Examples of structure include: nouns, verbs, adjectives, statements, questions, complex sentences, subordinate clauses, past tense, and so on, although formal syllabi may include other aspects of language form such as pronunciation or morphology.

2. A notional/functional syllabus. It is one in which the content of language teaching is a collection of the functions that are performed when language is used, or of the notions that language is used to express. Examples of 24 functions include: informing, agreeing, apologizing, requesting, promising, and so on. Examples of notions include size, age, color, comparison, time, and so on. 3. A situational syllabus. It is one in which the content of language teaching is a collection of real or imaginary situations in which language occurs or is used. A situation usually involves several participants who are engaged in some activity in a specific setting. The language occurring in the situation involves a number of functions, combined into a plausible segment of discourse. The primary purpose of situational language teaching syllabus is to teach the language that occurs in the situations. Sometimes the situations are purposely relevant to the present or future needs of the language learners, preparing them to use the new language in the kinds of situations that make up the syllabus. Examples of situations include: seeing then dentist, complaining to the landlord, buying a book at the bookstore, meeting a new student, asking directions in a new town, and so on. 4. A

skill-based syllabus. It is one in which the content of language teaching is a collection of specific abilities that may play a part in using language. Skills are things that people must be able to do to be competent in a language, relatively independently of the situation or setting in which the language use can occur. While situational syllabi group functions together into specific settings of language use, skill-based syllabi group linguistic competencies (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, sociolinguistic, and discourse) together into generalized types of behavior, such as listening to spoken language for the main idea, writing well-formed paragraphs, giving effective oral presentations, taking language tests, reading texts for main ideas or supporting details, and so on. The primary purpose of skill-based instruction is to learn a specific language skill. A possible secondary purpose is to develop more general competence in the language, learning only incidentally any information that may be available while applying the language skills.

A task-based syllabus. It is similar to content-based syllabus in that both the teaching is not organized around linguistic features of the language being learned but according to some other organizing principle. In taskbased instruction the content of the teaching is a series of complex and purposeful tasks that the students want or need to perform with the language they are learning. The tasks are defined as activities with a purpose other than language learning, but, as in a content-based syllabus, the performance of the tasks is approached in a way that is intended to develop second/foreign language ability. Language learning is subordinated to task performance, and language teaching occurs only as the need arises during the performance of a given task. Tasks integrate language (and other) skills in specific settings of language use. They differ from situations in that while situational teaching has the goal of teaching the specific language content that occurs in the situation ± a predefined product ± task-based teaching has the goal of teaching students to draw on resources to complete some piece of work ± a process. The language students draw on a variety of language forms, functions, and skills, often in an individual and unpredictable way, in completing the tasks. Tasks that can be used for language learning are, generally, tasks that the learners actually have to perform in any case. Examples are applying for a job, talking with a social worker, getting housing information over the telephone, completing bureaucratic forms, collecting information about preschools to decide which to send a child to, preparing a paper for another course, reading a textbook for another course, and so on.

6. A content-based syllabus. It is not really a language teaching syllabus at all. In content-based language teaching, the primary purpose of the instruction is to teach some content or information using the language that the students are also learning. The students are simultaneously language students and students of whatever content is being taught. The subject matter is primary, and language learning occurs incidentally to the content learning. The content teaching is not organized around the language teaching, but vice versa. Content-based language teaching is concerned with information, while task-based language teaching is concerned with communicative and cognitive processes. An example of content-based language teaching is a science class taught in the language that the students need or want to learn, possibly with linguistic adjustments to make the science more comprehensible. In practice, of course, these different types rarely occur independently of each other. Almost all actual language teaching syllabi are combinations of two or more of the types of syllabus described here.

Types of English Syllabus

1. The Structural Syllabus The structural or grammatical syllabus is doubtless the most familiar of syllabus types. It has a long history, and a major portion of language teaching has been carried out using some form of it. The structural syllabus is based on a theory of language that assumes that the grammatical or structural aspects of language form are the most basic or useful. When functional ability, or ability to use or communicate in the new language, is a goal of instruction, the structural syllabus can be said to embrace a theory of learning that holds that functional ability arises from structural knowledge or ability. The content of the structural syllabus is language form, primarily grammatical form, and the teaching is defined in terms of form. Although the definition of language form and the most appropriate "grammar" to use in pedagogy have long been disputed, most existing structural syllabi use some form of traditional, Latin-based, descriptive/prescriptive grammatical classification and terminology. The usual grammatical categories are the familiar ones of noun, verb, pronoun, adjective, singular, plural, present tense, past tense, and so on. The domain of structural syllabi has tended to be limited to the sentence. That is, the sentence is the largest unit of discourse that is regularly treated. A classification of sentence types usually includes semantically defined types such as statements or declaratives, questions or interrogatives, exclamations, and conditionals, and grammatically defined types such as simple, compound, and complex sentences. A good deal of morphology can also be found in structural syllabi, such as *s* in *plural* and plural marking, the forms marking the tense system of the language, and special morphology such as *determiners* and articles, prepositions and postpositions, gender markers, and so on. Morphology also deals with vocabulary, specifically formal aspects such as prefixes and suffixes. A key feature of the structural syllabus is that it is "synthetic" (Wilkins, 1976; Yalden, 1983). Synthetic syllabi require analyses of the language (content), such as word frequency counts, grammatical analysis, and discourse analysis. The syllabus designer uses the elements isolated as a result of the analyses to make up the content of the syllabus. In most cases there are rules, patterns and grammatical elements, usually with guidelines for their combination and use. Because of their synthetic nature, structural syllabi assume a general theory of learning that holds that learners can synthesize the material being taught in one of at least two ways. First, the analyzed information - the rules and patterns - are available as the learner attempts to use them in linguistic communication. The learner uses the information either to generate or produce utterances or discourse, or to check the accuracy of production. Second, analyzed information is transformed from analyzed, possibly conscious knowledge, into the largely unconscious behavior that makes up language use.

2. The Notional/Functional Syllabus The notional/functional syllabus is the best known of contemporary language teaching syllabus types. It is, however, also the object of a great deal of misunderstanding. On the one hand, while notional/functionalism has been referred to as an "approach" (Brumfit & Johnson, 1979; Widdowson, 1979), it has never been described as anything other than a type of content of language instruction that can be taught through a variety of classroom techniques. On the other hand, notional/functionalism has been closely associated with what has been called "communicative language teaching" (Brumfit & Johnson, 1979; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Widdowson, 1979), a rather amorphous view of language teaching that has been referred to as a method but is really a collection of different approaches and procedures clustered around notional/functional content. Because of its broad scope, its confusion with instructional method, and its own lack of definition, notional/functionalism is difficult to describe clearly. A narrow perspective is taken here, viewing the notional/functional movement only in terms of a means for defining instructional content. In this sense, notional/functional syllabi have much in common with structural syllabi in that both are subject to a variety of interpretations and can be associated with a variety of

methodologies. At its simplest, notional/functionality is, in Richards and Rodgers' (1986) terms, a theory of language. It holds that basic to language are the uses to which it is put. If language is seen as a relationship between form and function, notional/functionality takes the function side of the equation as primary and the form side as secondary. For example, rather than regarding the future tense form (with *will*) in English as basic and discussing the uses to which it can be put (e.g., talking about the future, making promises) as secondary, in a functional view of language, notions such as future and functions such as promising are considered basic and the future tense form is discussed as one way of realizing these notions and functions. Other interpretations and applications have elaborated on notional/functionality, but the most basic point of the movement in language teaching is that categories of language use rather than, categories of Language form have been taken as the organizing principle for instruction.

3. Situational Syllabi The situational syllabus has a long history in language teaching, but situational content has mostly been used as an adjunct to instruction that is primarily focused on language form and structure. Many "methods," from grammar-translation to Berlitz to modern integrated textbooks, have used examples of the language being learned in situations and settings. These range from short dialogues to lengthy themes with casts of characters acting and behaving in complex ways. Many collections of conversation or communication activities are organized in terms of situations. It is important to realize that there is not just one situational syllabus, but many, differentiated by type of informational content and type of linguistic content. Alexander (1976) has distinguished three types of situational syllabus, differentiated by type of information: "limbo," concrete, and mythical. The limbo situation is one in which the specific setting of the situation is of little or no importance. Alexander gives the example of introductions at a party, where the setting of the party is largely irrelevant, and what is important is the particular language focus involved. The concrete situation is one in which the situations are enacted against specific settings" (p. 98), and what is important is the setting and the language associated with it. Ordering a meal in a restaurant and going through customs are examples of concrete situations. The mythical situation is one that depends on some sort of fictional story line, frequently with a fictional cast of characters in a fictional place. Among the different linguistic focuses that can be found in situations is the grammatical focus, with which situations are presented in such a way that particular structures or sets of structures are emphasized. It is possible to imagine a pronunciation focus that emphasizes particular pronunciation problems. Another is a lexical focus, whose emphasis is on some set of vocabulary items. Situations may emphasize functions, such as introduction or apology, or notion, such as time or color or comparison. Finally, situations may be constructed to present various types of discourse or interactional phenomena. A related way to distinguish situational syllabi is to consider whether situations are presented to students in the form of completed discourse, or the students are expected to create or modify parts or all of it. Many situations are presented in full, and students are then asked to play out the same situation using their own language and, possibly, settings. On the other hand, situations can be presented as role plays, in which the students are expected to create, supply, or fill in much of the language that occurs in the situation.

4. Skill-Based Syllabi Much less is known about the skill-based, task-based, and content-based syllabi than about the types already discussed. This is especially true of the skill-based syllabus, a type that has not been previously identified as a separate kind of instructional content in the literature on language teaching. The term "skill" in language teaching has generally been used to designate one of the four modes of language: speaking, listening, reading, or writing (Chastain, 1976). Here, however, the term is used to designate a specific way of defining the content of language teaching. A working definition of skill for this volume is a specific way of using language that combines structural and functional ability but exists independently of specific settings or situations. Examples are reading skills such as skimming and scanning; writing skills such as writing specific topic sentences and certain kinds of discourse (e.g., memos, research reports, work reports); speaking skills of giving instructions, delivering public talks, giving personal information for bureaucratic purposes,

asking for emergency help over the telephone; and listening skills such as getting specific information over the telephone, listening to foreign radio broadcasts for news or military information, taking orders in a restaurant, and so on. Another, and more traditional, way of viewing skill-based instruction is what is called competency-based instruction. Competencies are similar to behavioral objectives in that they define what a learner is able to do as a result of instruction. Extensive lists of competencies have been developed for adult ESL (refugee and immigrant) programs in the United States. Not all native speakers of a language are equally competent users of language. Also, individuals have varying competence in the different skill areas. For example, even though anyone reading this book may be considered a 31 speaker of English, including many native speakers, not all are reading with the same degree of efficiency. Some are more "skilled" readers than others. At the same time, one person may be a particularly skilled reader but perform extremely poorly when required to carry on an emergency conversation on a mobile radio. Or someone who is an inefficient reader may be adept at getting people to buy waterbeds. The ability to use language in specific ways (settings and registers) is partially dependent on general language ability, but partly based on experience and the need for specific skills. Language skills may, in fact, be limited to specific settings. Many waiters and waitresses in restaurants, and other workers in similar jobs, have learned only the English skills needed to carry out their work in the restaurant. They have learned a specific second-language skill. Preparing students to undertake higher education in a second language often involves teaching them specific skills such as note-taking, writing formal papers, and skimming and scanning while reading.

5. The Task-Based Syllabus The task-based syllabus is relatively little-known. It is largely based on work by Krahnke (1981, 1982), Candlin and Murphy (1986), and Johnson (1982). The defining characteristic of task-based content is that it uses activities that the learners have to do for noninstructional purposes outside of the classroom as opportunities for language learning. Tasks are distinct from other activities to the degree that they have a noninstructional purpose and a measurable outcome. Tasks are a way of bringing the real world into the classroom. Task-based learning is sometimes similar to situational learning, but the content of the situations is provided by the students themselves. Tasks are also not static; that is, they should involve a process of informational manipulation and development. They should also involve informational content that the language learners do not have at the beginning of the task. Another characteristic of tasks is that they require the student to apply cognitive processes of evaluation, selection, combination, modification, or supplementation (so-called "higher-order thinking skills") to a combination of new and old information. In task-based instruction, language is not taught per se, but is supplied as needed for the completion of the task. An example of a task is to have the students develop a guidebook to their school or instructional program for actual use by other students. Immigrant students might research the availability of health care in their community and develop a guide to using health care facilities. In an academic setting, students might work on a paper or report that is actually needed for a content-area class. Beginning students might tackle the process of applying for a program or job, obtaining the forms and information necessary to complete the process. The intent of task-based learning is to use learners' real-life needs and activities as learning experiences, providing motivation through immediacy and relevancy. The focus on processing of new and old information in an interactional manner stimulates transfer. Language form is learned through language use. Task-based learning is structurally geared toward language learning or acquisition because the tasks are part of a language learning environment or program are chosen in part for what they will contribute to language development, and are implemented in a way that provides as much experience and feedback as possible. The language needed to carry out tasks is not provided or taught beforehand, but discovered by students and provided by teachers and other resources as the task is carried out.

6. The Content-Based Syllabus Content-based language teaching has been in existence for some time, but has only recently been recognized as a viable way of teaching language as an end in itself. In concept, content-based teaching is simple: It is the teaching of content or

information in the language being learned with little or direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught. In practice many programs using a content-based approach have also included an instructional component specifically focusing on the target language, but such specific language instruction is not regarded as the primary contributor to target language acquisition. Recent developments in content-based teaching are closely related to the broader issue of attempts to provide effective instruction to LEP children in public schools in the United States and Canada. One solution to the problem of limited school language proficiency has been some sort of controlled immersion in the language of the school or society. "Immersion" essentially has meant that students are given content instruction in a language they may not control well or at all; that is, they simply go to school in that language. When undertaken responsibly and informedly, immersion can maximize the students' comprehension of both the target language and the content material. The potential for the success of immersion was established by controlled research carried out in Canada (Lambert & Tucker, 1972). In this research program, students were placed in school subject classes, starting at the kindergarten level, that were taught in languages other than their first. The results of the research demonstrated that such students had learned both the content being taught and the language in which it was taught, and that cognitive development was not slowed by such an experience. This type of evidence, and the need to educate large numbers of non-English-speaking children in the United States and Canada, gave support to bilingual education programs in both countries as a solution to the problem of educating children who do not speak the language of the educational system. The goals of bilingual education programs have been to keep non-dominant language speakers in school, to ensure that their cognitive development continues at an acceptable rate, and to give them ability in the community language that they did not have proficiency in, leading, ideally, to bilingualism.

Choosing and Integrating Syllabi

The term syllabus, as used here, does not refer to a document guiding the teaching of a specific language course, but to a more theoretical notion of the types of content involved in language teaching and the bases for the organization of language courses. In the preceding chapters, six types of syllabus content were defined and described as ideal or isolated types. In actual teaching settings, of course, it is rare for one type of syllabus or content to be used exclusively of other types. Syllabus or content types are usually combined in more or less integrated ways, with one type as the organizing basis around which the others are arranged and related. For example, many foreign language courses are organized around a structural syllabus, with each unit or chapter focusing on several grammatical features. Accompanying the grammatical focus and organization, however, are other types of content, usually situational (dialogues) and functional (how to introduce yourself). Basic syllabus design involves several questions. The first question concerns the types of content to include or exclude. The second is whether to combine various types of syllabus content or to rely on a single type. The third, assuming that more than one type of content will be included, is whether to use one type as basic and to organize others around it, or to sequence each type more or less independently of the other. In discussing syllabus choice and design, then, it should be kept in mind that the issue is not which type to choose but which types, and how to relate them to each other. Before this issue is discussed, three factors that affect the choice of syllabus or content in language teaching²program, teacher, and students²are examined.

Program Factors Affecting Syllabus Choice and Design

The major determinant in choosing a syllabus type for second language teaching must be the goals and objectives of the overall instructional program; that is, the type of knowledge or behavior desired as an outcome of the instruction. This truism has not been consistently recognized. For example, for a number of years it has been widely accepted that ability to function communicatively

in a second language is a desirable outcome (among others) of foreign language instruction in secondary schools and at the college level. The emphasis in much of this instruction, however, has remained on the structural and formal aspects of language, presumably under the assumption that one kind of knowledge (structural) will lead to the other (ability to function). Yet ample evidence has shown that more direct routes to functional ability are possible, using a variety of types of instructional content such as situational, skill, and notional/functional content. Thus the relationship of the goals of instruction to the content of instruction has not always been direct. Clearly, another factor that will affect the type of syllabus or syllabi that can be chosen is the instructional resources available. Resources may include elements such as time, textbooks and other materials, visuals (films, slides, pictures), realia, and out-of-classroom resources such as other speakers of the language, radio and television programs, films, field trips, and so on. A final program factor affecting the choice of instructional content may be the need to make the instruction accountable to authorities or measurable by external measures² usually tests. The influence of tests on the content of instruction is a well-known phenomenon. Teachers and instructional programs often teach toward a particular kind of knowledge if it is going to be tested, even though the knowledge may not be what the students really need.

Teacher Factors Affecting Syllabus Choice and Design

Along with the more general program factors, teachers play a role in determining what the content of language instruction will be. A truism of teaching is that teachers tend to teach what they know. A teacher who is not familiar with the formal aspects of a language will not be likely to try to teach a grammar lesson, but might, for example, focus on the social uses (functions) of language or how it is used in various situations. On the other hand, the science teacher with one student who does not speak the language of the classroom may go ahead and teach science in the best way possible (content instruction) rather than try to give the student a special language lesson. Some research in teacher practice suggests that language teachers do not accurately describe their own practice (Long & Sato, 1983), have contradictory and inconsistent beliefs about language teaching (Krahnke & Knowles, 1984) and tend to repeat their own experiences as students when they become teachers. As a result, teachers can have a powerful influence on the actual syllabus of a classroom even if the official or overt syllabus of the program is entirely different.

Student Factors Affecting Syllabus Choice and Design

Facts about students also affect what instructional content can be used in an instructional program. The major concerns here are the goals of the students, their experience, expectations, and prior knowledge, their social and personality types, and the number of students in a given class. Ideally, the goals the students themselves have for language study will match the goals of the program. When this is so, the question of goals is easy to settle. Sometimes, however, programs and students have different goals. For example, one instructional program was designed to teach the English of the broadcasting profession at a vocational school. The program administrators assumed that the students' language learning goals were tied to the professional training they were receiving. Many students, however, were more interested in attaining general English proficiency to prepare them for even better positions than they were being trained for. One way to meet both sets of goals would be to increase the amount of general functional, situational, and skill content provided along with the specialized skill and structural content that was being taught.

Combining and Integrating Syllabus Types

Throughout this monograph, syllabus types have been discussed more or less ideally and independently, treating each as if it were the sole type being used in instruction. In practice, however, few instructional programs rely on only one type but combine types in various ways.

A distinction exists between combination and integration, although it is not absolute. Combination is the inclusion of more than one type of syllabus with little attempt to relate the content types to each other. For example, a lesson on the function of disagreeing (functional) could be followed by one on listening for topic shifts (skill) in which the function of disagreeing has no significant occurrence. Such combination frequently occurs in language teaching when various communicative or "fluency" activities (i.e., skills, tasks) are added on to a structural, functional, or situational syllabus. Little or no attempt is made to relate the content of the two types of instruction. Integration is when some attempt is made to interrelate content items. For example, if, after a structural lesson on the subjunctive, students were asked to prepare stories on the theme, "What I would do if I were rich," the two types of instruction would be integrated. Integration is obviously more difficult and complex to undertake than combination. Integration may seem to be the preferred way to use different syllabus or content types, and in some ways this perception is accurate. Instruction that reinforces and relates various syllabus and content types is probably more effective than instruction that is divided into discrete compartments. On the other hand, again, when specific knowledge and behavioral outcomes are desired, discrete combinations may be preferable to fully integrated syllabi.

For example, if it is true that instruction in form is directly usable by learners mostly for Monitoring (Krashen, 1982), then it may be that structural or formal syllabi should make up, as Krashen suggests, a limited but separate part of the overall curriculum, with the objective of enabling students to use the structural knowledge in test-taking and editing settings, and not of enabling them to gain active control over the use of the structures in discourse. Another argument in favor of combination stems from the finding that much of early second language behavior is a combination of formulaic language use (use of memorized chunks of language for particular functions) and more creative and synthesized applications of rules (Ellis, 1986). It may be that some situational or Functional content can be included with the objective of providing the learners with the formulas and routines they need for immediate and specific communication, and other types of instruction can be used to foster their overall language acquisition.

A Practical Guide to Syllabus Choice and Design

The resources available for actual language teaching syllabi have been described in this monograph, along with some of the constraints on choosing and combining them. By now it is clear that no single type of content is appropriate for all teaching settings, and the needs and conditions of each setting are so idiosyncratic that specific recommendations for combination are not possible. In addition, the process of designing and implementing an actual syllabus warrants a separate volume. Ten steps in preparing a practical language teaching syllabus: 1) Determine, to the extent possible, what outcomes are desired for the students in the instructional program. That is, as exactly and realistically as possible, define what the students should be able to do as a result of the instruction. 2) Rank the syllabus types presented here as to their likelihood of leading to the outcomes desired. Several rankings may be necessary if outcomes are complex. 3) Evaluate available resources in expertise (for teaching, needs analysis, materials choice and production, etc.), in materials, and in training for teachers. 4) Rank the syllabi relative to available resources. That is, determine what syllabus types would be the easiest to implement given available resources. 5) Compare the lists made under Nos. 2 and 4. Making as few adjustments to the earlier list as possible, produce a new ranking based on the resources constraints. 6) Repeat the process, taking into account the constraints contributed by teacher and student factors described earlier. 7) Determine a final ranking, taking into account all the information produced by the earlier steps. 8) Designate one or two syllabus types as dominant and one or two as secondary. 9) Review the question of combination or integration of syllabus type and determine how combination will be achieved and in what

proportion. 10) Translate decisions into actual teaching units. This guide is intended as a general procedure to follow in making syllabus decisions for specific instructional programs. It is expected that quite different designs will emerge for each application, and this is as it should be. What is important in making practical decisions about syllabus design is that all possible factors that might affect the teachability of the syllabus be taken into account. This can be done only at the program level.

Lecture 18 **Materials development**

1. English Language Teaching Materials: Theory and Practice
2. Factors to consider in designing materials
2. Designing effective English language teaching materials
3. Principles of effective materials development

English Language Teaching Materials

This author states some advantages and disadvantages of designing our own materials, the factors that we should bear in mind when designing materials, and, finally, some guidelines for designing effective materials.

As regards the **advantages**, they provided the following ones:



-Contextualization: commercialised coursebooks and material are not designed for a specific group of students, they aim at a general audience and, consequently, they are not always suitable for the group we are teaching at. Therefore, many teachers decide to adapt or to create their own materials so as to make up for that lack of “fitting.”

-Resources available: we should take into consideration the resources we can make use of. In some teaching contexts we could have access to a vast array of resources whereas in some others we may not have even a board and a piece of chalk. Furthermore, there are schools in which there are no coursebooks or other already designed materials. Therefore, we should design our own. Apart from that, commercialised books are rather expensive and they could be unaffordable for the learners, the school or both.

-Individual Needs: no one can understand students' needs better than their teacher. The authors of coursebooks have in mind a hypothetical audience when designing activities, but it is the teacher who knows her students, their needs, mother tongue, interests, strengths and weaknesses. That's why, many teachers choose to adapt materials so as to make them more suitable. Aside from that, sometimes the coursebooks present the topics in a certain way – almost always from a structuralist perspective – and the teacher may consider that the contents are valuable but not the way in which they are organised and approached. Consequently, teachers could adapt the materials in a way that suits both her view of language and her view of language learning.

-Personalization: teacher-produced materials are a way of adding a personal touch to our teaching. We do so by taking into account our students' needs, interests, level of language proficiency, their learning styles, and multiple intelligences. Students will feel much more motivated and engaged. Besides, they do appreciate our efforts!

Disadvantages:



-Organization: whereas coursebooks tend to be organised following a certain pattern, which tend to give both teachers and students security, some “home-made” materials may be incoherent and lacking a unifying theme

-Quality: Sometimes teacher-made materials may contain errors. Moreover, they could lack durability and be unclear as regards their organization and print.

-Time: you may be highly enthusiastic about designing your own materials but sometimes, especially if you are a “taxi” teacher (a teacher who works in many schools), you don’t have much time to do so.

Factors we should bear in mind when designing materials:

-Learners: this is the most important factor to be considered. We should design our materials according to our students’ s needs, interests, motivation, specific individual needs, and their purposes for learning English.

-Curriculum and context: both of them will influence our choices when designing materials since “a curriculum outlines the goals and objectives for the learners and the course of study” (Howard, 2005). Nevertheless, it is our responsibility to ensure that those goals and course objectives stated on the curriculum are achieved.

-Resources and Facilities: when designing materials, we should think about the resources available in the context we are teaching. We should be realistic!

-Personal confidence and competence: whether we are willing to run the risk of designing materials or not will very much depend on our self-confidence and competence. Many teachers decide to rely on coursebooks completely since they do not believe themselves to be capable of undergoing this task of producing materials. Generally, what teachers tend to do is to add activities, leave some aside, replace or adapt them, or to change their organisational structures.

-Copyright compliance: we should be aware of the lawful restrictions when directly copying authentic and published materials, and materials downloaded from the Internet.

-Time

Guidelines:

1-English language teaching material should be contextualised: Materials should be contextualised to the curriculum they are intended to address, to the students' realities, needs, interests, experiences, reality, mother tongue and culture, and to meaningful and purposeful topics and themes.

2-Materials should stimulate interaction and be generative in terms of language: language should be used for real and purposeful communication. Language-teaching materials should aim at fulfilling this communicative purpose. In real communication we need to have something to communicate to someone with an intention.

3-English language teaching materials should encourage learners to develop learning skills and strategies: It is important that language teaching materials help students to learn how to learn not only within the classroom but also outside the classroom, fostering their autonomy and self-assessment.

4-English language teaching material should allow for a focus on form as well as function: Form is just one of the sub-systems of this system called "Language." Consequently, we cannot focus only on one aspect. Form goes hand in hand with Function, they are intrinsically interrelated. Hence, one cannot be separated from the other.

5- English language teaching material should offer opportunities for integrated language use:commercialised materials tend to focus just on one skill at the time. Therefore, designing our own materials is an excellent opportunity to integrate the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

6- English language teaching material should be authentic: they should be authentic not only in terms of the texts presented (written, spoken and visual ones) but also in terms of the tasks they should carry out.

7- English language teaching material should link to each other to develop a progression of skills, understandings and language items: all the tasks and

activities designed should be interrelated and organised following a specific pattern.

8-English language teaching material should be attractive: teacher-produced materials should be attractive as regards physical appearance, user-friendliness, durability and ability to be reproduced.

9- English language teaching material should have appropriate instructions: instructions should be clear, simple, short, to the point and one at the time.

10- English language teaching material should be flexible: These materials should be flexible in terms of content. They should offer a wide range of possibilities from which students can choose from.

After having read this article for the first time, I immediately considered it to be a must-read piece of writing as it is clear, brief and to the point. Many times we decide to design materials but we need some guidelines in order to create appropriate, practical and suitable tasks for the particular group of students we are working with.

All in all, before designing our own materials, we should weigh up its pros and cons, keeping in mind some factors, guidelines and, above all, always maintaining the focus on our objectives and our students.

Examples of Materials

Principle of Language Acquisition 1

This involves us at the beginning of every lesson reading a poem or story, or telling a joke or anecdote. There are no questions or tasks after the listening, just written copies of the text for those students who were engaged by it to take home, read and file away. The students are encouraged to ask me questions about the texts at any time and to return to read the texts they have collected many times. I also use extensive reading, extensive listening and extensive viewing to help to apply this principle and I use a text-driven

approach to developing units of material in which an extensive text drives the skills and language activities of each unit.

Principle of Language Acquisition 2

In order for the learners to maximize, their exposure to language in use they need to be engaged both affectively and cognitively in the language experience. If the learners do not think and feel whilst experiencing the language, they are unlikely to acquire any elements of it. Thinking whilst experiencing language in use helps to achieve the deep processing required for effective and durable learning and it helps learners to transfer high-level skills such as predicting, connecting, interpreting and evaluating to second language use. If the learners do not feel any emotion whilst exposed to language in use, they are unlikely to acquire anything from their experience. Feeling enjoyment, pleasure and happiness, feeling empathy, being amused, being excited and being stimulated are most likely to influence acquisition positively but feeling annoyance, anger, fear, opposition and sadness is more useful than feeling nothing at all. Ideally, though the learner should be experiencing positive affect in the sense of being confident, motivated and willingly engaged even when experiencing 'negative' emotions. There is a substantial literature on the value of affective and cognitive engagement whilst engaged in responding to language in use, with much of it focusing on research into the role of emotion in language learning and use or reporting research on cognitive engagement during language lessons.

Principles of Materials Development

1. Prioritize the potential for engagement by, for example, basing a unit on a text or a task, which is likely to achieve affective and cognitive engagement, rather than on a teaching point selected from a syllabus.
2. Make use of activities, which get the learners to think about what they are reading or listening to and to respond to it personally.
3. Make use of activities, which get learners to think and feel before during and after using the target language for communication.

Examples of Materials

Using a text-driven approach in which the starting point for developing each unit is a potentially engaging spoken or written text. First devise readiness activities, which help the learners to activate their minds prior to experiencing the text; give the learners an holistic focus to think about when experiencing the text and invite them to articulate their personal responses to the text before going on to use it to stimulate their own language production.

Principle of Language Acquisition 3

Language learners who achieve positive affect are much more likely to achieve communicative competence than those who do not. Language learners need to be positive about the target language, about their learning environment, about their teachers, about their fellow learners and about their learning materials. They also need to achieve positive self-esteem and to feel that they are achieving something worthwhile. Above all, they need to be emotionally involved in the learning process and to respond by laughing, getting angry, feeling sympathy, feeling happy, feeling sad etc. Positive emotions seem to be the most useful in relation to language acquisition but it is much better to feel angry than to feel nothing at all.

Principles of Materials Development

1. Make sure the texts and tasks are as interesting, relevant and enjoyable as possible to exert a positive influence on the learners' attitudes to the language and to the process of learning it.
2. Set achievable challenges, which help to raise the learners' self-esteem when success is accomplished.
3. Stimulate emotive responses with music, song, literature, art etc., through making use of controversial and provocative texts, through personalization and through inviting learners to articulate their feelings about a text before asking them to analyze it.

Examples of Material

Offer the students choices of texts and of tasks and consult the students about the topics they would like to read about and discuss. This is what we should do on a national materials development project and we then respected the students' requests for texts on such provocative topics as drug abuse, teenage pregnancy and marital abuse.

Principle of Language Acquisition 4

L2 language learners can benefit from using those mental resources, which they typically utilize when acquiring and using their L1. In L1 learning and use learners typically make use of mental imaging (e.g. seeing pictures in their mind), of inner speech, of emotional responses, of connections with their own lives, of evaluations, of predictions, of personal interpretations. In L2 learning and use learners typically focus narrowly on linguistic decoding and encoding. Multi-dimensional representation of language experienced and used can enrich the learning process in ways which promote durable acquisition, the transfer from learning activities to real life use, the development of the ability to use the language effectively in a variety of situations for a variety of uses and the self-esteem which derives from performing in the L2 in ways as complex as they typically do in the L1. There is a considerable literature on the vital use of the inner voice in L1 and the infrequency of use of the inner voice in the L2. What the literature demonstrates is that in the L1 we use the inner voice to give our own voice to what we hear and read, to make plans, to make decisions, to solve problems, to evaluate, to understand and 'control' our environment and to prepare our voice utterances before saying or writing them.

When talking to ourselves we use a restricted code, which consists of short elliptical utterances expressed in simple tenses with the focus on the comment rather than the topic, on the predicate rather than the subject. It is context and context dependent, implicit, partial, vague, novel and salient to ourselves. However, L2 users rarely use an L2 inner voice until they reach an advanced level – though there is evidence that the use of an L2 inner voice at lower levels can enhance L2 performance and can be facilitated by teachers and materials. There is also a considerable literature on the role of visual imaging in language use and acquisition. It demonstrates that visual imaging plays a very important role in L1 learning and use, that it tends not to be used by L2 learners and that L2 learners can be trained to use visual imaging to improve their learning and use of the L2.

Principles of Materials Development

1. Make use of activities, which get learners to visualize and/or use inner speech before during and after experiencing a written or spoken text.

2. Make use of activities, which get learners to visualize and/or use inner speech before during and after using language themselves.
3. Make use of activities which help the learners to reflect on their mental activity during a task and then to try to make more use of mental strategies in a similar task.

Examples of Materials

We should build into all our materials activities, which encourage and help the students to visualize, to talk to themselves in inner speech and to make connections with their lives. For example, before asking the students to read a poem about a boy's first day at school I asked the students to visualize their own first day at school and then to talk to themselves about how they felt.

Principle of Language Acquisition 5

Language learners can benefit from noticing salient features of the input. If learners notice for themselves how a particular language item or feature is used, they are more likely to develop their language awareness and they are also more likely to achieve readiness for acquisition. Such noticing is most salient when a learner has been engaged in a text affectively and cognitively and then returns to it to investigate its language use. This is likely to lead to the learner paying more attention to similar uses of that item or feature in subsequent inputs and to increase its potential for eventual acquisition.

Principles of Materials Development

1. Use an experiential approach in which the learners are first provided with an experience, which engages them holistically. From this experience, they learn implicitly without focusing conscious attention on any particular features of the experience. Later they re-visit and reflect on the experience and pay conscious attention to features of it in order to achieve explicit learning. This enables the learners to apprehend before they comprehend and to sense before they explore. In addition, it means that when they focus narrowly on a specific feature of the text they are able to develop their discoveries in relation to their awareness of the full context of use.
2. Rather than drawing the learners' attention to a particular feature of a text and then providing explicit information about its use it is much more powerful to help the learners (preferably in collaboration) to make discoveries for themselves.

Examples of Materials

Use many language awareness materials in which the students experience a potentially engaging text, respond to it personally and then focus on a particular feature of the text in order to make discoveries about it. For example, the students read about a student whose parents gave him a graduation party. They then discussed the reasons why the parents gave him the party and the reasons he was reluctant to attend it. Next one half of the class analyzed the father's use of the interrogative and the other half analyzed the son's use of the imperative. They came together in groups to share their discoveries and then they wrote a version of the text in which the mother (rather than the father) tried to persuade the son to attend the party.

Principle of Language Acquisition 6

Learners need opportunities to use language to try to achieve communicative purposes. When using language in this way they are gaining feedback on the hypotheses they have developed because of generalizing on the language in their intake and on their ability to make use of them effectively. If they are participating in interaction, they are also being pushed to clarify and elaborate and they are likely to elicit meaningful and comprehensible input from their interlocutors.

Principles of Materials Development

1. Provide many opportunities for the learners to produce language in order to achieve intended outcomes.
2. Make sure that these output activities are designed so that the learners are using language rather than just practicing specified features of it.
3. Design output activities so that they help learners to develop their ability to communicate fluently, accurately, appropriately and effectively.
4. Make sure that the output activities are fully contextualized in that the learners are responding to an authentic stimulus (e.g. a text, a need, a viewpoint, an event), that they have specific addressees and that they have a clear intended outcome in mind.
5. Try to ensure that opportunities for feedback are built into output activities and are provided for the learners afterwards.

2. Factors to consider in designing materials

Teaching materials form an important part of most English teaching programs. From textbooks, videotapes and pictures to the Internet, teachers rely heavily on a diverse range of materials to support their teaching and their students' learning. However, despite the current rich array of English language teaching materials commercially available, many teachers continue to produce their own materials for classroom use. Indeed, most teachers spend considerable time finding, selecting, evaluating, adapting and making materials to use in their teaching. In the research, we synthesized a range of ideas from the literature on materials design. We considered why teachers might want to design their own teaching materials and looked at some of the advantages and disadvantages. We examined six factors that teachers need to take into account when considering designing their own materials; and finally we presented ten guidelines for designing effective English teaching materials.

Why English Language Teachers May Choose to Design their own Materials

Advantages

An important advantage of teacher-produced materials is **contextualization**. A key criticism of commercial materials, particularly those produced for the worldwide EFL market is that they are necessarily generic and not aimed at any specific group of learners or any particular cultural or educational context. The possible lack of 'fit' between teaching context and has been expressed thus: "Our modern coursebooks are full of speech acts and functions based on situations which most foreign-language students will never encounter. Appealing to the world market as they do, they cannot by definition draw on local varieties of English and have not gone very far in recognizing English as an international language, either." (Altan, 1995, p. 59). For many teachers, designing or adapting their own teaching materials, enables them to take into account their particular learning environment and to overcome the lack of 'fit' of the coursebook.

Another aspect of context is the resources available. Some teaching contexts will be rich in resources such as coursebooks, supplementary texts, readers,

computers, audio-visual equipment and consumables such as paper, pens and so on. Other contexts may be extremely impoverished, with little more than an old blackboard and a few pieces of chalk. A lack of commercial materials forces teachers to fall back on their own resources and designing their own teaching materials can enable them to make best use of the resources available in their teaching context. A further aspect that is not often mentioned in the literature is the cost of commercially produced resources. For many schools, teacher-produced materials can be the best option in terms of both school and student budget.

A second area in which teacher-designed materials are an advantage is that of **individual needs**. Modern teaching methodology increasingly emphasizes the importance of identifying and teaching to the individual needs of learners. English language classrooms are diverse places not only in terms of where they are situated, but also in terms of the individual learners within each context. Teacher-designed materials can be responsive to the heterogeneity inherent in the classroom. This approach encompasses the learners' first languages and cultures, their learning needs and their experiences. Few coursebooks deliberately incorporate opportunities for learners to build on the first language skills already acquired, despite research suggesting that bilingual approaches are most successful in developing second language competence (Thomas & Collier, 1997). A teacher can develop materials that incorporate elements of the learners' first language and culture, or at least provide opportunities for acknowledgement and use alongside English. In addition, teacher-prepared materials provide the opportunity to select texts and activities at exactly the right level for particular learners, to ensure appropriate challenge and levels of success.

In conclusion, the advantages of teacher-designed materials can be summed up in the idea that they avoid the 'one-size-fits-all' approach of most commercial materials.

Disadvantages

There are a number of potential pitfalls for teachers who would be materials designers. These can be considered under three headings, the first of which is

organization. Course books are usually organized around an identifiable principle and follow a discernible pattern throughout. While this can be rather dull and boring (or ‘unrelenting’) it does provide both teachers and students with some security and a “coherent body of work to remember and revise from” (Harmer, 2001, p. 7). In contrast, teacher-designed materials may lack overall coherence and a clear progression. Without some overall organizing principle, materials may be piecemeal and can result in poorly focused activities lacking clear direction. This is frustrating and confusing for learners who may not be able to see how their English is developing.

A further aspect of organization relates to the physical organization and storage of materials. Without a clearly thought through and well-organized system, teacher-produced materials may be difficult to locate for ongoing use, or may end up damaged or with parts missing.

Possibly the most common criticism levelled against teacher-made materials is to do with their **quality**. At the surface level, teacher-made materials may “seem ragged and unprofessional next to those produced by *professionals*” (Block, 1991, p. 212, emphasis in original). They may contain errors, be poorly constructed, lack clarity in layout and print and lack durability. Harmer probably speaks for many when he says, “If the alternative is a collection of scruffy photocopies, give me a well-produced coursebook any time” (2001, p. 7).

In addition, a lack of experience and understanding on the part of the teacher may result in important elements being left out or inadequately covered. Teacher-made materials may be produced to take advantage of authentic text. However, if not guided by clear criteria and some experience, teachers may make inconsistent or poor choices of texts. A further problem may be a lack of clear instructions about how to make effective use of the materials - particularly instructions designed for students.

Yet another disadvantage of teacher-made materials, and perhaps the key factor inhibiting many teachers from producing their own teaching materials, is **time**. However passionately one may believe in the advantages of teacher-designed

materials, the reality is that for many teachers, it is simply not viable - at least not all the time.

Factors to Consider When Designing Materials

We turn now to consider six key factors that teachers need to take into account when embarking on the design of teaching materials for their learners. These relate to, and refer back to some of the advantages and disadvantages. Some will also be expanded further in the guidelines, which follow.

The first and most important factor to be considered is the **learners**. If the point of teacher-created materials is relevance, interest, motivation and meeting specific individual needs, then clearly teachers must ensure they know their learners well. Any consideration of syllabus or materials design must begin with a needs analysis. This should reveal learning needs with regard to English language skills in listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary knowledge and grammar; as well as individual student's learning preferences. It is not just learning needs that are relevant to the teacher as materials designer, however. Equally important is knowledge about students' experiences (life and educational), their first language and levels of literacy in it, their aspirations, their interests and their purposes for learning English.

The **curriculum and the context** are variables that will significantly influence decisions about teaching materials. Many teachers are bound by a mandated curriculum defining the content, skills and values to be taught. Whether imposed at school or state level, a curriculum outlines the goals and objectives for the learners and the course of study. Whatever the curriculum, it is the teacher's responsibility to ensure that the goals and objectives of the overarching curriculum are kept close at hand when designing materials (Nunan, 1988).

As noted earlier, the context in which the teaching and learning occurs will impact on the types of materials that may need to be designed. For example, a primary-level mainstream, English-speaking setting, with a set curriculum and access to native speakers may require materials that facilitate interaction about subject content, and develop cognitive academic language proficiency. However, refugee

adults may need teaching materials that focus on meeting immediate survival needs and gaining employment.

The **resources and facilities** available to the teacher-designer are also mentioned above as an element of context. Clearly, teachers must be realistic about what they can achieve in terms of materials design and production within the limitations of available resources and facilities. Access to resources such as computers (with or without Internet access), a video player and TV, radio, cassette recorder, CD player, photocopier, language lab., digital camera, whiteboard, OHP, scissors, cardboard, laminator etc. will impact on decisions in materials design. Hadfield and Hadfield (2003) offer some useful suggestions for ‘resourceless’ teaching which address the impoverished reality of some teaching contexts.

Personal confidence and competence are factors that will determine an individual teacher’s willingness to embark on materials development. The teacher’s level of teaching experience and his or her perceived creativity or artistic skills and overall understanding of the principles of materials design and production will influence this. In reality, most teachers undertake materials design to modify, adapt or supplement a coursebook, rather than starting from scratch, and this is probably the most realistic option for most teachers. Decisions available to teachers include the following (adapted from Harmer, 2001 and Lamie, 1999):

1. Add activities to those already suggested.
2. Leave out activities that do not meet your learners’ needs.
3. Replace or adapt activities or materials with:

Supplementary materials from other commercial texts

Authentic materials (newspapers, radio reports, films etc.)

Teacher-created supplementary materials.

4. Change the organizational structure of the activities, for example, pairs, small groups or whole class.

Modern technology provides teachers with access to tools that enable professional results in materials production. Computers with Clipart, Internet access and digital pictures offer unprecedented means for publishing high quality teaching materials.

A less exciting, but important factor to consider in designing materials is **copyright compliance**. Teachers need to be aware of the restrictions that copyright laws place on the copying of authentic materials, published materials and materials downloaded from the Internet for use in the classroom. This is particularly important when a large number of classes will use creating course materials that over time. Copyright law has implications when creating materials that include excerpts from published works. An example of this would be creating a worksheet that uses a picture or exercise from a commercial text, alongside teacher-created activities. While an idea cannot be copyright, the expression of the idea can be and teachers need to be mindful of this.

Time was discussed earlier as a disadvantage for teachers who wish to design their own materials. It is thus, important to consider ways to make this aspect manageable. Block (1991) suggests a number of ways in which teachers can lighten the load, including sharing materials with other teachers, working in a team to take turns to design and produce materials, and organizing central storage so materials are available to everyone.

Guidelines for Designing Effective English Teaching Materials

Teacher designed materials may range from one-off, single use items to extensive programs of work where the tasks and activities build on each other to create a coherent progression of skills, concepts and language items. The guidelines that follow may act as a useful framework for teachers as they navigate the range of factors and variables to develop materials for their own teaching situations. The guidelines are offered as just that - guidelines - not rules to be rigidly applied or adhered to. While not all the guidelines will be relevant or applicable in all materials design scenarios, overall they provide for coherent design and materials, which enhance the learning experience.

Lecture 19

Planning the lesson

1. The features of the EL lesson.

2. Types of lessons and forms of interaction in EL lesson.
3. EL lesson planning.
4. Structure of the EL lesson plan.
5. Independent work and learning.

Key terms: EL lesson, the features of the lesson, requirements to the lesson, structure of the lesson, cycle of lessons, stages of the lesson, types of the lesson, forms of classroom interaction, approaches to organizing the lesson, model of lessons, language atmosphere, phonetic drill, planning, types of plans, principles of planning, independent work and learning, autonomy.

1. The features of the EL lesson

A lesson is a unit of a teaching process and the main form of organization of the teaching process. Conducting a lesson is shaped as a collective interrelated activity. The goal of each lesson is an important part of the final goal. Understanding of a lesson goal should be relied on the main important particularities: 1) teaching speech activities as a real process of communication and 2) complexity.

Only one goal makes the lesson logical. Besides of a leading goal the lesson has accompanied tasks. It is not appropriate to define a goal of some lesson irrelatively with the whole system of lessons. For example, the task of a cycle of lessons can be developing speaking, listening and reading skills on a certain theme, language and speech material. The theme cannot be changed during the series of lessons. But a language material and type of speech activity can be a new one. That's why the goal of each lesson is defined with new skills, which are being developed within a concrete lesson, or within a system of lessons. The whole teaching process is built on the basis of speech themes. Exactly the theme in accordance with the content-communicative principle defines the cycle of lessons. A material is distributed in accordance with the stages of developing the necessary skills. Such planning allows a teacher to realize perspectives for the further work. The result of such a cycle working is a qualitatively new stage in developing communicative skills.

It is necessary to realize the capacity of teaching/learning material in the frame of a cycle. Given the above purpose we should 1) define words and structures, which must be learned within a quantum of time for developing required skills; 2) select situations and patterns, following the necessary grammar and vocabulary units, which are typical, meaningful and frequently used within this theme; 3) select a material for practice and production (tasks and activities, their sequence) for developing communicative skills.

The cycle can consist of 3-6 lessons (the early stage – 2-3 lessons, 5-9 forms – 5-6 lessons). All capacity of the work is distributed into the cycle. For illustration the sample of distribution of the teaching material is shown.

Lesson1: Presentation of a new theme; new vocabulary; structures; or stimulus for conversation; the text for listening with questions. A new material is presented by the teacher and repeated by students. It is recommended to present a new material at the

beginning of the lesson, because it gives an opportunity to have time for practice this material and assess the learners' achievements.

Lesson2: Working on a grammar material and skimming reading.

Lesson 3: Active working on speech (dialogues, conversation, and retelling; making analogous text; creating a text on the basis of several texts).

Lesson4: Lesson for revision – transmission into writing, summarizing the lesson, writing a composition as a homework.

Thus the goal of the lesson determines the character of homework, because well formulated goal of the lesson is the result and the homework proposes only what we teach during the lesson. The goal also determines the selection of tasks and activities. Exercises are built on the principle «from simplicity to complicity». Besides the lesson content should be realized on the basis of the interrelation principle with the different subject matters.

A successful lesson depends on the kinds of interactions a teacher creates during the lesson. This can include opportunities for interactions between the teacher and the class as well as interactions among the students themselves. There are four possible ways to arrange a class, with each offering different learning potentials: whole-class teaching, individual work, group work, and pair work (See Table 23). A lesson may begin with a whole-class activity and then move to pair, group, or individual work. When planning a teacher needs to consider when the whole-class teaching is appropriate and when the teacher should make the transition to other types of learning in order to promote student-to-student interaction and allow students to work on tasks at their own pace.

Table 23. Forms of interaction

Whole-class teaching. This mode of teaching involves teaching all the students together. Arrangement of a lesson for whole-class teaching depends on the type of a lesson a teacher is teaching and on the particular stage of the lesson. Whole-class, teacher-fronted teaching can serve to focus students' attention quickly on a learning task. When carefully carried out, it can lead to the quick and effective achievement of lesson objectives, since time management is maximally under the teacher's control.

Individual work. It is necessary to point out at a lesson where students can best work individually, such as when they are reading or listening to a text, or completing written exercises in a textbook or workbook. Individual work allows students to work at their own pace and to work on activities suited to their proficiency level or interests; having learners work on their own also allows a teacher to provide them with individual support and/or assistance. In planning individual work, a teacher needs to consider how well students understand what is expected of them and whether the task provides adequate challenge, support, and motivation to sustain their interests.

Pair work. Pair work provides opportunities for sustained interaction and has long been recommended as a key means of promoting both accuracy and fluency

in language use. Grouping students in pairs can take into consideration their ability level, language and cultural background, and other factors that will facilitate a positive approach to learning. Students who are not familiar with this learning arrangement may need careful orientation and preparation for pair-work activities.

Group work. Group-based learning is widely used in all forms of teaching and significantly changes the interactional dynamics of the classroom. In language classes, it increases students' talking time, helps promote self-esteem, and can increase student motivation by providing a risk-free environment for language practice.

The modern requirements to the EL lesson are shown in the Table 24.

Table 24. The modern requirements to the EL lesson

| Requirements | Interpretation |
|---|---|
| 1. Goal -oriented | Each of the lessons must provide achievement of educational, practical, bringing up and development aims through solving the certain objectives. |
| 2. Content-value | Selecting of the meaningful and relevant teaching material, adequacy of techniques and exercises to the teaching objectives and optimal correlation of practice and production |
| 3. Activity of students during the lesson | The inner and outer activity of students during the lesson must take the form of speech-mental activity related to the speech initiativeness. |
| 4. Motivation-provided | Understanding the success of ELL by students and seeing their dynamic progress in ELL. |
| 5. Variety of used stimulus at the lesson | Using different verbal and visual stimulus for involving students into communication. The preference is given to the real-life activities with audio-visual supporters. |
| 6. Correspondence of verbal and non-verbal behavior to the teaching goal, content and conditions. | From the position of verbal behavior the teacher carries out the function of the important means of teaching EL, quasi-bringer of the EL. From the position of non-verbal behavior the teacher plays the role of an organizer, instructor, producer, actor, designer, operator, etc. |
| 7. Using up-to-date technologies | The teacher must organize the teaching process on the basis of different up-to-date technologies (interactive, information-telecommunication technologies ant others). |

| | |
|-------------------------------|---|
| 8. Achievement of the result. | The goal and objectives put at the beginning of the lesson must be achieved at the end of the lesson. |
|-------------------------------|---|

Pedagogical mastering is seen in the careful and hard preparation to the lesson and deep self-analysis of his/her activity, study and summarizing of teaching experience and implementation the progressive experience into practice of ELT. For this the teacher needs a guider and assessor which helps him/her evaluate own and others' lessons. That's why the above requirements can be put into the scheme of the analysis of the EL lesson.

1.2. The structure of the EL lesson and types of lessons

There is no general scheme of the lesson structure which can be obligatory for all lessons. Some of the stages of a lesson are constant, others can be varied. A constant stage of a lesson is an involving into language atmosphere. This stage includes various tasks or activities. One of them is a phonetic drill. The atmosphere of communication created at the beginning of the lesson can last during the whole lesson. The dominant place is given to the teacher's communicative action related to motivation, instructions, control and evaluation.

These stages are considered as reasonable from methodical point of view:

1. Involving into the language atmosphere;
2. Explanation of the new material and algorithm of operations and actions with it;
3. Doing exercises as practicing and activating the new material;
4. Writing down and explanation of the homework, summarizing the lesson's results and marking.

In the domestic methodology the following types of the lesson are distinguished⁴¹:

1) The lessons are directed to acquire a) language elements on lexical, phonetic and grammatical levels and language use as a result of this type of a lesson is obtaining the linguistic competence.

2) The lessons are directed to acquire communicative activity. The aim of this type of a lesson is developing listening, reading, speaking and writing skills.

3) The lessons which combine previous types of lessons are directed to acquire knowledge, language sub-skills and communicative skills. In the practice of teaching the preference is given more to this type of a lesson.

Besides in methodology of FLT the different lesson organization approaches as teaching models are used: 1) Presentation -> Practice -> Production (PPP); 2) Engage -> Study -> Activate (ESA); Test -> Teach -> Test (TTT); 4) Task-based approach (TBA).

1. PPP works through the progression of three sequential stages. **Presentation stage** represents the introduction to a lesson, and necessarily requires the creation of a realistic (or realistic-feeling) «situation» requiring the target language to be learned that can be achieved through using pictures, dialogues, imagination or actual «classroom

⁴¹ Jalalov J.J. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi. Foreign Language Teaching Methodology. -T.: O'qituvchi, 2012. -P321-322.

situations». The teacher checks to see that the students understand the nature of the situation and then he/she builds the «concept» underlying the language to be learned using small chunks of the language that the students already know. Having understood the concept, students are then given the language «model» and engage in choral drills to learn statement, answer and question forms for the target language. This is a very teacher-orientated stage where error correction is important.

It is necessary to take into consideration that at the presentation stage of the lesson *eliciting* is a useful way of involving the class by focusing students' attention and making them think; it establishes what students know and what they do not know; and it encourages students to make guesses and to work out rules for themselves. For example, eliciting can be organized on the basis of a picture, or a headline of the text as a pre-reading activity.

The second stage – Practice usually begins with what is termed «mechanical practice» - open and closed pair-work. Students gradually move into more «communicative practice» involving procedures like information gap activities, dialogue creation and controlled role-plays. Practice is seen as the frequency device to create familiarity and confidence with the new language, and a measuring stick for accuracy. Thus, learners have **practice** making sentences with new words and structures. The teacher still directs and corrects at this stage, but the classroom is beginning to become more learner-centered.

The third stage – Production is seen as the culmination of the language learning process, whereby the learners have started to become independent *users* of the language rather than *students* of the language. The teacher's role here is to somehow facilitate a realistic situation or activity where the students instinctively feel the need to actively apply the language they have been practicing. The teacher does not correct or become involved unless students directly appeal to him/her to do so. At the stage of **production** learners talk more freely about the known and unknown information/situation. This model is effective for teaching a simple language at low levels.

The PPP approach is relatively straight forward, and structured enough to be easily understood by both students and new or emerging teachers. It is a good place to start in terms of applying good communicative language teaching in the classroom. It has also been criticized considerably for the very characteristic that makes it the easiest method for 'beginner' teachers, that is, that it is far too teacher-orientated and over controlled.

2. A nice alternative to 'PPP' is Harmer's 'ESA' (Engage -> Study-> Activate) based on surveys which have shown that the conditions for successful LL are motivation, exposure to language and chances to use it.

In the **Engage** stage, a teacher motivate learners and arise their interest by involving their emotion through using games, music, discussions, stimulating pictures, dramatic stories, anecdotes, etc. Other ways of encouraging the learners are: asking them what they think about a topic (predicting, guessing) before reading the text. If learners are engaged they learn better.

In the **Study** stage a teacher focuses on vocabulary and constructions or information. Successful language teaching/learning depends on the degree of quality

language acquisition (getting language knowledge or skills through listening and reading), for example, and study activities organized by a teacher.

Activate is the stage where learners use the language knowledge and skills in given situations. These three stages can be varied, they are not constant. Variation is even recommended for effective teaching/learning EL.

3. Model «Test -> Teach -> Test». TTT is a frequently used alternative to the PPP method, wherein the production phase is sequentially moved to the first part of the lesson. During the (first) **test phase** that corresponds to the production phase in the PPP approach, learners are more or less abruptly asked to communicatively produce a language concept based on their existing knowledge and without any prior guidance from the teacher. The teacher will then assess the students' level of competency in the particular language area, determine their needs, and proceed with the teach phase (which corresponds to the presentation phase in the PPP approach) based on an overall assessment. **The teach phase** allows to discuss problem areas and guide learners towards the correct use of the language concept.

The final stage of the TTT approach is the **second test** that aims to check how students have absorbed the new inputs from the teacher. The logic of this sequencing is for students to learn the new language concepts better by differentiating its invalid uses (most likely to be committed during the first test phase) from correct usage (likely to be accomplished after the teacher presented the language concept during the teach phase).

In general, the TTT approach is a good way for teachers to determine the specific needs of students in different language areas. With this knowledge, educators can optimize their teaching strategies to produce optimum learning outcomes. It is best used at intermediate and higher competency levels, as well as in classes where the students have mixed language proficiencies. However, one consistent criticism about the TTT approach is that it has an element of randomness since several unexpected learners' needs may arise that is beyond the scope of the intended lesson. Despite this disruptive possibility, the TTT approach is still being adopted by many educators because it is very «economical» and «focused» in the sense that valuable time need not be wasted on teaching language areas students are already proficient with.

4. Task-based model /approach. TBA is a good alternative to either the PPP approach or the TTT method. In TBA-structured classes, teachers do not pre-determine the language specifics to study but base their lesson strategies on how a central task is completed by the learners. Similar to the other two approaches, TBA follows a sequential progression: 1) a pre-task introduction to be conducted by the teacher; 2) the learners' completion of a central task involving a particular language aspect; 3) reporting, analysis and feedback to be performed by the teacher concerning how the learners accomplished the central task; and 4) practice sessions to hone learner proficiencies in the language area.

The task-based approach is advocated by many educators because of several clear advantages. For one thing, TBA allows learners to employ all their language resources towards the completion of a task and not just pre-selected language areas as in the case of PPP. In addition, TBA utilizes natural, real-life language contexts that are highly relevant to learners. Hence, language exploration and learning directly arises from

students' actual needs and not as suggested in textbooks. TBA is also based on the premise that a holistic exposure to language – as opposed to incremental exposures common to PPP – is a better way of learning a new language.

A good EL lesson consists of much more than a series of activities and exercises that the teacher has strung together to occupy classroom time – and it involves much more than simply presenting the material in the current EL textbook. EL teaching is not only a field of practical activity but also a discipline that draws on a considerable body of knowledge and practice. Every lesson of a teacher should reflect a solid understanding of the nature of the language, of the EL learning and teaching, and of his/her learners – taking into account their needs as well as their learning styles and preferences.

1.3. EL lesson planning

The important condition of effectiveness of ELT is planning of teachers and students activity for a lesson and a system of lessons. In the practice of teaching EL at the lesson, thematic and perspective planning are distinguished.

The aim of EL *lesson planning* is to define the content of the lesson and algorithm of operations and actions of the teacher and learners.

Thematic plan is enveloped as a serial number of lessons. As a rule, it is one of the themes of communication, which includes itself also vocabulary, grammar and country-study material.

Perspective planning defines the system of a teacher and students activity for the whole stage of ELT.

There are different principles of lesson planning. The most important among them are variety, flexibility, examining the subject matter from the learners' point of view, considering individual differences, language backgrounds and past experience⁴².

1. *Variety* means involving learners in a number of different types of activities and using a wide selection of material to motivate learners.

2. *Flexibility* comes into play, when dealing with the plan in the classroom, for a number of reasons a teacher should have an opportunity to change the plan in accordance with the situation which can take place during teaching.

3. *Examination* of the subject matter from the learners' point of view – the teacher should examine teaching material and reveal its appropriateness to learners and difficulties for acquiring this material by learners. During planning a teacher adapt material and defines ways of overcoming these difficulties.

4. *Consideration* of individual differences presupposes that learners have different abilities to learn the language under apparently the same conditions of learning. This fact should be taking into consideration in planning. This principle is known in the domestic methodology as individualization and differentiation of teaching.

5. Language backgrounds and past experience – before designing a teacher should reveal what prior knowledge, abilities and skills the learners have.

⁴² See: Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. -Romania: Polirom, 2003. - P. 83-84.

Designing the lesson and outlining its plan is an essential part of the teaching process. All EL teachers – regardless of training, experience, or competency – need a carefully drawn lesson plan in order to assist their learners in attaining learning objectives, both on a daily basis as well as the long-term. Having a lesson plan is like having a complete and clear visualization of how a learning session is to take place and how learners are able to grasp and retain the lesson concepts.

The importance of lesson plans in EL education is difficult to overstate. EL teachers simply need to visualize daily lessons in advance and build the most appropriate teaching strategies into a comprehensive lesson plan. Otherwise, going to class without an adequate preparation will most likely be detrimental to both the teachers and their learners. Having a lesson plan and effectively using it as a guide for daily teaching will reflect a teacher’s professionalism and reliability. Teachers also present themselves as good role models for their learners who will come to appreciate the value of coming to class prepared and primed to achieve the lesson targets.

If a teacher is new to teaching, a lesson plan is basically just a step-by-step guide on how the teacher intends to present a lesson and the ways by which learners are expected to learn and appreciate the lessons various concepts. An excellent lesson plan is one that can be easily and effectively used by another teacher in a job place. This means that the ideal lesson plan is both clear and comprehensive.

1.4. Structure of the EL lesson plan

The details and elements of lesson plans are varied in accordance with the specific format mandated by a school, lyceum and college. However, the common components of a good lesson plan include the following items:

| |
|--|
| Lesson’s Theme. |
| The period of time (in minutes, hours, days, or weeks) necessary to complete the lesson. |
| Class details (class name or section, age, skill level, etc.) |
| The lesson objectives. |
| Instructional approach(es) to be used (this section describes the sequence of learning events as well as the techniques the teacher will use in helping students achieve the lesson objectives). |
| Instructional materials (such as a film, an image gallery, a music video, etc.). |
| Summary of and derived conclusions from the lesson. |
| Methods for practicing the lesson concepts. |
| Evaluation and testing methods to be used. |
| Contingency plans or elements (This section describes subsidiary topics or additional techniques and materials that can be used to either fortify the learning gains generated during the session or productively fill up excess time. Fun and engaging, seat work, dialogues, and other activities are ideal for this section). |

Unless a specific lesson plan format is required by the learning type of institution, most EL practitioners tailor their lesson plans according to the teaching philosophies or techniques they believe in or are most comfortable with. In general, however, excellent EL lesson plans have common characteristics that a teacher should integrate in his/her own teaching strategies:

1) Ideal lesson plans have a concise summary that fits on a single page. The detailed plan proper may – and often – exceeds this number, but the idea is to allow anyone to have a quick overview of the lesson.

2) Great lesson plans are organized in a way that is easy and a delight to follow.

3) Lesson plans should be strongly aligned with the needs and learning competencies of their intended audience.

4) Each individual lesson plan should adhere to a continuity of lesson concepts and should not only fit in the curriculum but also reflect the overall vision of the subject.

5) EL Lesson plans should establish platforms for learners to apply language learning to real-world situations.

In EL education lesson plans are crucial even in purely conversational classes. In order to establish an environment that encourages high quality learning and draws non-native speakers to articulate themselves extensively, adequate preparation is of paramount importance. Having a haphazardly designed plan is also inexcusable.

The most important for teachers is to define aims and objectives of a lesson. At the beginning of the lesson planning a teacher should answer the following questions: 1) What language and speech material will students learn within this lesson? 2) What do they know and are able or unable to do before the beginning of the lesson and what results they are able to achieve at the end of the lesson?

Answering the first question a teacher formulates the aim of the lesson, whereas the answer to the second question gives a teacher the objectives.

Then a teacher should answer the following questions⁴³:

1. What kind of language-learning opportunities does the lesson provide?

2. How many opportunities are there for learners to practice meaningful use of the language?

3. Who has most of the opportunities for language use during the lesson – the teacher or the students?

4. Do all of the students participate in the lesson, or will some students have more opportunities for participation and practice than others?

The structure of a lesson is determined by how a teacher deals with three essential stages of a lesson: opening, sequencing, and closing⁴⁴.

1. Opening. This phase of the lesson serves primarily to focus the learners' attention on the aims of the lesson, to make links to previous learning, to arouse interest

⁴³ Richards J.C., Bohlke D. Creative effective language Lessons. – CUP, 2011. // www.cambridge.org/oyjer_files5/

⁴⁴ See in detail: Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. - Romania: Polirom, 2003; Richards J.C., Bohlke D. Creative effective language Lessons. - CUP, 2011. // www.cambridge.org/oyjer_files5/

in the lesson, to activate background knowledge, or to preview language or strategies learners may need to understand in order to complete activities at the lesson.

2. Sequencing. A lesson is normally devoted to more than one type of activity, and teachers often have a «script» or preferred sequence that they follow when teaching a particular type of a lesson (speaking, listening, reading or writing lessons). A common lesson sequence found in many traditional language classes consists of a sequence of activities referred to as PPP and other approaches.

In communicative language teaching lessons often begin with *accuracy-based activities* and move toward *fluency-based activities*.

Reading lessons often follow a format consisting of *Pre-reading*, *While-reading*, and *Post-reading* activities.

Listening lessons follow a similar format.

Conversation lessons often begin with controlled practice activities, such as dialogue practice, and move toward open-ended activities, such as role plays. Lessons based on a task-based approach often follow a sequence consisting of *Pre-task activities*, a *task cycle*, the *language focus*, and a *Follow-up task*.

The lesson sequence depends on principles such as «easier before more difficult activities,» «receptive before productive skills,» or «accuracy activities before fluency activities.» Planning a lesson a teacher should handle the transitions between the different sequences of the lesson.

3. Closing. The closing phase of a lesson is also an important part of a lesson sequence. Ideally, it should leave the students with a feeling that they have successfully achieved the goal they set for themselves or that had been established for the lesson, and that the lesson was worthwhile and meaningful. At the end of a lesson, it is usually valuable to summarize what the lesson has tried to achieve, to reinforce the points of the lesson, to suggest a follow-up work as appropriate, and to prepare students for what will follow. It is always important to praise the students for their effort and performance. During the closing stage, students may raise issues or problems that they would like to discuss or resolve; at this time, a teacher may also encourage them to ask him/her for suggestions concerning how they can improve.

Planning for transitions involves thinking about how the momentum of the lesson will be maintained during a transition – for example, while moving from a whole-class activity to a group-work activity; another issue that teachers need to consider is what students should do between transitions – for example, if some students complete an activity before the others.

Teachers generally enjoy their time in the classroom, and teaching from one perspective is a kind of performance. However, according to R. Senior⁴⁵ it is important to remember that «performing» is not the key goal of teaching. Facilitating students' performance is a more important goal. One way of increasing the amount of students' participation during a lesson is to vary the grouping arrangements that a teacher uses; in this way, the teacher does not always dominate the lesson. The use of pair work and

⁴⁵ Senior R. The experience of language teaching. - New York: Cambridge University Press, 2006.

group work is one method that has been shown to ensure that students participate actively at a lesson.

1.5. Independent work and learning

Nowadays the role of an independent work (learning) at all stages of education is increasing. One of the organizational forms of teaching is independent work (self-study) run out of direct contact with a teacher (homework, laboratory work) or run under control of the teacher and run through teaching material and monitoring by the teacher (distance learning). Independent work is the important part in ELT, because 30 % of teaching and learning time is given to the independent work. The teacher must 1) understand the goal of independent work and the final result of ELT at a certain level; 2) know the procedure of independent work. Independent work can be conducted in the classroom and out-of-classroom in the written and oral form. Independent work can be organized as an individual work, or pair and group work.

It is known that independent work activates students' cognitive activity making learning process more successful and developing self-learning abilities of learners.

J. Rubin investigated what 'good language learners' did to facilitate their learning and identified some of their learning strategies, 'the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge'⁴⁶. The teacher's job is not only to teach EL, but to teach learning, because students need training in learning strategies.

The aim of the teacher is 1) to select the content of ELT, 2) to provide rational organization of students' self-learning, 3) to develop students' self-learning strategies. Each student uses the source of information depending on his/her needs and capabilities, he/she works in own tempo to come to some result. That's why an independent work shapes flexible form of organization and contributes increasing responsibility of each student for the results of education.

Independent work correlates with learners' autonomy as ability to take charge of one's own learning. Autonomous learners understand the purpose and process of learning and are able to choose from available tools and resources to create a productive learning environment. We should promote learner autonomy for the purpose of transforming dependent and passive learners. For this aim teachers should encourage students to be more self-motivated and continue learning outside the classroom so they can be personally responsible for acquiring English. The teacher promotes autonomous behavior by suggesting curricular and extracurricular activities, focusing first on those that students are already engaged in. For example, the teacher may ask students to try such English activities as writing a letter to pen pals, reading newspapers, magazines; listening to the radio; watching movies, surfing the Internet; talking with foreigners, practicing conversation with friends, studying in groups, attendance of English clubs.

It is necessary for development students' independent learning:

- to become aware of the purpose of activity and all tasks;
- to know the procedure of tasks doing;
- to be able to use different aids for tasks doing;

⁴⁶ Rubin J. What the «good language learner» can teach us.// TESOL Quarterly 9. -P. 43.

- to be able to see the visual and verbal supporters in the material of the task to overcome the difficulties;

- to provide the appropriate conditions for task doing.

Teachers can train students to take charge of every stage of their independent learning, which includes:

- setting goals;

- identifying and developing strategies to achieve such goals;

- developing study plans;

- reflecting on learning (which includes identifying problem areas and the means of addressing these problems);

- identifying and selecting relevant resources and support;

- assessing one's own progress (which includes a certain criteria for evaluating performance and learning).

Independent work can be organized as individual work, in pair work, small group and with whole class. These organizational forms call upon to create and develop a set of organizational, information, cognitive and communicative skills which provide moving to language proficiency and learning strategies integratively.

Questions:

1. What features of EL lesson can you say about?
2. What do we mean by the cycle of lessons?
3. What are requirements claimed to the FL lesson organization?
4. Name the forms of interaction. What forms of interaction are more successful in communicative language learning?
5. Does the lesson plan help you to organize effectively teaching process?
6. How much better will be your lesson if you use visual aids?

Tasks:

1. Work in pair. Analyse the given teaching models (approaches for lesson organization)?
2. Discuss in the small group students' errors, repetition drills, explaining grammar rules and using English in the classroom.
3. Imagine that you are a teacher. Do you give students a chance to practice the correct forms?
4. Think of one good student and one weaker student in the class. What do you do to improve a weak student language performance?
5. Read and think why the given items are essential for teachers and learners from the position of planning⁴⁷.

| For a teacher | For learners |
|---------------|--------------|
|---------------|--------------|

⁴⁷ The items taken from the book: Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. -Romania: Polirom, 2003. - P. 79.

| | |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - ensures efficient language teaching: - helps avoid inadequate, improvise or useless activities; - gives a picture of how much you have done and how much remains to be done; - tells what changes you should make when you teach the lesson again a year later or the same year, to another class of learners; - enriches experience in organization and administration. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - encourages them to progress gradually; - avoids boredom or lack of interest; - avoids wasting time and effort; - contributes significantly to their systematic knowledge, linguistic ability and their maturity; |
|--|---|

6. Analyze one of the EL textbooks used at school, lyceum and college, and describe the following items: a) the aim of the lesson, b) the main stages of the lesson, c) the system of exercises.

Independent work:

1. Taking into consideration the age group abilities and class/course at school, or lyceum, or college work out a project of the lesson according to the following stages: 1) Introduction, 2) Reading; 3) Presentation; 4) Practice, 5) Production.

2. There are different activities in the table below. Write in the second column classes at school or courses at lyceum or college where we can use each activity thinking about its success and appropriateness to this age group. Choose the given activities for your lesson.

| Activities | Classes or courses at school, lyceum and college |
|---|--|
| 1. Learning activity done in class | 1. |
| 2. Listening a text | 2. |
| 3. Answering questions to a text | 3. |
| 4. Reading aloud | 4. |
| 5. Silent reading | 5. |
| 6. Repetition drill | 6. |
| 7. Substitution drills | 7. |
| 8. Question/answer practice (whole class) | 8. |
| 9. Oral practice in pair | 9. |
| 10. Guessing games | 10. |
| 11. Copying words/sentences | 11. |
| 12. Dictations | 12. |
| 13. Paragraph writing | 13. |
| 14. Role play | 14. |
| 15. Free discussion | 15. |
| 16. Correction of each other's work | 16. |

3. There are three views of the learning process: 1) learning by heart, 2) forming habits by drilling and repetition, 3) acquiring rules naturally through attempts to communicate. Read this information and think about effectiveness of the given instructions in the EL teaching and learning process.

Learning by heart. A traditional approach to learning by heart and a lot of people attempt to learn languages by learning set sentences, dialogues, and texts by heart. Learning by heart is likely to be most useful in learning things which are fixed and limited, and it is often found to be a useful way of mastering certain fixed items in a language, such as numerals or irregular past tense forms. The problem with learning by heart as a strategy for learning the whole of a language is that language is not something which is limited and finite; using a language involves understanding and producing an infinite variety of sentences. Having learned only a dialogue wouldn't be useful for language practice for pragmatic aims. Learning set sentences by heart may enable us to give a few fixed responses, but it is not likely to prepare us for this great variety of language acquisition what we need to understand and use. It seems clear that language is not something that we can «learn» in the same way that we might learn a poem or a set of instructions; it is not a body of knowledge but a set of skills, so 'learning a language' must mean learning to use those skills.

Forming habits. Another view of how language is learnt is to see it as developing a set of 'habits' which we learn by imitation and which gradually become automatic; in this view, language is seen as similar to more mechanical activities such as eating or swimming. Central to this view is the belief that children learn their first language by imitating their parents and by reinforcement on the part of the parents (the parents «reward» correct sentences by responding positively to them). This view of language learning is associated with the behaviorist school of psychology and is reflected in the audio-lingual approach to LT, which was popular in the 1950s and 1960s. Applied to learning a FL, it emphasizes the importance of repetition and drilling; and as language is thought to be learnt by repeating correct sentences, it is considered important for students to avoid making errors.

Acquiring rules. This view sees language as a system of rules. Learning a language involves being exposed to samples of language that we can understand; from this we can acquire the rules of the language and apply them to make an unlimited number of original sentences. During the process of learning either our L1 or FL, the rules we apply will often be incomplete or slightly different from the actual rules of the language, and this will lead to errors. In this view, therefore, errors are a natural part of the acquisition process, and need not be completely avoided. It is important to clarify what we mean by 'acquiring the rules' of a language. It means being able to *apply* the rules (in other words, to understand and use the language correctly); it does not necessarily mean knowing how to explain the rules (in other words, to talk about the language). All native speakers of English «know» the differences between the Present Perfect and Past Tenses, in the sense that they use them correctly, but very few would be able to explain the differences; by contrast, some learners of English can explain the differences between the two tenses (they 'know' the rule) but they can not use the tenses correctly. It is, of course, applying the rules that are important in language this is an

entirely subconscious process. It may be that in learning a FL too the best way to acquire rules is subconsciously, by reading and listening to language, rather than by consciously ‘learning grammar’. All these are valid views of the ways in which language skills can be developed although the third is the most powerful. Demonstration and habit formation undoubtedly have a role to play if our aim is to develop the skills to communicate in unpredicted circumstances then we have to provide our learners with the opportunity to acquire the underlying rules of the language themselves.

4. To design a cycle of lessons on the environmental problems (animals) for vocational college a teacher can use the given macro-strategies in the box. This topic is an umbrella to focus students on vocabulary, information and its issues, discussion, learning about oral summaries (genre), using information from the oral summaries to become a participant in a simulated meeting designed to encourage problem-solving and negotiation for conflict resolution. Study the table and create the cycle of lessons. In the cycle of lessons news information about animals and movie fragments from «Free Willy» should be used.

| Macro-strategies | Explanation |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| 1. Maximize learning opportunities | At this lesson learning opportunities are maximized by organization of a number of learning tasks, organized from easiest to most difficult across the lesson. |
| 2. Facilitate negotiated interaction. | At this lesson, negotiated interaction occurs in the homework (summary writing) check, group quiz, discussions, summary check, simulation and debriefing. |
| 3. Minimize perceptual mismatches | At this lesson perceptual mismatches are minimized in initial stage through language-focus activities, building shares knowledge, and sharing of unique knowledge. However, for the students activity to minimize perceptual mismatches can be conducted through problem-solving and negotiation techniques, and finally through the debriefing and reflection process. |
| 4. Activate intuitive heuristics | At this lesson students are able to notice the differences in structural and genre choices in the new movie fragment (video), newspaper report, and the written piece which they summarize. Although all are dealing with the same topic they do it in different ways for different purposes. |
| 5. Foster language awareness | At this lesson fostering language awareness is achieved through vocabulary including idiom work, as well as through genre awareness work. |
| 6. Contextualize linguistic input | At this lesson linguistic input is contextualized initially through the topic represented by the video and then through simulation. It is also contextualized macro-linguistically through reference to genre. |
| 7. Integrate language | At this lesson language skills are integrated but also |

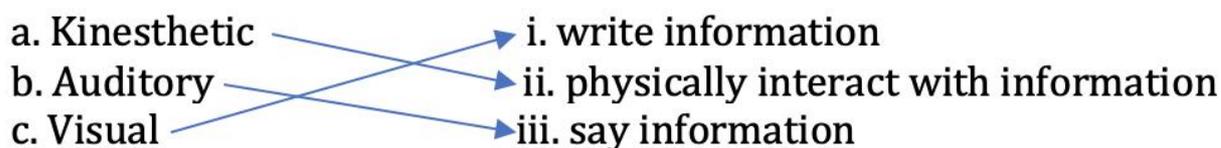
| | |
|----------------------------------|---|
| skills. | graded from easiest to most challenging. In terms of language outcomes students write definitions in English; use new words and idioms in sentences; record what they have seen; record what they have heard; answer comprehension questions; discuss; read and summarize; present their summaries orally to a group; listen to summaries; use the information gained from the summaries in a meeting format, negotiating until a solution is reached; reflect orally on their meeting experience and write about their reflections of that experience, as well as encountering several genres. |
| 8. Promote learner's autonomy. | This lesson attempts to promote learner's autonomy through language awareness activities; raising critical awareness abilities; exploring critical listening and explanatory abilities and awareness of conflict resolution skills. |
| 9. Raise cultural consciousness. | At this lesson students are exposed to the real-life drama of a movie star they know; they follow the story of the rehabilitation of a captured marine animal and understand the debate which has arisen world-wide about the capture and release of these animals and they are confronted with morality of keeping animals for commercial purposes. |

Lecture 20

Learning styles and strategies

Questions to be discussed

1. Types of learning styles
2. Presentation Techniques for Learning Styles
3. Activities for Learning Styles



Learning Styles

“Learning styles” are a student’s preferred way of absorbing, processing, comprehending, and retaining new information and skills. Learning styles are part of a student’s individual differences. It is important for teachers to understand the differences in their students’ learning

styles so that they can present information and use appropriate activities to help their students learn.

Descriptions of Learning Styles

Although each student learns differently, we can talk about 3 learning styles: Visual, Auditory, and Kinesthetic. Figure 1 explains the 3 learning styles.

Visual - need to see the teacher and their expressions; usually sit at the front of the class; think in images and learn best from graphs, illustrations, diagrams, videos; often take detailed notes

Auditory - learn best by listening to lectures, participating in discussion groups, and talking things through; notice the pitch, tone, and speed of the teacher's voice; written information should be reinforced through lecture; benefit from reading aloud and watching videos

Kinesthetic - learning from a hands-on approach, actively exploring the things around them; it can be difficult to sit still for long periods; learn from moving while learning (like throwing a ball, doing exercises, or physical response); playing a game

Presentation Techniques for Learning Styles

Because students absorb, process, comprehend, and retain information in different ways, teachers should present new information using a variety of techniques. Figure 2 shows examples of presenting information for different learning styles.

Learning Styles

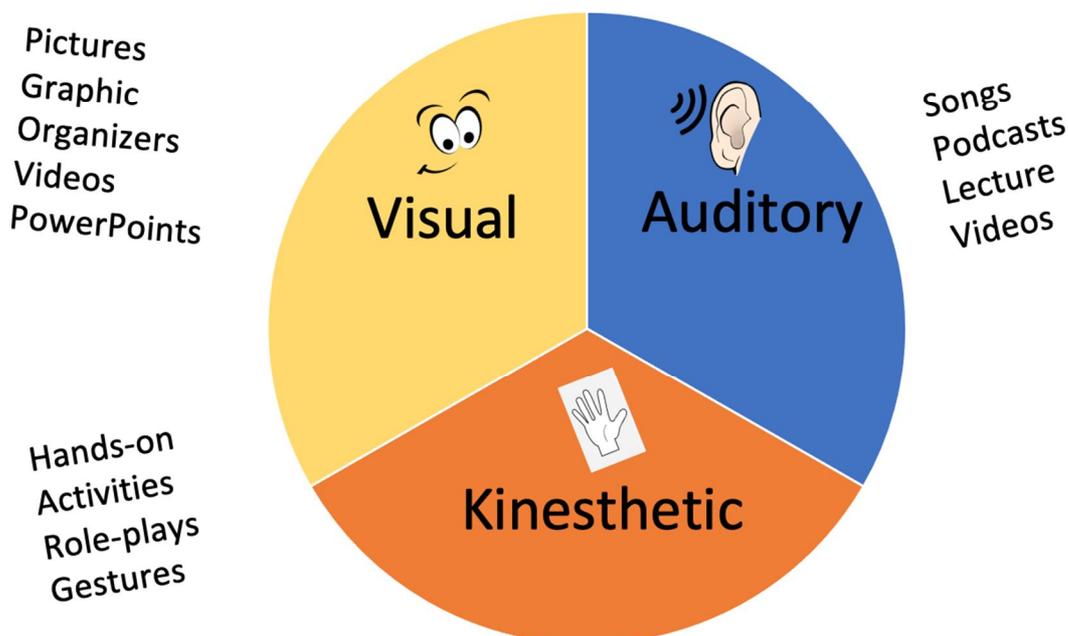


Figure 2. Learning style techniques.

Activities for Learning Styles

Students also need different types of activities to practice what they are learning. Figure 3. shows the activities that appeal to different learning styles in the Quizlet activity you completed in Task 2.

TCCP Module 2 - SLA Terminology

Elise_Brittain9 TEACHER

STUDY

- Flashcards
- Learn
- Write
- Spell
- Test

PLAY

- Match
- Gravity

fill in the blank with the term

hear the definition

individual differences (individual characteristics)

move the terms and definitions

6/16

Identifying Learning Styles

It's important as teachers that we use presentation techniques and activities that appeal to all learning styles. How can we tell which learning styles our students prefer? One way to identify student learning styles is to observe which activities they perform the best in. Another way to identify student learning styles is to use a learning styles quiz. An example of a Learning Styles Quiz is included on the next pages.

Learning Styles Quiz

Adapted from VARK Questionnaire Version 8.1.

Read the statement. Choose the answer that you prefer.

1. You have been selected as a tutor or a leader for a holiday program. This is interesting for your friends. You

- a) show them the map of where it will be held
- b) describe the activities in the program.
- c) start practising the activities I will be doing in the program.

2. A new movie has arrived in town. What would most influence your decision to go?

- a) read what others say about it online or in a magazine
 - b) hear friends talking about it
 - c) see a preview of it
3. You need to give your friend directions to go to a shop nearby. You prefer to
- a) draw a map on a piece of paper or get a map online
 - b) tell them the directions
 - c) walk with them
4. You are learning to take photos with your new mobile phone. You prefer
- a) clear written instructions with lists and bullet points
 - b) a chance to ask questions and talk about the camera's features
 - c) examples of good and poor photos and how to improve them
5. You want some feedback about a competition or test. You prefer feedback
- a) that used a written description or table of the results
 - b) from somebody who discussed it with me
 - c) that used examples of what I have done
6. After reading a play you need to do a project. Would you prefer to
- a) write about the play?
 - b) read a speech from the play?
 - c) act out a scene from the play?
7. You are going to make something special for your family. You
- a) decide from pictures in magazines
 - b) talk it over with your friends
 - c) make something you have made before
8. A website has a video showing how to make a special graph. There is a person speaking, some lists and words describing what to do, and some diagrams. You prefer
- a) reading the words
 - b) listening to the person
 - c) watching the actions
9. You are about to hook up your parent's new computer. You
- a) follow the diagrams that show how it is done
 - b) phone a friend and ask how to do it
 - c) unpack the box and start putting the pieces together
10. You prefer a teacher who likes to use
- a) a textbook and plenty of handouts
 - b) class discussions, online chats, and guest speakers
 - c) field trips, case studies, videos, and hands-on practical sessions
11. You want to plan a surprise party for a friend. You
- a) make lists of what to do and what to buy for the party
 - b) talk about it on the phone or text others
 - c) invite friends and just let it happen
12. I like websites that have
- a) interesting information and articles in print
 - b) audio channels for music, chat, and discussion

c) things I can click on and do

13. You are about to buy a new mobile phone. Other than price, what would most influence your decision?

- a) reading the details about its features
- b) the salesperson telling me about it
- c) trying it

14. You have a problem with your knee. You prefer the doctor

- a) give you an article or brochure that explains the injury
- b) describe to you what is wrong
- c) demonstrate what is wrong using a model of a knee

15. You have to present your ideas to your class. You

- a) write out your speech and learn it by reading it again and again
- b) write a few key words and say them again and again
- c) gather examples and stories to make it real and practical

16. Remember when you learned how to play a new game. You learned best by

- a) reading the instructions
- b) listening to somebody explain it and asking questions
- c) watching others do it first

Count the number of times you circled each letter. Write those numbers on the corresponding lines below. Circle the letter you answered most. If you tied on any letters, your learning style is a combination of those answers.

A= _____ B= _____ C= _____

If you answered with...

Mostly A:

You are a Visual Learner. This means you understand and remember information better when it is something you can see such as a picture, graph, or chart.

Mostly B:

You are an Auditory Learner. This means you learn best from hearing information.

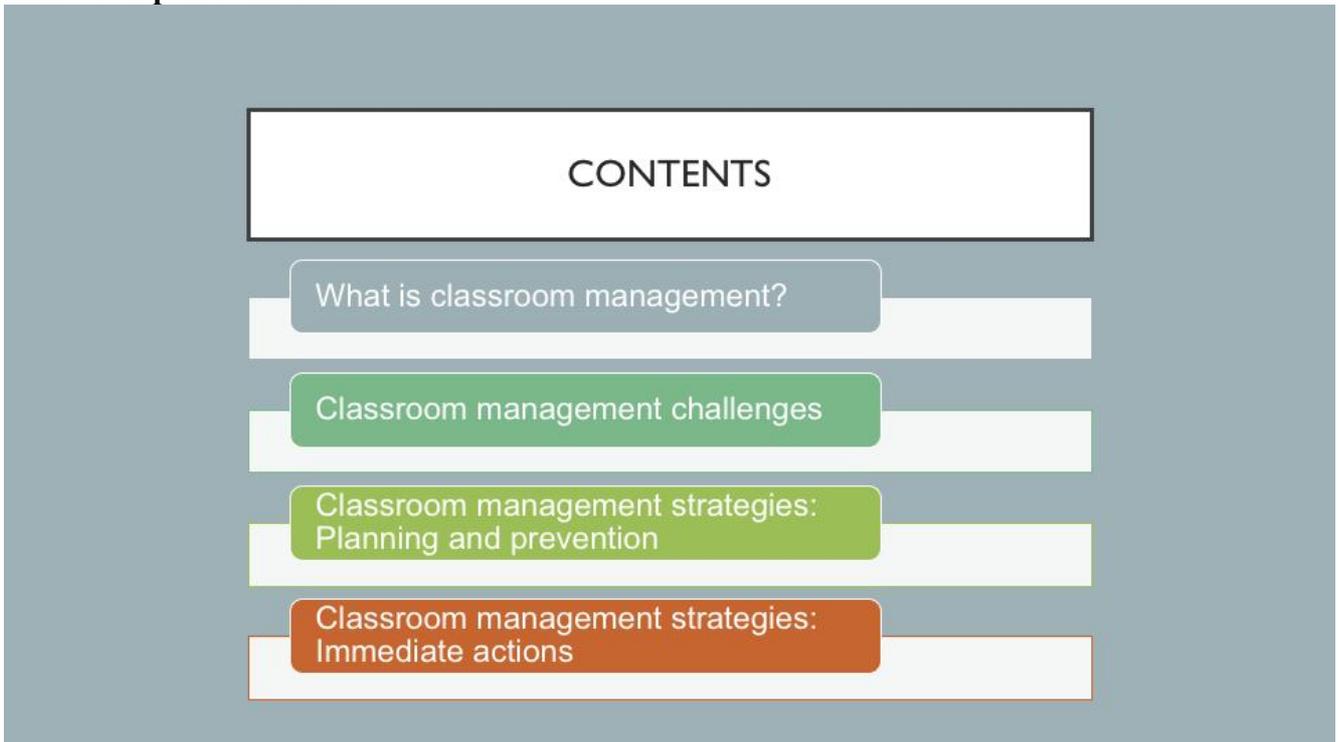
Mostly C:

You are a Kinesthetic or Physical Learner. This means you learn best from hands-on experiences or when you are moving as you read/listen.

Lecture 21

Classroom management and teacher-learner interaction

We've been talking a lot about using authentic, meaningful, communicative activities in your classrooms. These types of activities are highly effective tools for language learning, but they can also give rise to classroom management issues like too much noise or inappropriate student behavior. In this presentation, we'll look at the types of classroom management problems that typically occur in secondary school English language classrooms and suggest some strategies for dealing with them. Please have a piece of paper and something to write with as you watch this presentation.



Here's what we'll talk about in this presentation. First we'll define classroom management. Then, we'll talk about some of the challenges that secondary school teachers face in relation to classroom management. Next we'll look at some planning and prevention actions you can take so that these problems don't occur.

And lastly, we'll look at some immediate actions you can take if, despite your planning and prevention measures, you run into difficulties.

WHAT IS CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT?

✓ Classroom management is what teachers do to make sure that their class runs smoothly and learners maintain appropriate behavior.

✗ Classroom management is not simply controlling your students. It does not mean creating an atmosphere in which students sit submissively and passively and the teacher is 'the boss'.

Before we begin discussing classroom management, let's make sure that we all know what it means, and possibly more importantly, what it does not mean. ▪ Managing a classroom is like managing any other complex organization. It involves all of the things that we do to make sure the organization, which in our case is our classroom, runs smoothly, and that everybody is working and learning.

▪ It DOES NOT mean that the teacher is simply controlling the students. You will remember that learning occurs when students feel at ease, when they feel comfortable interacting with their peers and their teacher. We can't lower the affective filter if our students are constantly afraid of breaking a long list of strict classroom rules.

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT CHALLENGES

- ☐ Behavioral challenges
 - ☐ Unwillingness to speak / Insistence on LI
 - ☐ Disciplinary problems
- ☐ Contextual and instructional challenges
 - ☐ Lack of space
 - ☐ Mixed-ability groups
 - ☐ Time restrictions
 - ☐ Large groups



Photo by Yogendra Singh on Unsplash

The classroom is a complex place. There are lots of things happening at the same time, lots of things that the teacher has to organize and manage all at once. One way to categorize classroom management challenges are as behavioral challenges, and contextual and instructional challenges.

- **Behavioral challenges sometimes occur with just one or two learners or sometimes they are widespread throughout a group of students. They include learners' unwillingness to speak or insisting on speaking only in their first language, as well as disciplinary problems, like not paying attention, making too much noise, being off-task, and disrupting others.**
- **Contextual and instructional challenges include things like not having enough space to get up and move around or put students into groups, having a learners of different levels of proficiency in the same group, the amount of time you have to help your students reach established objectives, and working with very large groups.**

This presentation will suggest a few strategies for dealing with some of these challenges, and we'll explore other strategies in the tasks on managing peer work.



PAUSE AND REFLECT

- Which of the classroom management challenges mentioned in the previous slide have you experienced in your classroom? Do you think you handle these challenges well? What kinds of strategies do you use?

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES: PLANNING AND PREVENTION

- Plan, Plan, Plan!
- Give Clear Instructions
- Model



Now let's look at a few strategies for dealing with some common classroom management challenges.

One of the most important classroom management strategies is good planning. Planning every step of the lesson - what your objectives are, how long you will spend on each task, the types of interactions required, the materials you need, and so on - will keep your lesson flowing smoothly and avoid lots of "down time" or time when your students are just sitting there waiting for you to figure out what comes next. Plan ways to expand tasks for stronger learners who

might finish very quickly. Often students are disruptive because they find the task they've been asked to complete too simple or boring. Good planning will ensure that your lessons are interesting to your students, that they know what to do and why they're doing it and help keep them on task.

Another reason students can be disruptive or non-participative is that they aren't quite sure what you want them to do. Giving clear step-by-step instructions using very simple language will help make sure that they know what you are expecting. For complex activities involving a lot of steps, write the steps on the board and read through them as a class before you begin. If you aren't sure, ask instruction check questions like, "How many questions are you going to ask your partner?" or "How many minutes do you have to finish?" or "Do you have to write down the answers?"

Modeling what you want them to do also provides a very specific example that they can expand upon during the activity. And, whether you know it or not, you are also a role model - a model of the behavior you would like to see in them when they're in your class.



PAUSE AND ANSWER

- Change the instructions below to make them as clear as possible. Remove all of the unnecessary parts, and invent any information you need to so that the task is clear.

"Ok, guys, quiet please!! Quiet! Now, what we're going to do is I'm going to put you...you're going to get into groups of 4 and then you're going to talk about what we've been talking about this morning with your groups. Remember we were talking about superheroes and we read the superhero story? So something like that. But you're going to have to be the writer of the superhero story this time. So you have to think of a lot of ideas in your groups. Got it? Ok, go!"

Now I'd like you to pause this presentation and complete the activity on this slide. Write your answer on a piece of paper and discuss it with your group.

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES: PLANNING AND PREVENTION



- ❑ Build Classroom Community
- ❑ Provide Thinking Time
- ❑ Share Responsibility
- ❑ Establish Routines And Use Cues

If your students don't seem to want to talk in class, you may want to reflect a little about your classroom atmosphere, your classroom community. Building rapport with students so they feel comfortable with you and encouraging pair and teamwork so they feel comfortable with each other can go a long way towards lowering the barriers that sometimes make language learners reluctant to speak.

Sometimes students don't speak because they don't feel prepared. We've all been in a situation when speaking another language when someone asks you something and you kind of freeze. You can't respond because your mind needs a little time to get your thoughts in order. Giving your students time to think, plan and make notes before jumping right into a speaking activity can give them the confidence they need to open up.

Another idea is to give students working in groups different roles to play, like writer, reporter, English monitor (whose job is to make sure students speak English), and participation monitor (whose job is to make sure everyone participates). If these roles are assigned to different students every time they work in groups, learners will gradually get used to and better at performing the different skills involved in each of them. This also takes a bit of the responsibility for classroom management from you and gives it to your learners.

Establishing routines is crucial in classroom management. One of the most difficult times to manage a classroom is when you're transitioning from one type of interaction or task to another, for example, when you want your students to form small groups, and then after the task, return to their regular seats. If you haven't got an established routine for how to do this, the classroom can become noisy and disorderly and you can waste precious time. In every classroom, having a "focus on me" cue is essential to bring everybody's attention to you so you can tell them what to do next. This signal can be holding up a hand, flicking the lights, clapping once, or whatever you want. The only requirement is that everyone knows what it means and that you use it consistently.

Another cue or signal you should establish is one that means "lower the volume". Interactive tasks can get noisy, and sometimes noisy is great if your learners are all chattering in English. It means they are excited about using the language and interested in the activity. But, we all share

a space with other teachers and other students, and we need to make sure that our learners are respectful of them. Again, your cue for “lower the volume” can be whatever you want. Visual cues like a colorful sign you hold up or a flick of the lights work well because they don’t add noise to an already noisy situation. If you use your cue consistently, you’ll soon see that the volume lowers almost instantly when you give the signal.

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES: IMMEDIATE ACTIONS



Disruptive or attention-seeking students

- Position yourself near the student.
- Give the student “the look” and wait.
- If you need to have a word, put yourself at the same height as the student, ask questions calmly and quietly.

Despite all your careful planning and preparing, you may still face some problems that require immediate action. It can be difficult to know what to do in these situations. Let’s look at a few examples now and explore some possible reactions.

Sometimes, especially with secondary school groups, you have a student or two who likes to be the center of attention, whether good or bad. This might be the “class clown”, the kid who’s always trying to make others laugh or it could be a student who is constantly off-task, not paying attention and chatting to others and encouraging them to not pay attention either.

One strategy for dealing with a disruptive student is to simply move closer to them. Don’t stop teaching or doing whatever you are doing, but walk over and stand next to them and continue as usual. Merely your physical presence will let the student know that you have noticed what he or she is doing. That is often enough.

Another immediate action is to stop talking and establish eye contact with the disruptive student. This is what my mother used to call “the look”. Again, it is letting the student know that you have noticed and that nothing will continue until the disruptive behavior stops.

If non-verbal communication isn’t working to stop the disruptive behavior, and you feel that you need to say something. It’s a good idea to put yourself at the same level as the student (bend over or squat down) and talk to him or her in a quiet and calm voice. You can ask things like, “What are you doing, Ghaffor?” “I see you’re not talking to your partner. Why not?” This will do two things: It will bring the student’s focus and attention away from their classmates and onto you, and it will not embarrass the student or make

him or her angry. Calm is contagious. If you model speaking quietly, calmly and respectfully, your student will respond similarly.

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES: IMMEDIATE ACTIONS

? Very talkative students

- Use random call-on strategies.
- Have a talk with them.
- Assign a "timer" role.



Another type of attention-seeking behavior that is common in secondary school learners is wanting to always be the first person to answer, and dominating the conversation whenever possible. Because opportunities for interaction play such an important role in language learning, this is particularly important to address when it happens.

Instead of posing questions to the whole class and allowing the first person that volunteers to answer, you can use random call-on strategies when reviewing the answers to homework or asking questions with very specific answers. This is not a good strategy for opinion questions, because it can make students really nervous to suddenly have to give their opinion in front of the whole class. One good random call-on strategy is to have a set of wooden ice-cream bar sticks with each student's name written on it. You can pull a stick out of one container and call on that student and then put it in another container so you don't call on that student again until everyone else has had a chance.

Because these types of students like to talk, sometimes the best strategy is to have a talk with them. Ask them to stay after class and have a pleasant conversation. After a short chat, you can say things like, "I'm glad you like to practice so much in class, but it's important everyone has a chance." And then if it happens again (and it probably will), you can say, "Umedjon, let's give some others a chance, ok?" and the student will know that you're not saying that to be cruel or prevent him from speaking, but simply to get to hear from everyone.

In small group discussions, in addition to the other roles discussed earlier in this presentation, you can make one student responsible for making sure no one person speaks for more than, for example, three minutes in a row.

TO SUM UP...

- The classroom is a complex place where lots of different things are happening at the same time.
- There are many, many classroom management strategies for preventing inappropriate behavior from occurring and for handling it if it does occur.
- Plan for successful management.
- Be a great role model.

The classroom is a complex place where lots of different things are happening at the same time. This can give rise to a wide variety of problems and challenges for the teacher that go beyond strictly teaching.

There are many, many effective classroom management strategies for preventing inappropriate behavior from occurring and for handling it if it does occur. Be sure to plan well for successful classroom management, and be a great role model.

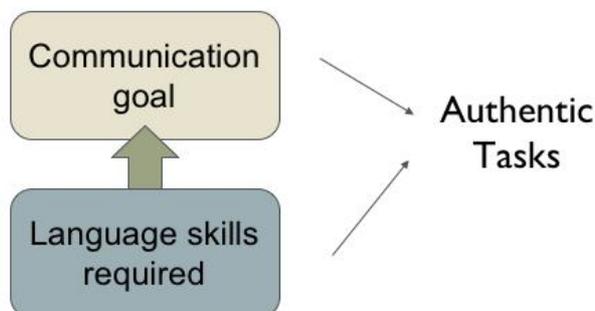
By providing a model of appropriate behavior, you're already doing a lot towards effective classroom management.

Lecture 22

The language learning task : TBL, CTB, PBL

PROMOTING LANGUAGE LEARNING

- How do people communicate in the world outside the classroom?
- How can these activities become part of the language classroom?



To promote language learning in the classroom, it is important to think about how people communicate in the world outside the classroom and to design activities that build these communication skills. If we start with a goal of communication (such as sharing information or persuading), then we can scaffold the language and skills needed to achieve this goal. One way to enhance motivation and practice in using a language to communicate is by choosing “authentic tasks.”

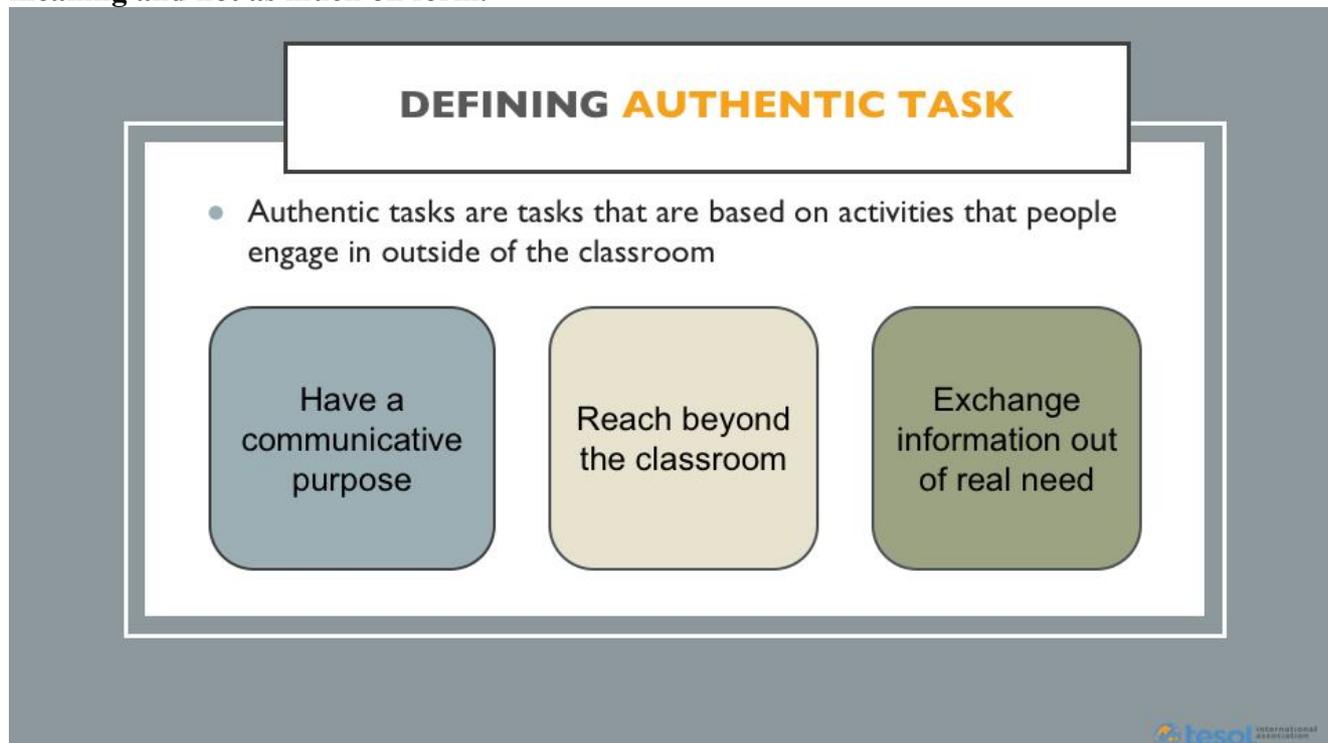
DEFINING “TASK”

- “Task” refers to what students do or what the teacher assigns.
- “Tasks” may or may not effectively promote communication using the target language.

“a piece of classroom work which involves learners in **comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting** in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form” (Nunan, 1989)

Let’s start with the word “task.” This refers to what students do. The word task is very general and can refer to anything that the teacher assigns to students. For example, completing a grammar worksheet is a task. Or, the teacher might ask students to read a passage and then

answer some multiple choice questions about it. These examples are all tasks; however, these tasks are very classroom-based—they do not usually take place outside of an educational environment. They also do not effectively promote communication using the target language. A well-accepted definition of a task is a piece of classroom work that focuses primarily on meaning and not as much on form.



Tasks that are based on activities that people engage in outside of the classroom are called “authentic tasks.” The term authentic tasks can be included along with more traditional language learning activities (such as memorization and drills) to provide opportunities for students to go beyond learning ABOUT language to learning to USE language. One type of common classroom task is role play, where students act out parts in different situations, like at a restaurant or a train station. These are useful activities; however, these simulations may only take students’ communication practice so far, as they do not truly require the use of the language to communicate.

To reach a more communicative purpose for the use of the target language, teachers can plan authentic tasks that make connections between the classroom and the world beyond the classroom. For example, an authentic task may involve students identifying a problem in their community that they wish to solve, conducting research about the problem, and developing a plan of action, all using the target language. This might gather information about the issue by sending emails or holding video conferences with experts who speak the target language. They might create a website or a brochure that explains their findings.

The point is to give students the chance to use the language they are learning (English) “for a real and useful purpose.” Authentic tasks have a “communicative goal” to “exchange real information out of a real need for that information” (Dormer, p. 13).



PAUSE AND REFLECT

- **Write** your own definition of “authentic tasks.”
- Write 2-3 **examples** of:

What an authentic task **is**:

What an authentic task **is not**:



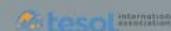
Pause here for a moment and write down your own definition of “authentic tasks.” Write down 2 or 3 examples of what an authentic task IS and what an authentic task IS NOT.

HOW CAN I USE AUTHENTIC TASKS?

1. Determine an authentic purpose for using the language.
 - i. Example: “providing information to foreigners”
2. Get students involved in brainstorming and planning
3. Divide these project ideas into multiple tasks
4. Determine the language skills needed to successfully complete these tasks



PAUSE AND REFLECT: Think about your school, city, and community. What tasks that have an authentic purpose might work well in your community? Write down 1-3 ideas.

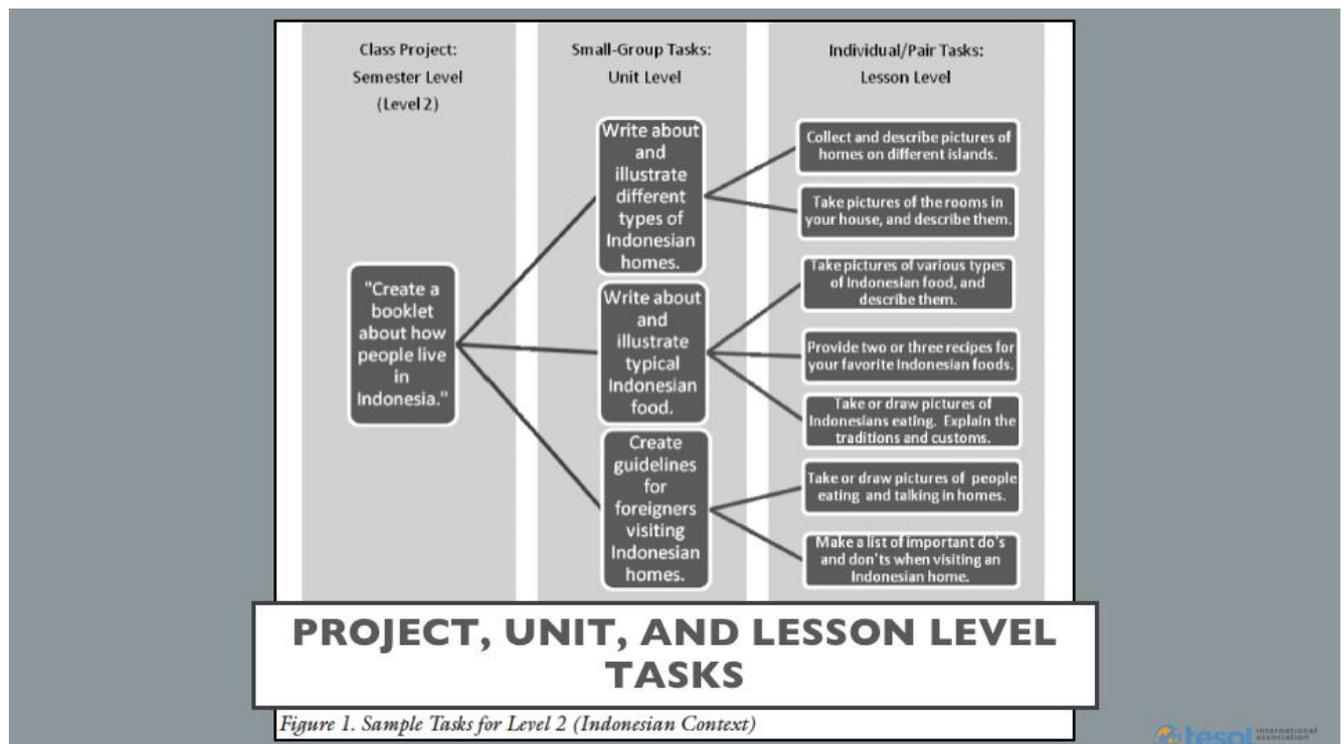


ow that you have your definition, how do you choose tasks with an authentic communicative purpose? And how can this be done in an EFL setting where the target language is not commonly spoken?

First, you need to choose an authentic purpose for using the language. For instance, for your English class, you might choose providing information to foreign visitors as your purpose. This purpose can then help decide on the tasks. Students can help brainstorm the different ways

that they could provide information to foreign visitors: creating a YouTube channel for people planning a vacation, creating an information booklet or brochure, making a website or blog about life in your city, or identifying where signs or posters with information could be posted in the community. Then you can determine how these projects can be divided into smaller tasks and what language is needed to successfully complete these tasks.

Pause for a moment to think about your school, city, and community. Can you think of tasks that have an authentic purpose for communication that might work well in your community? Write down 1-3 ideas.



After you choose a task for the class, you may need to divide it into multiple, smaller tasks. The screen (Figure 1 from Dormer, p. 16) shows an example from an English class in Indonesia.

Their

class project was to create a booklet about how people live in Indonesia with the authentic purpose of providing information to foreign visitors to their city. This larger class project was divided into different tasks for several small groups. Finally, the small group tasks were divided into individual or pair tasks. All of these tasks will contribute to the class project and involve language learning.

PLANNING FOR LANGUAGE

- Vocabulary
- Grammar structures
- Cultural perspectives
- Skill development (speaking, listening, writing, reading)
- Materials, technology and multimedia

PAUSE AND REFLECT: Think about one task you wrote down that might work well in your community. Can it be divided into small group tasks and individual tasks? Can you think of one example of language, cultural knowledge, or materials that your students will need support in?

tesol international association

Students will need support in the vocabulary, grammar structures, and language skills that are needed to complete the tasks. Identify what students' needs will be so that you can plan instruction. Students may also need to learn about cultural perspectives if their goal is to communicate with people from other cultures or to share information about their own culture. Finally, some tasks may also require teachers and students to learn new technology or to find new sources of information and materials.

Pause for a moment and think about one of the ideas you wrote down earlier for an authentic task that might work well for your students. Can it be divided into small group tasks and individual tasks? Can you think of an example of language, cultural knowledge, or materials that your students will need instruction in to complete this task?

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

| Language Skill | Teachers can... | Students can development this skill through... |
|--------------------------|--|---|
| Oral language | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Check if students use English during the tasks. If they don't, provide checkpoints for students to report about their work using English | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interviewing English-speaking experts through video calling Presenting their work to their peers in English Creating videos speaking English Recording a podcast in English |
| Reading and Writing | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Check if the task includes enough opportunities for writing Find additional sources that provide models of language use | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Creating posters or booklets with headings and explanations Making edited transcripts of any audio or video they created Writing letters or emails to English-speaking experts Researching on web sites or other written sources |
| Vocabulary and structure | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have students record new vocabulary and structures they notice during the tasks | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Keeping a vocabulary notebook of new words and structures Teaching new language elements they learn to their peers Asking questions about language to extend their knowledge |



It is important to put language learning at the forefront when using authentic tasks in the classroom. Think about how students have opportunities to learn different language skills and maximize these opportunities through tasks. The table on the screen provides some ideas about how to monitor and create clear opportunities for students to practice and develop different language skills through authentic tasks. For example, if the task does not require oral language use in English, then opportunities should be created, such as by requiring students to present their findings to the class in the form of an oral presentation.

Pause for a moment to review the ideas about including different language skills into authentic tasks (from Dormer, p. 16).



PAUSE AND REFLECT

Make sure you have answered the following questions from the presentation:

- a) What is an authentic task? Can you describe it in your own words? Think of 2 or 3 examples of what an authentic task is and what an authentic task is not.
- b) Can you think of tasks that have an authentic purpose that might work well in your community? Write down 1-3 ideas.
- c) Think about one task you wrote down that might work well in your community. Can it be divided into small group tasks and individual tasks? Can you think of one example of language, cultural knowledge, or materials that your students will need support in?

- *Bring your answers to the Zoom Session.*
- *Be prepared to discuss your ideas.*

Finally, including authentic tasks in the classroom may bring some challenges, especially if

students have never taken part in these types of tasks before! Use the principles for planning for change from Task 5 to prepare for any difficulties.

Lecture 23
Blended learning and flipped classroom
The questions to be discussed

1. What Is A Flipped Classroom?
2. What Is Blended Learning?
3. Which Is More Effective and Why?
4. How to Create a Blended Learning Course in Your LMS

The difference between flipped and blended learning is that blended learning creates a more effective way of presenting course material to employees in an engaging and efficient way while dealing with the isolation due to the Covid-19 situation.

Blended Learning vs Flipped Classroom

Working towards a safer way to interact with learners in all fields, this global crisis had led to an increase in at-home learning tools and environments. Some people wonder, is there an easier way to help these organizations throughout these difficult times? **People are now working towards establishing a blended learning approach or flipped classroom scenario to better engage with learners in their respective fields worldwide.**

Though it is sometimes hard to determine the difference between blended and flipped learning, here is the easiest way to understand the differences. Blended learning is the collaboration between in class or face-to-face education with online learning and other course components.

In contrast, flipped classrooms are when the instructors create courses, texts, or lectures that are watched or read at a student's own pace, and in-class teaching assists in practicing the concepts learned in the videos or other course materials.



But which one should you use? Here we will provide you with insights into the significant differences and benefits of each and how they can be applied to a learner's environment.

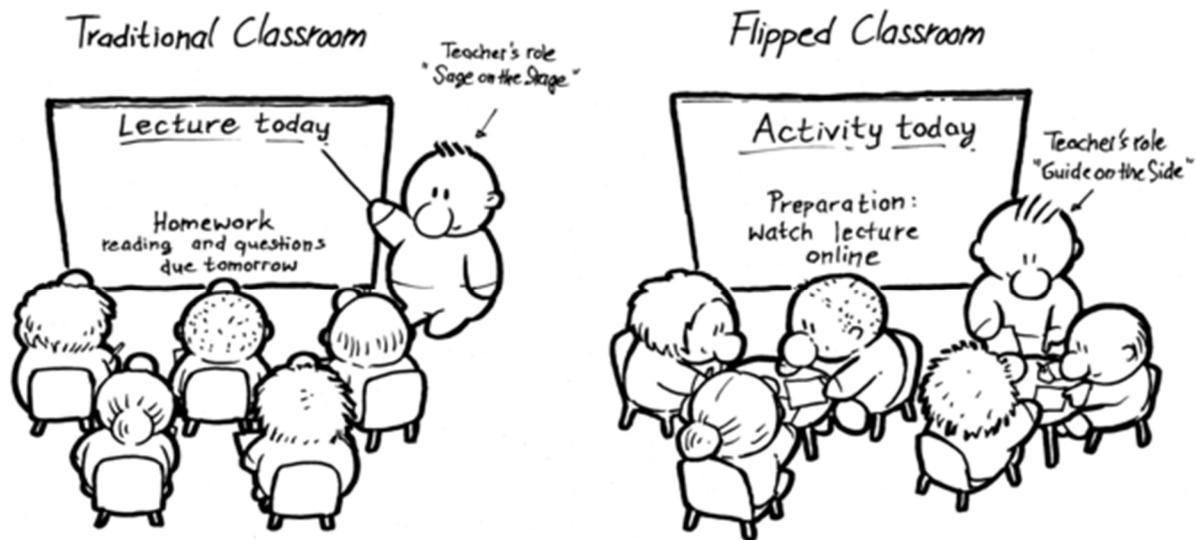
What Is a Flipped Classroom?

A flipped classroom reverses the traditional teaching role where the lessons are first taught, and then homework is assigned.

Instead, the **students first study the course material, typically through online lectures, then learn how to implement what they learned in a classroom setting.**

For example, students may watch online lectures, review online course materials and texts, participate in online discussions or perform research at home.

When in the classroom, **students will practice their skillsets** by having face-to-face discussions with peers, debating, making presentations, or having peer-reviewed assessments. Basically, the students do homework at school in a classroom setting.



What Are the Benefits of a Flipped Classroom?

There are several benefits of a flipped classroom. These are:

- Direct instruction that moves from group learning to individual learning
- It creates a dynamic and interactive learning environment
- Educators guide students as they learn to apply the concepts
- Student can engage creatively with the subject matter
- Flipping speaks the language of today's busy student, allowing them to excel
- Increases student-teacher and student-student interactions
- Increased transparency
- It gives learners more control over their education

What Are the Downsides to a Flipped Classroom?

When it comes to criticisms about a flipped classroom, the main points of contention are:

- The reduced opportunity for self-directed, critical thinking
- That flipped classrooms decenter the role of the student
- The curriculum can be rushed and not register with the student
- Creates an almost industrialized approach to learning where students can become overwhelmed

- Flipping does not necessarily use the latest technology
- Creates a digital divide, separating those who are technologically-inclined from those who aren't
- It relies heavily on student preparation, which may be lacking
- Increased time spent in front of a screen

How to Establish Best Practices for Flipped Classrooms

To create an optimum learning environment with a flipped classroom, it is best to create engaging learning material and lectures. First, it is best to keep **your lessons short**, as the average student's attention span begins to degrade after 10-15 minutes.



Creating in-class interactions like small-group work divides up the time spent teaching and allows the learner to better grasp the concepts. It would help if you also used online quizzes and gamification (creating online games to aid understanding) to supplement learning.

However, the upfront cost and time to create online materials, such as videos, can cause the most significant barrier to creating an effective flipped classroom. **It can take considerable time and technological knowledge to reach your learning objectives.**

The good news is that you can reuse the videos year after year, essentially repurposing them. However, many people do not have the technical know-how to make a flipped classroom work.

It is best if you also found a balance between online work and in-class activities, making sure not to overwhelm the student. Peer instruction will also play a major role in the classroom learning environment. This can cause difficulties as learners may come to the wrong conclusions based on what they are learning and then negatively influence other students.

Here is where mentoring and coaching comes in. To succeed with a flipped classroom, **you need an educator or teacher that understands how to make the courses more interesting** for both students and instructors.

What Is Blended Learning?

Blended learning is a pedagogical or educational approach **that combines traditional teaching methods, such as in a classroom setting, with eLearning technology**, such as online courses, lectures, presentations, quizzes, games and more.

It differs from flipped classroom techniques in that it works collaboratively with a traditional classroom. Training comes from both the teacher and the online learning modules that work together compatibly.

Blended Learning's adoption has grown throughout higher education around the world and has become the new normality in the teaching-learning process. **It optimizes the use of in-classroom learning with an online environment.**



Digital technologies have been adopted, creating media-rich digital learning platforms personalized with adaptive courses and web conferencing tools that connect students and teachers.

Engagement is key, which is where blended learning comes in. In The All-Important E's of eLearning: Engagement and Effectiveness, it states that **when employees are**

engaged with their work and goals, they outperform their fellow employees by 147%. This engagement is where blended learning shines.

Moving towards an impactful Learning Management System allows for more personalization for individual learners, resulting in increased efficiency in the workplace and other educational endeavours.

This ability to personalize the content helps identify struggling students and lets the educator intercede before the student is too far off-track.

Blended learning creates more meaningful learning experiences and motivates learners to use critical thinking skills. It also **promotes retention in students** and increases their commitment to their educational goals.

It even improves workplace productivity. There are many benefits to a blended learning environment if done with the right support, technology, and educational objectives.



What Are the Benefits of Blended Learning?

- Learner engagement is increased
- Increased flexibility and personalization in creating course modules

- Increased one-on-one student interactions
- Learner characteristics and learning experiences are taken into account to promote engagement that leads to desired outcomes
- Focuses on the potential of each modality to create better and meaningful learning through effective practices
- Allows online tracking, which can help target 'at risk' learners quickly
- Can create interactive simulations
- Uses visual, auditory and interactive content
- Reduces time strain allowing students to learn at a good pace
- Increases preparedness and knowledge
- Increases quality of training
- Allows for better reporting and analytics
- Tracks and improves engagement
- Overcomes geographical constraints

What Is the Downside to Blended Learning?

- Some technologies can be challenging instead of being useful
- It can require a tutor or mentor that needs to be highly skilled in eLearning
- Total teaching time is about the same between both flipped and blended classrooms
- Teachers may overdo it with educational activities and content causing a cognitive overload
- It has been found that in assignments, the credibility of sources decreased, and plagiarism increased
- Can require a significant investment in technology, like hardware and software

Best Practices for Blended Learning

To create your online learning platform for your business or organization it is best to **determine your primary goals and learning objectives**. You can then create a comprehensive and cohesive learning strategy by picking the best features for your learning structures.

Your choices should work together seamlessly to best teach your prospective students. You should also enable communication for the learners through creating forums and

instant messaging platforms. Also, **a successful coach or mentor is needed** to bring blended learning together.

You also need to know your audience. This knowledge allows you to determine your primary objectives.

Figure out what your learner's abilities are and when or where the learning will take place. Identify which skillsets and information are required and what your audience's limitations are. This way, you can create custom learning plans that will stick with those you are trying to educate.

Which Is More Effective and Why?

As we have seen, both flipped and blended learning can be useful in their own ways. However, determining which method is best for you and your students' needs should depend on which will work better for your educational aspirations.



Flipped Learning's Failings

In a 2016 study, a statistics professor changed their teaching method to that of a flipped classroom. She had her students read the course's textbook ahead of the class, then

provided regular reading quizzes and worked through problem sets in class. It was found that students using the flipped model performed 10% better on their overall course grades.

However, there were many downsides.

The educator found that the **flipped classroom wasn't effectively achieved**, saying that they only managed to alter the class to a half or three-quarters flip. Also, the textbook was found not to be a suitable method of course material delivery.

Meaning, they did not determine the correct balance between course materials and lectures to maximize students' learning abilities. These are just a few of the weaknesses of flipped learning.

It was also hard to determine if outcomes were achieved.

They determined that biased grading could have affected the outcome. And they also found that **students were less satisfied with how the flipped classroom format oriented them towards their learning goals.**

The study concluded that this was likely due to poor connections between the online portions, the assigned homework, and the face-to-face learning environment.

Blended Learning and Its Effectiveness

A study on the effectiveness of using blended learning strategies for teaching and learning human anatomy showed **that those who participated in a blended learning course had a higher pass rate of 87.9%** versus the 71.4% pass rate for a traditional classroom.

This improved students' success by a whole letter grade, demonstrating the strength of blended learning.

The case study Blended Learning in Healthcare: A Toolkit for a Blended Learning Approach in Clinical Training discusses the active learning model that blended learning creates. Here, the teaching responsibility shifts from the teacher to the student, which engages and empowers the learner, creating an overall better learning experience.

Connecting what is learned in the courses to the workplace is an essential step because retention of what a student learns in a classroom or online is not guaranteed.

By creating real-life situations to test and measure student success, you can better grasp where things are slipping through the cracks, thus creating a better learning environment for future learners.

What Case Studies Say:

In the case study, Canadian Avalanche Association Increases Quality of Training by Using Blended Learning; you will discover how blended learning has greatly affected Canadian Avalanche professionals' learning outcomes.

They created a course using a Learning Management System (LMS) and **saw a noticeable increase in their learners' performance**, allowing them to perform better in-field. They also saw a reduction in costs, as they no longer needed to host as many in-person classes.

These are just a few benefits that make blended learning the best choice for many organizations and businesses.

Do you want to learn more?

CONTACT US

How to Reach Your Company's Objectives and Stay Compliant With Blended Learning

To increase the effectiveness of your blended learning strategies, you first need to make sure your course aligns with your business objectives or goals.

The e-book Compliance and Competency Training Made Easy With LMS outlines seven steps to achieve a solid framework for educating core competencies in your employees or students in far more depth than we will cover here.

First, you need to **define your purpose** by asking a few questions, such as:

- Why are you educating your learners?
- Is it for compliance reasons, training, onboarding, or measuring performance?

Once you uncover what your purpose is, you should then **observe your employees** in action. For example, you can investigate what they are doing daily, how they are performing, and what they could be doing better.

Then you need to **engage and involve your workers**. Try to understand how your trainees feel about their positions.

Determine if their needs are being met and what they think should be changed about their roles. This engagement is a vital step in achieving top-performing results.

You can then **set your goals** by figuring out what you want to accomplish and writing them down. Define your employee groups by **creating hierarchies**, establishing competencies and developing essential skills and areas of training needed.

It is also vital that you provide the coaching and training which will best help your company. You need to **determine what type of coaching is required** and your educator's ideal skills and attributes.

Finally, you link your research to **align with your business's objectives**. Outline what your company's goals are and how training can be linked back to them. You will need tools that help your company perform and demonstrates the return on investment.

Ask the stakeholders how they would define learner success. This will determine how the course should be evaluated for ROI, such as training costs, engagement rates, and working capital.

Studies have found that professional support that focuses on the instructor's beliefs and ideations provided more success in creating a blended learning structure. This support is where an excellent LMS with personalized support for your business and educators comes in.

To learn more, check out [Attract Star Talent and Keep Them! Learning Paths for Employee Retention](#). Here you will discover ways to tap into a great LMS's features and create courses that improve employee retention and engagement.

Now that you know a bit about the technological strategies involved with creating an effective course, you can begin building your blended learning initiative.

Do you want to learn more about us?

CONTACT US

How to Create a Blended Learning Course in Your LMS

Now that you know the tools, you can begin building your course. Once you have the outline of your course in your Learning Management System, here are the basics of implementing a blended learning approach.

If you do not currently have an LMS, feel free to take a peek at these additional resources to determine the right solution for your needs:

- [Open Source vs Proprietary LMS: How Do I Choose?](#)
- [11 Must-Have LMS Features Checklist for New LMS Buyers](#)

NOTE:

In the following examples we will be showcasing our own Learning Management System (Lambda Learn).

However, the process and terminology will be essentially the same regardless of which LMS you currently utilizing. If you'd like to learn more about [Lambda Learn](#), visit our [page here](#).

Step 1: Determine Your Course Assets

First, you need to know what your assets are. **What is your business's pre-existing course content?**

Determine what course materials are already in place and what resources you have. These can include text or audio files, documents, videos, multimedia and interactive content.

You should also assess what resources you get from outside sources. Once you know what assets you have, you can then move on to the next step.

Step 2: Audit Your Tools and Features

Now it is time to figure out what the capabilities of your LMS are.

Determine what built-in activities are supported, for instance, **course creation tools like Articulate or H5P**. Also, check to see if your LMS supports output file formats like SCORM. **These tools will make up the framework for you to build your course.**

Real-time connectivity and engagement are key in a great LMS. Here it is important that your learner-instructor and learner-learner feedback is made available to your business.

This way it helps you gauge the effectiveness of your course goals, by **ensuring that you can have lines of open communication** and by being able to **figure out where the course's and your student's strengths and weaknesses lie.**

Ideally, **your LMS should support learner activities like chats, discussion forums, quizzes** and other course activities that allow for learner and communication assessments.

Other LMS capabilities should also include assignment **drop boxes, collaborative wikis and interactive glossaries.**

With these in place, your curriculum can be implemented and you can manage and evaluate the learning process from initiation to completion.

Step 3: How to Add Resources

Resources are files or documents that are used by the course creator to educate the learner. In order to add course resources, the **course creator (CC)** or **instructional designer (ID)** can add resources in edit mode by clicking the 'Add an activity or

resource'

button.

NOTE:

1. In Lambda Learn terminology, an Activity, such as Forums or Quizzes, properly means something learners can contribute to directly, and is often contrasted to a **Resource** such as a File or Page, which is the content course presentation media used by the course creator. However, the term **activity** is sometimes for convenience also used to refer to both *Activities* and *Resources* as a group.

A link with an icon will appear which represents the kind of resource you may wish to add. In Lambda Learn it can look like this:

Click which one you'd like to add and upload the desired resource. You can then add descriptions if you wish.

Step 4: How to Add Course Activities

Counter to resources, **course activities are features that learners can interact with**, as well as engage with other learners and instructors.

Once again you just need to **click the 'Add Activity or Resource' button**, choose the appropriate icon and upload your activity. Activities, like quizzes or assignments, are typically graded through your LMS.

Some examples of Activities you can use for Blended Learning can include:

- Assignments
- Forums
- Chat Groups
- Wikis for Collaborative Work
- Collaborative Glossary
- Database (for community use/contribution),
- Feedback Surveys
- Custom Questionnaires
- H5P Interactive Content

Step 5: Setting Up Seminars

In order to add *Seminar* activities with *Events* to a course, the Seminar activity must be enabled on your site.

In Lambda Learn, site administrators can enable the Seminar activity from the *Administration* menu by going to *Plugins > Activity modules > Manage activities*.

Here you will need to click the *Hide/Show* toggle icon ( , ) next to the *Seminar* activity so that the eye icon appears open.

Seminar Default Settings

To minimize any additional configurations of Seminars and Events for course creators and facilitators, a site administrator can create default settings for these based on the typical workflow or parameters set out by your organization.

There are essentially 7 types of settings you'll need to consider:

1. General Settings

These include things like email notification settings, cancellation functionality, and event display settings for course pages.

2. Sign-Up Workflow

The Sign-up Workflow settings manage how attendees sign-up for seminars. This includes rules for how many times a user can sign-up, waitlists, and approval requirements.

An Example of a sign-up workflow from Lambda Learn.

3. Seminar Activity Completion

If enabled, activity completion is tracked, either manually or automatically, based on certain conditions.

For the Seminar activity, it is recommended to use the *Require status* activity completion condition if the intention is to track completion based on attendance.

Activity Completion settings from An example of Seminar Lambda Learn

4. Add A Seminar Event

After adding a seminar activity to a course page, events should be created that contain the specific date, time, and location (sessions) for the instructor-led/classroom-based training (when known).

Any number of events may be added to a seminar activity with all activity settings applicable to each Event. And an event can be made up of any number of sessions.

An example of how to add Seminar Events with Lambda Learn:

- Log in as a Site Administrator or Editing Trainer and navigate to (or create) the required course.
- Click on the name of the Seminar event or *View all events* from the course homepage.
- Click the *Add a new event* link.
- Enter the relevant details for the Event as per the below, including any Custom fields.
- Click Save changes to add the Event or Cancel to discard your changes

5. Add an Event Session

An Event can have many Sessions. The Date and Time setting of an Event is effectively its session. This includes time zone, start time, and finish time information. The more dates and times you add, the more sessions your event has.

This is also where you can Add/Assign the trainer or instructor for the Event and Sessions.

6. Event Attendance

Once Attendees are booked and confirmed for a Seminar Event and the start time of the training has passed, an Administrator, Trainer, or Instructor can take attendance.

In Lambda Learn there are two ways to do this:

Individual Attendance

You can mark attendance for each individual by using the corresponding Current status dropdown to select 'No Show', 'Partially Attended', or 'Fully Attended' as required. A learner's status can be updated at any point once an Event has started.

Click Save attendance to save any changes or Cancel to clear all changes and return to the Attendees tab.

Bulk Attendance

Alternatively, you can mark attendance in bulk. Using the Select dropdown choose All, Set, or Not Set then set the Mark all selected *as* dropdown to No Show, Partially Attended, or Fully Attended as required.

In Lambda Learn you can Export all users and their saved Attendance status to Excel, OSD or CSV. Choose the required format from the dropdown menu and choose either the *Open* or *Save File* option when prompted.

7. Manage Seminar Notifications

Being able to effectively communicate with your learners is key to any learning environment, so being able to quickly and easily keep attendees informed with

notifications for various actions, updates and milestones related to a seminar activity and the associated events is essential.

In Lambda Learn you can easily automate all of the following notification types to save your Admins and Instructors extra effort while keeping all your learners on the same page:

- **Seminar booking cancellation**

A message is sent as confirmation when a participant cancels their own booking.

- **Seminar booking confirmation**

A message is sent as confirmation when a participant makes a booking.

- **Seminar booking date/time changed**

A message is sent if the date or time of the seminar is adjusted.

- **Seminar booking reminder**

A reminder email is sent to all participants before the event.

- **Seminar event registration closure**

When the sign-up period for an event closes a message is sent to all participants who have requested booking approval but had not yet received a response. Any pending requests are automatically declined at this time.

And that's it for the Blended Learning Setup essentials!

If you haven't switched to a blended learning environment, now is the time. In a Post-COVID-19 world, many professions have switched to remote training as a safer way to work during these trying times.

Lecture 24

Teaching foreign languages in different educational establishments

Key words: interactive technology, interactive method, communication, dialogue, discussion, brainstorming, case, project, role play, presentation.

INTRODUCTION Nowadays, the importance of teaching a foreign language effectively has grown significantly in the world, especially in developing countries, such as Ukraine. According to the new decree, the year of 2016 in Ukraine has been declared "The Year of English" by our president Petro Poroshenko. "Considering the role of English as a language of international communication, to promote its study to expand public access to the world's economic, social, educational and cultural opportunities offered by the knowledge and use of English, ensuring the integration of Ukraine into the European political, economic, scientific and educational space for the support of the program "Go Global", which defines learning English a priority development strategy". A complex of measures is being taken to intensify English learning in Ukraine. Among them is raising teaching standards at all stages of education, which means improving both teachers' proficiency and methods of teaching. As it is known, today there is an important shift from passive to active learning. Therefore, special attention is paid to strengthening the technological aspects of specialist training and implementation centered approach to the learning process where the student takes an active part in cognitive activity. Foreign language teachers must find ways to increase the level of students' involvement in the process of studying, to raise their motivation for learning languages. One way to reach these goals is using interactive technologies at classes. It helps to develop students' creativity, imagination, increase their cognitive interest in studying foreign languages and improve their communicative skills. The term "interactive learning technology" is usually connected with computer or multimedia learning, as it implies interactive dialogue with real partners and direct exchange of messages. But this notion is wider and means collective cognitive activity where all participants interact, exchange information, solve problems in atmosphere of real collaboration, estimate their own actions. The problem of using the interactive methods of teaching foreign languages at the higher educational establishments was also studied by R. Blair, S. Martinelli, L. Konoplianyk, H. Stern, E. Polat, M. Tailor and others. Interactive learning technologies include clearly planned learning results, interactive methods, tools, and forms stimulating the learning process, cognitive and mental conditions and procedures for achieving planned results. Thus, interactive technology comprises a scope of interactive methods that a teacher uses in his work.

Practices in [language education](#) vary significantly by region. Firstly, the languages being learned differ; in the [United States](#), [Spanish](#) is the most popular language to be learned, whereas the most popular languages to be learned in [Australia](#) are [German](#), [French](#), [Italian](#) and [Mandarin Chinese](#). Also, [teaching methods](#) tend to differ by region. [Language immersion](#) is popular in some European countries, and not used very much in the [United States](#).

Europe

Foreign language education

1995 [European Commission](#)'s White Paper "Teaching and learning – Towards the learning society", stated that "upon completing initial training, everyone should be proficient in two Community foreign languages". The Lisbon Summit of 2000 defined languages as one of the five key skills.

In fact, even in 1974, at least one foreign language was compulsory in all but two European member states: [Ireland](#) and the [United Kingdom](#) (apart from [Scotland](#)). By 1998 nearly all pupils in [Europe](#) studied at least one foreign language as part of their compulsory education, the only ^[citation needed] exception being the Republic of Ireland, where primary and secondary schoolchildren learn both [Irish](#) and [English](#), but neither is considered a foreign language although a third European language is also taught. Pupils in upper secondary education learn at least two foreign languages in [Belgium](#), [France](#), [Denmark](#), [Netherlands](#), [Luxembourg](#), [Finland](#), [Sweden](#), [Iceland](#), [Switzerland](#), [Greece](#), [Croatia](#), [Cyprus](#), [Estonia](#), [Latvia](#), [Lithuania](#), [Poland](#), [Romania](#), [Serbia](#), [Slovenia](#) and [Slovakia](#).

On average in Europe, at the start of foreign language teaching, pupils have lessons for three to four hours a week. Compulsory lessons in a foreign language normally start at the end of [primary school](#) or the start of [secondary school](#). In Luxembourg, [Norway](#), [Italy](#), [Malta](#) and [Spain](#), however, the first foreign language starts at age six, in [Denmark](#) at age seven and in Belgium at age 10. About half of the EU's primary school pupils learn a foreign language.

English is the language taught most often at the lower secondary level in the EU. There, 93% of children learn English. At upper secondary level, English is even more widely taught. [French](#) is taught at lower secondary level in all EU countries except [Slovenia](#). A total of 33% of European Union pupils learn French at this level. At upper secondary level the figure drops slightly to 28%. [German](#) is taught in nearly all EU countries. A total of 13% of pupils in the European Union learn German in lower secondary education, and 20% learn it at an upper secondary level.

Despite the high rate of foreign language teaching in schools, the number of adults claiming to speak a foreign language is generally lower than might be expected. This is particularly true of native English speakers: in 2004 a [British](#) survey^[which?] showed that only one in 10 [UK](#) workers could speak a foreign language. Less than 5% could count to 20 in a second language, for example. 80% said they could work abroad anyway, because "everyone speaks English." In 2001, a European Commission survey^[which?] found that 65.9% of people in the UK spoke only their native tongue.

Since the 1990s, the [Common European Framework of Reference for Languages](#) has tried to standardize the learning of languages across Europe (one of the first results being [UNlcert](#)).

Bilingual education

In some countries, learners have lessons taken entirely in a foreign language: for example, more than half of European countries with a [minority](#) or [regional language](#) community use partial immersion to teach both the minority and the state language.

In the 1960s and 1970s, some central and eastern European countries created a system of bilingual schools for well-performing pupils. Subjects other than languages were taught in a foreign language. In the 1990s this system was opened to all pupils in general education, although some countries still make candidates sit an entrance exam. At the same time, Belgium, [France](#), the [Netherlands](#), [Austria](#) and [Finland](#) also started bilingual schooling schemes. [Germany](#) meanwhile had established some bilingual schools in the late 1960s.

United Kingdom

French, German, and Spanish are taught in most schools, but the UK Government does not mandate the teaching of particular languages.^[1]

In [England](#), all local authority-run schools must teach at least one foreign language to pupils between the ages of 7 and 14. At [Key Stage 2](#) (ages 7 to 11), such schools must teach a modern or ancient language, while at [Key Stage 3](#) (ages 11 to 14) they must teach a modern language.^[2] However, [academies](#) and [free schools](#) are exempt from this requirement. Furthermore, languages have not been compulsory beyond the age of 14 since 2004.^[3]

In [Scotland](#), the Scottish Government is implementing a "1+2" policy, giving pupils an "entitlement to learn a language" from the age of 4 or 5 until the age of 14 or 15. As of 2021, the policy intends for all schools to offer one additional language from [Primary 1](#) (ages 4-6) and a second additional language from Primary 5

(ages 8-10). Both are expected to be taught until the end of Secondary 3 (ages 13-15). The government will not mandate specific languages, but rather these will be decided by schools and local authorities.^[4]

Language-learning uptake has been declining among UK students for decades, with French and German falling the most in the period 2013-2019.^{[5][6]} In 2020 it was reported that 30% of secondary schools in Scotland were failing to offer even one additional language, even though they are required by government to offer two.^[7]

United States

In most school systems, foreign language is taken in [high school](#), with many schools requiring one to three years of foreign language in order to graduate. In some school systems, foreign language is also taught during middle school, and more recently, many elementary schools have been teaching foreign languages as well. However, foreign language immersion programs are growing in popularity, making it possible for elementary school children to begin serious development of a second language.

In 2008 the Center for Applied Linguistics conducted an extensive survey documenting foreign language study in the United States.^[8] The most popular language is [Spanish](#), due to the large number of recent Spanish-speaking immigrants to the United States (see [Spanish in the United States](#)). According to this survey, in 2008 88% of language programs in elementary schools taught Spanish, compared to 93% in secondary schools. Other languages taught in U.S. high schools in 2008, in descending order of frequency, were [French](#), [German](#), [Latin](#), [Mandarin Chinese](#), [American Sign Language](#), [Italian](#), and [Japanese](#). During the [Cold War](#), the United States government pushed for [Russian](#) education, and some schools still maintain their Russian programs.^[9] Other languages recently gaining popularity include [Arabic](#). The Center for Applied Linguistics also conducted a study that concluded that while the number of schools from the elementary to secondary level offering foreign language instruction are on the rise, a pitfall of the curriculum is that students are not becoming proficient in the target languages. Researchers also note that American students of foreign languages significantly underperform in comparison to their European and Asian counterparts. It has been suggested that a system where foreign language instruction is required from PK-12 should be implemented in order to fix this problem.

Lecture 25

Stages of teaching foreign languages

Presentation Objective

By the end of this presentation, you will be able to name and define the different stages of a communicative lesson explain how the stages build on one another in a sequence explain connections between a communicative lesson objective and the stages of the lesson

Orientation

“Staging a lesson” means creating a structured sequence of activities that lead to the lesson objective.

- 1. Prior knowledge elicited (recall)**
- 2. Presentation and highly structured practice (learning and processing)**
- 3. Practice with less guidance (analysis and evaluation)**
- 4. Use in real-life situations (application and synthesis)**

Consider: Can you think of an example of lesson staging from your own experience as a learner?

Elements of a Well-Staged Lesson

A well staged lesson

- Elicits and builds on learners' prior knowledge Uses structured (risk-free) practice to build learner knowledge and understanding
- Provides opportunities to use new language with less guidance to build confidence, control, and ownership
- Encourages and enables learners to try out the new language, risks and all, in real-life situations

Analysis of an Example

Think about what you saw and heard in the New American Horizons video Teaching Grammar in Real-life Contexts (<http://www.newamericanhorizons.org/training-videos>).

What stages did you see?

How did the stage(s) build toward the lesson objective?

Lesson objective:

Learners will be able to use the present perfect and the past tense accurately to describe their life and work experiences (in order to answer experience questions in job interviews later).

To begin, the teacher used a warmup and an introduction:

Introduction

Teacher presented goal of talking about life events.

Warm up /review

Teacher showed pictures from her past and put various events on her timeline.

Then she presented the grammar in the context she had established in the warmup. This was followed by practice.

Interactive presentation

Teacher talked about the timeline, elicited learners' prior knowledge, helped learners use grammar in context.

Practice

Teacher and learners talked about two famous people using the grammar that had been presented.

Examples from the Practice Stage

Guided activities

Students make sentences using "for" and "since"

"Ball toss" drill with question "How long have you lived in Minnesota?"

Interview grid

Examples from the Practice Stage

Communicative activities

Guessing about Barack Obama's and Marc Anthony's lives

Information gap activity about Obama and Anthony

Potential Evaluation Tasks

The video does not show the lesson evaluation. How would you have evaluated learners' achievement of the objective?

Learners complete a paper and pencil test with fill-in-the-blank of teacher's life story; students use "for" and "since" clues to guide choice of verb forms.

Learners ask and answer questions about their life events. Two questions require use of the simple past, two require use of the present perfect.

Learners correct a paragraph that has errors in simple past and present perfect usage.

Learners listen to an interview with Obama where he talks about his past. Learners mark whether he answers a question in the past or present perfect.

Ways of Staging a Lesson

The next four slides describe different ways of staging a lesson. As you review them, think about these questions:

What do the different staging models have in common?

Which type(s) of staging have you experienced as a language learner?

Which type(s) of staging, if any, would you consider most effective in your teaching context?

Why?

EL lesson planning

The important condition of effectiveness of ELT is planning of teachers and students activity for a lesson and a system of lessons. **The aim of EL lesson planning** is to define the content of the lesson and algorithm of operations and actions of the teacher and learners.

Thematic plan is enveloped as a serial number of lessons. As a rule, it is one of the themes of communication, which includes itself also vocabulary, grammar and country-study material.

Perspective planning defines the system of a teacher and students activity for the whole stage of ELT.

There are different principles of lesson planning. The most important among them are variety, flexibility, examining the subject matter from the learners' point of view, considering individual differences, language backgrounds and past experience.

The structure of the lesson

There is no general scheme of the lesson structure which can be obligatory for all lessons. Some of the stages of a lesson are involving into language atmosphere. This stage includes various tasks or activities. One of them is a phonetic drill. The atmosphere communication created at the beginning of the lesson can last during the whole lesson. The dominant place is given to the teacher's communicative action related to motivation, instructions, control and evaluation.

These stages are considered as reasonable from methodical point of view:

1. Involving into the language atmosphere;
2. Explanation of the new material and algorithm of operations and actions with it;
3. Doing exercises as practicing and activating the new material;
4. Writing down and explanation of the homework, summarizing the lesson's results and marking.

In the domestic methodology the following types of the lesson are distinguished":

1) The lessons are directed to acquire a) language elements on lexical, phonetic and grammatical levels and language use as a result of this type of a lesson is obtaining the linguistic competence.

2) The lessons are directed to acquire communicative activity. The aim of this type of a lesson is developing listening, reading, speaking and writing skills.

3) The lessons which combine previous types of lessons are directed to acquire knowledge, language sub-skills and communicative skills. In the practice of teaching the preference is given more to this type of a lesson.

Besides in methodology of FLT the different lesson organization approaches as teaching models are used:

- 1) Presentation -> Practice -> Production (PPP);

- 2) Engage -> Study -> Activate (ESA);
- 3) Test -> Teach -> Test (TTT);
- 4) Task-based approach (TBA).

Questions:

1. What is the aim of teaching according to the text?
2. What qualities are required from teachers in order to develop the full potential of each child?
3. How should the teaching process be organized for today's children, and why?
4. What does it mean to create an ideal learning environment, and why is it important?
5. What are some examples of general habits and words that a teacher should avoid when trying to engage students with a topic?
6. Why are animated videos and presentations important parts of effective teaching?
7. How can a teacher use real examples in their speech to engage students with a topic?
8. What are some modern requirements for foreign language lessons, and how can lesson plans be produced based on these requirements?

Correct answers:

1. The aim of teaching is to develop the full potential of each child.
2. Teachers need to be responsible, creative, and energetic in order to notice the pupils' interest and desire immediately.
3. Teaching process should be organized by providing an active atmosphere and recognizing that each child is individual.
4. An ideal learning environment is one where the pupil sees, hears and feels the material themselves and behaves freely, which helps them absorb the topic better.
5. General habits and words like "This year is going to be great", "You are going to learn all about...", "What did we learn during last..." should be avoided because they do not engage students with the topic.
6. Animated videos and presentations are important parts of effective teaching because they help students visualize and understand complex concepts.

7. A teacher can use real examples in their speech to engage students with a topic by making it more relatable and interesting.

8. Modern requirements for foreign language lessons include creating an interactive and communicative classroom environment, using technology effectively, and incorporating cultural elements into lessons. Lesson plans can be produced based on these requirements by focusing on student-centered activities, using authentic materials, and incorporating real-life situations into lessons.

Questions:

1. What is the goal of each lesson, and why is it important?
2. How should a teacher define the goal of a lesson in relation to the whole system of lessons?
3. What is the role of speech themes in organizing a cycle of lessons?
4. How can a teacher plan for developing communicative skills within a cycle of lessons?
5. How long can a cycle of lessons last, and what is the recommended distribution of material across the cycle?
6. What are some possible activities that can be included in a successful lesson, and how do they promote learning?
7. What are the four possible ways to arrange a class, and how do they differ in terms of learning potentials?
8. When is whole-class teaching appropriate, and when should a teacher transition to other types of learning?
9. Why does the goal of the lesson determine the character of homework?
10. What is the author's main argument about conducting a successful lesson?

Correct answers:

1. The goal of each lesson is an important part of the learning outcome, and understanding it is crucial for effective teaching.
2. A teacher should not define the goal of a lesson irrelatively with the whole system of lessons, as this can lead to confusion and lack of coherence.
3. Speech themes play a central role in defining the cycle of lessons, as they provide a content-communicative principle for organizing the material.
4. A teacher can plan for developing communicative skills by selecting words and structures to learn, situations and patterns to follow, and materials for practice and production.
5. A cycle of lessons can last 3-6 lessons, with the early stage lasting 2-3 lessons and 5-9 forms lasting 5-6 lessons. The work is distributed into the cycle according to the stages of developing necessary skills.
6. Possible activities that can be included in a successful lesson include whole-class teaching, individual work, group work, and pair work. These activities promote learning by creating opportunities for interaction among the teacher and students.
7. The four possible ways to arrange a class are whole-class teaching, individual work, group work, and pair work. They differ in terms of learning potentials, with each offering different benefits and drawbacks.
8. Whole-class teaching is appropriate when introducing new material or concepts, while other types of learning can be used to promote student-to-student interaction and allow students to work at their own pace.

9. The goal of the lesson determines the character of homework because it reflects what was taught during the lesson and what skills need to be developed further.

10. The author's main argument is that conducting a successful lesson requires careful planning based on speech themes, clear goals and objectives, and effective use of different types of interactions between the teacher and students.

Questions:

1. What is the aim of EL lesson planning?
2. How is a thematic plan structured in ELT, and what does it typically include?
3. What is perspective planning in ELT, and what does it define?
4. What are some important principles of lesson planning in ELT?
5. Is there a general scheme for the structure of an ELT lesson?
6. What is the purpose of involving students into the language atmosphere at the beginning of a lesson?
7. What are the four stages of a lesson that are considered reasonable from a methodical point of view?
8. What are the three types of lessons distinguished in domestic methodology, and what are their aims?
9. What are some different approaches to lesson organization used as teaching models in FLT?

Correct answers:

1. The aim of EL lesson planning is to define the content of the lesson and algorithm of operations and actions of the teacher and learners.
2. A thematic plan is structured as a serial number of lessons, usually focused on one theme of communication that includes vocabulary, grammar, and country-study material.
3. Perspective planning defines the system of a teacher and students activity for the whole stage of ELT.
4. Important principles of lesson planning in ELT include variety, flexibility, examining the subject matter from the learners' point of view, considering individual differences, language backgrounds, and past experience.
5. No, there is no general scheme for the structure of an ELT lesson.
6. Involving students into the language atmosphere at the beginning of a lesson helps create a communicative environment that can last throughout the lesson.
7. The four stages of a lesson that are considered reasonable from a methodical point of view are: involving into the language atmosphere; explanation of the new material and algorithm of operations and actions with it; doing exercises as practicing and activating the new material; writing down and explanation of the homework, summarizing the lesson's results and marking.
8. The three types of lessons distinguished in domestic methodology are: language elements on lexical, phonetic and grammatical levels; communicative activity; and a combination of knowledge, language sub-skills, and communicative skills.
9. Different approaches to lesson organization used as teaching models in FLT include Presentation -> Practice -> Production (PPP); Engage -> Study -> Activate (ESA); Test -> Teach -> Test (TTT); and Task-based approach (TBA).

PPP Presentation, Practice, Production

Presentation of the target language and content

2. Practice of the target language and content in guided, accuracy-focused activities

3. Production of the target language and content in less controlled, fluency-focused activities

TBI - Task-based Instruction

This model is also called Task-based Learning

Teacher primes and prepares the learners

Learners complete the task

Learners develop reports on the results

Learners report back and get feedback

Teacher provides focus on form as needed

Lecture 26

Error correction and feedback

Correction

As mentioned previously, research has shown that correcting students' grammar errors when they speak does not often result in improvement in their grammatical accuracy.

Also, correction can disrupt communication and discourage learners. However, error correction probably helps learners at least a little, not only because many learners want and expect it but also because “negotiation for meaning, including the repair of communication breakdown, plays a formative role in language acquisition. . . . To achieve autonomy in a skill such as speaking, the learner first needs to experience the mediation of a ‘better other,’ whether parent, peer, or teacher” (Thornbury, 2012, p. 202). The question thus becomes when and how to correct.

Correction is most called for when errors interfere with communication — when you can't understand what a student is trying to say. The disadvantages of interrupting here are minimal because communication has already broken down, and the student needs to know that the message is not getting through. Other kinds of errors that are good candidates for correction include

1. Errors that are highly stigmatized and that might result in a student seeming rude, offensive, or ignorant.
2. Frequent or patterned errors. For example, correcting occasional confusion between countable and ncountable nouns is less important than correcting a consistent, patterned failure to use plural forms.

3. Errors that reflect misunderstanding of a point that you have recently taught. For example, the –s added to verbs used in conjunction with the third-person singular pronoun (I go/you go/she goes) deserves more attention if you taught the point this week than it might at other times.

FROM DON: I'm reminded of a young official at a bicycle registration station in Guangzhou who led me into his office, filled out a form for me, then turned around and, with a smile, said "Get out!" Sensing miscommunication, I suggested gently in Chinese that get out was not entirely polite. He took this news in, pondered a minute, brightened up, and said, "Get out, please!" Some students are put off less by correction and learn more from it than other students, so part of the art of knowing when to correct is being sensitive to how much intrusion the students can bear.

One form of correction you can use in class is the one used most often by native speakers in natural conversation: a corrected repetition of the learner's faulty utterance (e.g., Student: "I like to listen radio." Teacher: "Ah, you like to listen to the radio."). This kind of subtle correction disrupts communication less than directly pointing out errors does, and students will eventually learn to listen for it; however, unless you explicitly point out this habit to students as a form of correction, many may miss these repetitions. A more direct approach to correction is to pinpoint the error by interrupting and repeating the few words right before the mistake (e.g., Student: "And then I ate the food." Teacher: "And then I . . ."), giving the student a chance to self-correct. This approach is appropriate for errors that are easy to correct quickly.

For either of the approaches mentioned above to work, your feedback needs to come as soon as possible after the erroneous statement. If you restate an utterance or call attention to an error immediately after it has been made, students are more likely to be able to find the problem.

Delayed correction is often more obtrusive because when you remind students of what they said wrong, they may mistake your reminder for the correction itself, thus creating confusion and necessitating further explanation. Here's an example:

Teacher: A minute ago you said "I like to listen radio."

Student: I like to listen radio.

Teacher: No, no, you said "I like to listen radio," but you should say "I like to listen to the radio."

Student: Pardon?

All too often in such cases, you can begin correcting the error only after the student has been publicly convicted of making it, so it is usually better to let the error go or make a note of it for later.

A final note on error correction: Many students have the mistaken impression that all native speakers of English should and will correct mistakes; in fact, we have heard

students complain quite bitterly about native speakers who fail to live up to this assumed obligation. You should let students know that this is an unreasonable expectation for native speakers of any language. Most people are not language teachers and do not engage in conversation for the purpose of teaching language. Additionally, in many cultures, correcting other people's mistakes is considered rude. As noted, native speakers sometimes repeat corrected versions of flawed utterances, but they generally correct or teach overtly only when asked or when communication breaks down completely.

Students need to understand this because many believe that being surrounded by native speakers who will verbally correct mistakes is the only way they can achieve English-speaking success. Of course, being immersed in an English language environment is very helpful to a learner, but not because of correction. The main advantage of having such an environment is that it provides more opportunities for practice and extensive English language input.

However, whether students are in an English-speaking environment or not, they will only benefit from English input if they learn to attend to it and then correct their own mistakes.

Evaluation

When considering evaluation of spoken skills, you should keep two goals in mind. Obviously, one goal is to find out how well the students can speak. The second, and perhaps more important goal, is the backwash that oral testing creates: Students are most likely to practice speaking if you test oral skills. With speaking skills, backwash is especially important to consider; because speaking skills are more difficult to test than other language skills, many teachers neglect them.

Interviewing is generally the best way to evaluate spoken skills, so we focus on interviews here. However, complete reliance on interviewing may be impractical in many situations, so we also briefly discuss other approaches to evaluation.

Interviews

Interviewing is the form of evaluation closest to actual conversation and has excellent backwash on students. It also allows you a rare opportunity to focus on individual students' speaking skills in a situation where you can determine their level of speaking skill relatively accurately. The main drawback of interviewing is that it is very time-consuming, sometimes prohibitively so for large classes. Interviews are often used as a pretest (and a chance to get to know the students at the beginning of a course) and as a final examination.

Preparing for the Interview

The first step in preparation is deciding what exactly you are looking for. Grammatical accuracy? Use of material taught in your course? Pronunciation? Overall

communicative skill? Your choices should flow naturally from the goals you set for your course and the kinds of practice activities you have given your students. The backwash will be stronger if you let students know well before the final exam how they will be evaluated and how they should prepare.

Secondly, draw up a list of topics or questions, giving yourself an adequate supply so that you need not use exactly the same ones with each student. Questions should reflect a range of difficulty so that you have easier questions for students at lower levels and more challenging ones for those with more advanced skills. Open-ended questions are best (e.g., “What do you think about. . . ?” “Tell me about. . . ?”) because they don’t result in dead-end, yes/no answers; they also allow you to see how much students can elaborate on a point, which is one indication of their level of speaking ability. Natural questions for a pretest interview with students you don’t know would be questions about their backgrounds, families, interests, and professions. For a final interview, you might discuss issues raised during the course, other courses the student is taking, or future plans.

Many teachers draw up a marking chart to help them grade during the interview. A simple chart consists of a list of the items you are looking for with a point scale for each.

Consider the following simple example below for a course in which communicative effectiveness was stressed:

Sample Scoring Chart

Ability to express ideas 1 2 3 4 5

Range of topics 1 2 3 4 5

Listening comprehension 1 2 3 4 5

Intelligibility 1 2 3 4 5

In designing such a scale, make sure it clearly reflects the goals of the course so that students are rewarded for doing what you have asked them to do. Though this point may seem obvious, it is worth emphasizing because sometimes the skills you have emphasized in your course are difficult to assess — and you may be tempted to place more emphasis.

Lecture 27

Learner differences: teaching heterogeneous classes

1. What is heterogeneous class of learners?
2. How do you deal with heterogeneous classes?
3. Why is heterogeneous classroom a challenge to teachers?
4. What is the difference between homogeneous and heterogeneous teaching?

Keywords: Classroom, teacher, homogeneous, heterogeneous, ability, activity, level.

In fact there is no the same people in the world. Humans are different from other due to their sense, character, wish, interest, habits and in the community they show this diversity. In particular, when setting up a classroom exercise or activity arranging the class into groups is really challenging according to their level in the curriculum. Is it better to put them into heterogeneous groups, which comprise students of differing ability, or homogeneous groups, which contain students of similar ability? This article purposes to explore a brief introduction to the importance of them and focus more attention on some strategies to teach in heterogeneous classroom.

Obviously, the main purpose of teaching is sharing and gaining knowledge. AS every educator has own teaching methods and pupils has learning style. It has already admitted group learning is the most effective way to learn and teach by sharing ideas, comparing thoughts and discussion by analysing data or solve problems in challenging tasks. Also, according to scholars Marzano, Pickering and Pollock, effective learning in groups must have at least the following elements:

- The work must involve every member of the group.
- Each person has a valid job to perform with a known standard of completion.
- Each member is invested in completing the task or learning goal.
- Each member is accountable individually and collectively

What is heterogeneous class of learners?

Heterogeneous grouping is a distribution tactic in the classroom, whereby diverse students (for example, students that have learning disabilities and students who are gifted) are placed in different classrooms so that they can apply their skills and abilities more evenly through their cohort.

As well as for conducting the lesson, it is important to arrange learners. However it is difficult to select learners according to their knowledge and abilities to learn.

Therefore, modern teachers should clarify their way to select learners. Actually there types of learner classes: homogeneous and heterogeneous. Both of them are really important and have benefits. Prior to discuss, both term should be defined. A heterogeneous class could be defined as “one that has different kinds of learners in it”. Since students of EFL classrooms more than often have various levels of language proficiency, every class can be considered multilevel to some degree. By contrast, “Homogeneous grouping is the placement of students of similar abilities into one classroom. All gifted children within the same grade level will be in the same classroom. The term more often refers to students with disabilities rather than students who are gifted or advanced. “In reality, in any class all learners are unique since language learners move at different rates, some of them are at ease with receptive skills, such as, listening and understanding written material, the others are good at productive skills, interpersonal communication or so on.

According to P. Ur, several aspects contribute to the formation of a heterogeneous class, namely, “language knowledge, cultural background, attitude to the language, mother tongue, intelligence, world knowledge, learning experiences, knowledge of other languages...”. The other name of heterogeneous is mixed –ability class. In a group that has a mixed ability, these students have the opportunity to follow the lead of their more capable peers, picking up things that they may not study from teachers. They could also feel more confident speaking up about their confusion with a smaller group of their peers than they would in teachers’ presence in front of the whole class.

According to M. Rogers, there are three categories of learners: high-level, at-level, and low-level learners. Above-level students attempt to explain the instructions or the grammar rule to a below-level student. Two at-level students can mutually help each other to work out a solution posed by the instructor.

Finally, from the position of a teacher, large, heterogeneous classes are demanding to train, require extra time and preparation; however, they foster teacher's creativity, flexibility, tolerance and resistance to stress. At-grade students also benefit from being grouped with their more capable peers. Working closely with others can help land small kernels of knowledge that may further their understanding and progress.

Since, in heterogeneous class is full of various abilities to learn, teachers should accommodate them. The most essential thing is to find out who high level is or who can learn slowly. By the help of questionnaires and observation it will be apparent in preliminary lessons. The trainers should prepare some sheets of questionnaires in advance with some questions their habits, interests and wishes. After the results, teachers can know how to teach and give materials to them. After clarifying abilities of learners the next alternative is to form students from heterogeneous classes into small temporary groups within the classroom. Here, the educator present the lesson, then split

the class into prearranged groups based on ability, prior knowledge, and interests (Renzulli, 1994, as cited in Tieso, 2003). The teacher would have to differentiate the lessons and activities for the various groups to optimize the lesson. This would require the teachers to learn and master a new teaching technique, and to concentrate on lessons that stress higher order cognitive learning rather than drill and practice (Tieso, 2003). For these techniques to be effective, the instruction must be varied in content, speed, presentation method and style (Tieso, 2005).

The curriculum revision must involve “the critical analysis and remodelling of existing curriculum in order to improve the quality or rigour of the content, the assessment, the teaching and learning activities, the resources, the assignments, or the overall alignment among these components” (Tieso, 2005). In theoretical pedagogy it is easy to give some solutions for managing mixed-ability classes or for teaching them ,nevertheless teaching heterogeneous pupils is really difficult because of many reasons.

Firstly, there are some pupils that have unreasonable intelligence and more energetic than other. They can do the tasks earlier than teachers expect and as a result they may feel bored or begin to interrupt the lesson. In this time teachers should be ready for this kind of situation that is preparing extra –materials based on the subject or non-based such as puzzles or riddles which to make the energetic student busy until other pupils finish their task. Of course, the given further task should be checked during the lesson or after the lesson lest the pupil will not even pay attention to the extra material and feel disappointed that effects disliking the subject and the teacher as well. On the other hand ,there are some students are really slow to learn or do the exercise due to his/her ability to learn.

The main action of teachers is encouragement. Motivating and praise low- level learners helps to move ahead and feel themselves they are not just bad learner, their habit is just low speed to learn. For these kind of learners also can be given extra-materials by consideration their level of knowledge and interest. It might be colouring or painting, singing songs or making something by hand related to the subject or the theme.

Among the different pedagogies I actually use in my lectures are the Socratic questioning or the generative questioning out of which you can get different questions from different students each according to his ability. Another approach is map concepts via which each one can participate according to her/his ability; open- ended questions encourage no fixed answers can be functioning in the nonhomogeneous classes. Adding to the above-mentioned teaching strategies that I personally apply in my lectures, I continually provide students with warmth and friendship that can give self-reliance and willingness to work regardless of the level each student represents”.

Socratic questioning is a form of disciplined questioning that can be used to pursue thought in many directions and for many purposes, including: to explore

complex ideas, to get to the truth of things, to open up issues and problems, to uncover assumptions, to analyse concepts, to distinguish what we know from what we do not know, to follow out logical consequences of thought or to control discussions.

How do you deal with heterogeneous classes?

How do you deal with heterogeneity due to differences in prior knowledge?

1. Formulate clear expectations to the students. ...
2. Provide self-study material. ...
3. Let students identify their own prior knowledge. ...
4. Provide opportunities for revision during a contact moment.
5. Why is heterogeneous classroom a challenge to teachers?
6. Classrooms in educational institutions consist of students with varying learning abilities. Faculty delivering a lecture in a uniform pitch in such classrooms will fail to teach and reach the learning levels of heterogeneous student groups.
7. What is the difference between homogeneous and heterogeneous teaching?
8. Students can work together in two different types of pairs or groups, heterogeneous or homogeneous. In heterogeneous groups students work with other students who are at different reading levels than them. In a homogeneous group student's work with students who are at the same reading level that they are.

How do you teach a heterogeneous class?

Strategies for Inclusive Teaching

1. Examine your content for diverse perspectives.
2. Be transparent about expectations.
3. Design inclusive assessments.
4. Provide multiple means of representation.
5. Create accessible content.
6. Illustrate concepts with multiple and diverse examples.
7. Give students choice, where appropriate.
8. What are the benefits of heterogeneous classes?
9. Heterogeneous teams maximize the opportunity to learn different thinking skills. The more there is diversity, the more we can learn from each other. By explaining to a student who is thinking differently about a problem or issue, a student is challenged to stretch or cement his/her own learning.

Is teaching large heterogeneous classes a problem?

The first Difficulties a large class encounters is that because there are so many students, the teacher cannot give attention equally to all of them. Therefore, when questions are asked, only more able and less shy students are eager to answer. Too often, interaction is restricted to students in the front rows.

CONCLUSION

Socratic questioning is based on the foundation that thinking has structured logic, and allows underlying thoughts to be questioned. This style assists to be independent

learner and thinker for students and allow them be out of the box. Also it can develop their critical thinking and analysing data carefully.

Concept maps are visual representations of information. They can take the form of charts, graphic organizers, tables, flowcharts, Venn Diagrams, timelines, or T-charts. Concept maps are especially useful for students who learn better visually, although they can benefit any type of learner. They are a powerful study strategy because they help you see the big picture: by starting with higher-level concepts, concept maps help you chunk information based on meaningful connections. In other words, knowing the big picture makes details more significant and easier to remember.

Concept maps work very useful for classes or content that have visual elements or in times when it is important to see and understand relationships between different things. They can also be used to analyse information and compare and contrast.

Lecture 28

Teacher development: Competence in teaching foreign languages

1. What is the teacher competence in teaching foreign language?
2. What is the developmental goal of teaching a foreign language?
3. What is the role of the teacher in competency based language teaching?
4. What is competence based approach in foreign language education?

Introduction

Teachers are unequivocally the most important influencers of society since they shape the lives of children, and thus our future. In addition to this, teacher training is also the most important part of any education system. Teachers should be equipped with the knowledge and skills to embrace new systems and methods according to the changing circumstances and needs of society. In our era, with the advances of technology, everything changes rapidly, and new methods or tools for education are invented. Furthermore, every educational context is unique in its own way, and accordingly, educational contexts need to be analyzed and evaluated in their own dynamics.

Teacher competencies

Giving a comprehensible definition of a good teacher is almost impossible; however, we will try to present it by basing on the relevant literature and discussions. Globally speaking, we have been experiencing unnecessarily rapid changes in every aspect of our lives. These changes are sometimes implemented instantly and can be observed in the

immediate material world; our cell phones, cars, televisions, and houses are updated and change before our eyes. The first industrial revolution was possible because of machines; the second revolution was led by electricity; the third one was digitally oriented because of the widespread use of the Internet; and Industry 4.0, as the name suggests, is a software-driven paradigm (Lasi et al., 2014). However, when it comes to matters that are directly related to individuals and society, it takes a while to realize these changes. Naturally, education, which is one of these topics, cannot be isolated from the changes in the immediate material world.

As Hussin (2018, p. 92) suggests, IR 4.0 affects not only the business, governance and the people, it also affects education as well; thus the name Education 4.0 came to Education 4.0 is obviously an analogy and a response to Industry 4.0, where an alignment between humans and technology is sought to enable new possibilities (Hussin, 2018). As the analogy goes, classrooms full of students with teachers as the authoritative figures can be called the first version of education. In these traditional teacher-centered settings, interactions were generally one-way, and individual existence was somehow ignored. Generations were educated this way, and it was the norm until modern technology showed up. The basic use of technology in educational settings can be regarded as the second version of education. Photocopy machines, televisions, and videotapes can be regarded in this version of education. When the Internet appeared in the 1980s, the world started to become a smaller place with people communicating with each other 24/7. An information-technology-driven approach to education emerged, and all around the world, people found personalized ways to socialize and learn; the educational setting that appeared during this period can be regarded as the third version of education. These days, a newer version, Education 4.0, is a topic of discussion. This version of education is deeply interrelated with artificial intelligence and related technologies, and as Peters (2017) suggests, to adjust to the Industrial Revolution 4.0, education must become an open ecosystem by utilizing new technology. Although some people naively believe that technology will replace teachers soon, a more realistic vision tells us that teachers who use technology will replace teachers who cannot (Clifford, 1987). At this point, it is quite obvious that the biggest load of Education 4.0 will be on shoulders. roles and their professional identity are very likely to go through deep changes, and teacher education programs must be the first place to start adopting these possible changes. Teacher education programs train teachers based on target teacher competencies, and it would be safe to assume that teacher competencies are an important part of all types of planning and adapting that are related to education. However, as Kress (2000) suggests, previous era had required an education for stability, the coming era requires an education for (p. 133). The term

seems to be easy to explain and understand, but actually, it is quite a challenging task to talk about it. First of all, teaching competence and teacher competencies should be regarded as two related but different concepts. Teaching competence can be regarded as the general skill that that one individual possesses, and competencies are sub-skills that one needs to teach effectively. These competencies can be taught, and teacher candidates can be trained to practice them. Teacher competencies as a term originated from behavioral psychology and started to be regarded as a set of theory-free, practical teaching skills after the late 1960s (Wubbels, 2010). From this perspective, teacher trainees were supposed to watch the teacher and, in time, they would become masters themselves. Of course, this type of teacher training is open to criticism, and its validity to form a basis for higher education curriculum has been debated (Barnett, 1994; Korthagen, 2004). Barnett (1994) suggested that higher education should not be regarded as a matter of developing competencies for a specific occupation, and to him, competencies are predictable behaviors that require predictable situations. However, teaching in this age cannot be reduced to applying certain teaching techniques in certain situations. Although there are elements of teacher knowledge that are shared by all teachers or large groups of (Verloop et al., 2001, p. 441), teaching is highly context-bound, and it requires an understanding of the dynamics of the specific educational context. For quite a long time, a mechanistic view of teaching was the dominant paradigm, and its complexity was ignored (Doyle, 1990; Shulman, 1987). However, after criticisms coming from various circles, including teachers themselves, researchers shifted their attention from observable teacher behaviors to the cognition and beliefs of the teachers (Verloop et al., 2001). On the other hand, it is almost common sense to believe that theoretical principles and teacher expertise should play equally important roles in teacher education (see the first discussions in Shulman, 1987; Stones, 1994). In discussions about teacher competencies, the distinctions between content and pedagogical content knowledge frequently appear. Content knowledge is basically knowledge of the subject matter that they are teaching. Obviously, content knowledge plays an important role in effective teaching. For example, a language content knowledge will help them understand problems about the target language better, and in turn, leading to better decisions about constructing learning activities. Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), on the other hand, is based on the idea that teaching is much more than just delivering the contents of the subject matter, and learning is much more than just absorbing information coming from the teacher. As Loughran et al. (2012) suggest, is the knowledge that teachers develop over time, and through experience, about how to teach particular content in particular ways in order to lead to enhanced student (p. 7). In other words, content knowledge is mostly related to the of teaching, and pedagogical knowledge is related to the of teaching. However, these two categories are only two of the teacher knowledge, and as the related literature suggests, there are

other types of knowledge that teachers are supposed to possess. In his seminal work, Shulman (1987, p. 8) summarized the categories of the knowledge base for teachers as follows:

Content knowledge

General pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter;

Curriculum knowledge, with particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as tools of the for teachers;

Pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding;

Knowledge of learners and their characteristics;

Knowledge of educational contexts, ranging from the workings of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures;

Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds.

Foreign Language Competencies

When it comes to specific competencies that a language teacher should possess, we can say that content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and technological pedagogical knowledge would not be enough. Jack Richards, who is an outstanding figure in the field of foreign language teaching, published an article titled competence and Performance in Language in 2010. In this article, he first examines foreign language teacher competencies under ten main categories and then analyzes them one by one. Richards (2010), considering the relevant studies, specifies main foreign language competencies as:

- 1) The language proficiency factor
- 2) The role of content knowledge
- 3) Teaching skills
- 4) Contextual knowledge
- 5) The language identity
- 6) Learner-focused teaching
- 7) Pedagogical reasoning skills
- 8) Theorizing from practice
- 9) Membership of a community of practice
- 10) Professionalism

The language proficiency factor:

Quoting Canagarajah (1999), Richards (2010) states that most of the language teachers all around the world, especially teachers of English, are not native speakers. Talking about his own observations, he mentions that he has seen non-native teachers doing wonders in the classroom and native speakers sometimes causing disasters in their

language classrooms. According to him, this means that in order to teach English well, teachers do not need to have a native-like command of English. Richards (2010, p. 103) lists the language-specific competencies that a teacher should have as follows:

- a) To understand the texts written in the target language.
- b) To be a good model.
- c) To be able to use the target language throughout the lesson.
- d) To be able to use the target language fluently.
- e) To be able to give instructions and explanations in the target language.
- f) To be able to exemplify new vocabulary and grammar points and provide accurate explanations.
- g) To be able to use appropriate classroom language.
- h) To be able to select appropriate resources and materials for language classrooms (for instance, newspapers, magazines, websites).
- i) To be able to monitor their accurate use of language.
- j) To be able to give feedback at the right time according to the activity at hand.
- k) To be able to provide input at level.
- l) To be able to give students opportunities to experience and enrich their language.

The role of content knowledge: This aspect includes discussions about what and how much language teachers should know about the target language. Pedagogical content knowledge emerges from the study of language teaching and learning, and it includes teaching language.

Teaching skills:

This dimension of teacher competencies is generally related to teaching competencies and performance. It includes general teaching techniques and routines. Foreign language teacher training involves uncovering a collection of teaching skills acquired through practical teaching in a controlled environment and often using activities such as microteaching or peer teaching or by observing experienced practices. In this dimension of foreign language teacher training, the following skills should be considered:

- a) Opening the lesson.
- b) Introducing and explaining the tasks and activities.
- c) Organizing learning.
- d) Comprehension check.
- e) Guiding students.
- f) Checking language.
- g) Transition between tasks.
- h) Ending the lesson.

Any teacher preparation program should take many aspects of teaching and learning process into consideration such as knowledge, skills, cognition, beliefs and educational, social, cultural factors and even ideological movements. Kumaravadivelu (2012) claims that these factors are not enough in our era; we need to add global economic trends and global cultural flows as well, and he proposes a modular model that tries to answer some questions for teachers to understand

- a) how to build a viable professional, personal, and procedural knowledge base;
- b) how to explore needs, motivation, and autonomy;
- c) how to recognize their own identities, beliefs and values;
- d) how to do the right kind of teaching, theorizing, and dialogizing;
- e) how to see their own teaching acts by taking into account learner, teacher, and observer perspectives on classroom events and activities.

O‘ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI

OLIY TA‘LIM, FAN VA INNOVATSIYALAR VAZIRLIGI

FARG‘ONA DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI

“TASDIQLAYMAN”

Fakultet dekani

_____ N. I. Toirova

“ ___ ” _____ 2023 yil

TILLAR O‘QITISH METODIKASI VA TA‘LIM TEXNOLOGIYALARI FANIDAN

SILLABUS

Ta‘lim yo‘nalishi: 60111800- Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili)

O‘qitish kursi: 3

*(Sillabus Ingliz tili va adabiyoti fakultetining 2023 - yil “ ”-
-sonli majlisida muhokama qilingan va tasdiqlangan)*

Farg‘ona -2023

Fanning sillabusi Farg‘ona davlat universiteti Kengashining 2023 yil _____dagi _____sonli bayoni bilan tasdiqlangan.

Fanning sillabusi Farg‘ona davlat universiteti Ingliz tili va adabiyoti fakultetining 2023 yil _____dagi _____sonli yig‘ilishida tasdiqlangan.

Ushbu sillabus Ingliz tili va adabiyoti fakulteti Ingliz tilini o‘qitish metodikasi kafedrasining 2023 -yil _____dagi _____sonli majlisida muhokama qilingan va tasdiqlangan

Kafedra mudiri :

N. Xoshimova

| | |
|-----------------------------|--|
| Fanning nomi | Tillar o‘qitish metodikasi va ta’lim texnologiyalari |
| Fan turi | Majburiy |
| O‘qish davri | 5/6-semestr |
| Fan kodi | TO‘MeM309 |
| Fan hajmi | 4/4 kredit |
| Fanning umumiy soati | 240 soat |
| Auditoriya soatlari | 120 soat |
| Jumladan: | |
| Ma’ruza | 30/30 soat |
| Seminar mashg‘uloti | 30/30 soat |
| Mustaqil ta’lim | 60/60 soat |
| Nazorat shakli | JN, ON, YaN |
| O‘qitish shakli | Ingliz tili |

| | |
|----------------------------|--|
| Dastur mualliflari: | Axmedova Matlubaxon Ibragimjonovna – “Ingliz tilini o‘qitish metodikasi” kafedrasida v.b. dotsenti, p.f.f.d.(PhD) |
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| Kurs haqida qisqacha ma'lumot (QM) | |
|---|--|
| QM1 | Tillar o'qitish metodikasi va ta'lim texnologiyalari ma'ruza va seminar mashg'ulotlaridan iborat bo'lib, talabani chet tili o'qituvchisi kasbiy faoliyatiga nazariy hamda amaliy jihatdan tayyorlashdan iborat. Zamonaviy metodikaning asosiy muammolari bilan tanishtirish, ushbu fan talabalarni o'zlari ishlayotgan ta'lim muassasalarida olib boriladigan darslarda duch kelishi mumkin bo'lgan aniq vazifalarni mohirona hal etishga yo'naltiradi. Bunda asosiy e'tibor talabalarining amaliy ko'nikmalarini ishlab chiqish, asosiy kasbiy malakasining shakllanishi; darsning ongli, tarbiyaviy va ta'limiy maqsadlarini shakllantirish; mavzu asosida o'quv materialini rejalashtirish ; darsning rejasi va konspektini tuzish; savol va topshiriqlar tuzish, so'rovlar o'tkazish hamda bilimni daliliy baholash ; o'quvchilarning mustaqil ishini tashkil etish; hamkasblari va o'z darslarini tahlil qilishga qaratiladi. |

| Kursga qo'yiladigan boshlang'ich talablar | |
|--|---|
| 1. | Talabalar umume'tirof etilgan xalqaro me'yorlarga ko'ra o'rganilayotgan chet tilini B2 darajasida bilishlari kerak. |

| Ta'lim natijalari (TN) | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| TN1 | Umume'tirof etilgan xalqaro me'yorlarga ko'ra talabalarining o'rganilayotgan chet tilini C1 darajada egallashlari uchun zaruriy bilimlarni integrallashgan tarzda o'rgatadi va muloqot malakalarini rivojlantiradi |
| TN2 | Talabalar til o'qitishning zamonaviy, ilg'or va samarali metodlari bilan tanishtiriladi |
| TN3 | Chet tili o'qituvchisiga xos til ko'nikmalari amaliy tarzda o'rgatiladi |

5-semestr uchun

| Mashg'ulot shakli: Ma'ruza (M) | | Soat |
|---------------------------------------|--|-------------|
| M 1 | Introduction to the methodology of teaching foreign languages. Chet til o'qitish metodikasini fan sifatida o'qitish. Metodikaning ob'ekti va predmeti. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi kursi va uning chet til o'qituvchisining kasbiy tayyorgarligidagi o'rni. Umumiy va xususiy metodika tushunchalari. | 2 |
| M 2 | Aims of teaching foreign languages. Chet til o'qitishning maqsadi. Til komponentlarini o'rgatish uchun maqsadlarni qo'yish, shuningdek, har bir chet til o'qitishda maqsadlarni to'g'ri ta'riflab berish masalalari. | 2 |
| M 3 | Content of teaching foreign languages. Chet til o'qitishning mazmuni. | 2 |
| M 4 | Methods and principles of teaching foreign languages. Bugungi kunda professional til o'qituvchisi turli xil texnikalar va yangi yondashuvlarni yaxshi biladi va ular o'qitish metodikasining tarixi va evolyutsiyasini tushunadi. Zamonaviy o'qituvchi, aslida, har xil metodologiyalar va yondashuvlardan foydalanadi, har bir usuldan samarali deb hisoblaydi va ularni o'quv konteksti va maqsadlariga muvofiq qo'llaydi. | 2 |

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| M 5 | <p>Relation of methodology of teaching foreign languages with other sciences. Chet til o'qitish metodikasining boshqa fanlar bilan aloqasi Bu yerda chet tillarini o'qitish metodikasi maktablarda va boshqa o'quv yurtlarida chet tillarini o'qitishga oid, ilmiy sinovdan o'tgan nazariya to'plami sifatida tushuniladi. Chet tillarini o'qitish usullari boshqa fanlar bilan chambarchas bog'liq, masalan, pedagogika, psixologiya, fiziologiya, tilshunoslik va boshqalar.</p> | 2 |
| M 6 | <p>Aids of teaching foreign languages. Til komponentlarini o'rgatish uchun yordamchi vositalardan foydalanishning asosiy bosqichlarini qisqacha taqdim etish, shuningdek, har bir til komponentasini o'qitishni qo'llab-quvvatlash uchun ishlatilishi mumkin bo'lgan vositalarni tasvirlash kabi masalalar.</p> | 2 |
| M 7 | <p>Teaching vocabulary. Kuchli so'z boyligi muloqotning barcha sohalarini yaxshilaydi - tinglash, gapirish, o'qish va yozish. Lug'at quyidagi sabablarga ko'ra bolaning muvaffaqiyati uchun hal qiluvchi ahamiyatga ega. Lug'at bolalarga dunyoni o'ylashga va o'rganishga yordam beradi. O'quvchilarning so'zlar haqidagi bilimini kengaytirish yangi ma'lumotlarga cheksiz kirishni ta'minlaydi</p> | 2 |
| M 8 | <p>Investigating the learning and teaching of grammar Grammatikani o'rganish va o'qitish bo'yicha ikkinchi tilni o'rganish va amaliy tilshunoslik tadqiqot adabiyotlarini tanlab ko'rib chiqish uchta toifaga bo'linadi: bu yerda tadqiqot unchalik ta'sir qilmagan (interfeys bo'lmagan pozitsiya), oddiy ta'sir (shaklga yo'naltirilgan ko'rsatma) va potentsial. katta ta'sir ko'rsatishi mumkin (grammatikani qayta tiklash).</p> | 2 |
| M 9 | <p>Mastering the sounds of the language. Fonetika orqali talaffuz asoslarini o'rganib, o'quvchilar nafaqat bema'lol gapirishni o'rganadilar, balki tinglab tushunishni ham yaxshilaydilar. Shu bilan birga, Talaffuz o'qish qobiliyatini yaxshilash uchun muhim ahamiyatga ega.</p> | 2 |
| M 10 | <p>Teaching listening. Eshitish - bu boshqalarning nima deyayotganini aniqlash va tushunish qobiliyati. Bu so'zlovchining talaffuzini yoki talaffuzini, grammatikasini va so'z boyligini tushunish va uning ma'nosini tushunishni o'z ichiga oladi.</p> | 2 |
| M 11 | <p>Teaching speaking. Gapirish - insonning boshqasidan ajralib turadigan xususiyati. Tirik ongli mavjudot, chunki bu hamma odamlarning tilining tabiiy holati ona tilida gapirish uchun tug'ilganlar. Ikkinchi yoki chet tilini o'rganishda ko'pchilik talabalar nutqni muvaffaqiyatga erishish uchun eng qiyin ko'nikma deb bilishadi, chunki bunga ehtiyoj bor og'zaki muloqot, ham gapirish, ham tinglashdan iborat.</p> | 2 |
| M 12 | <p>Teaching reading. O'qish paytida matn haqida savollar berish; asosiy fikrlarni aniqlash; bashorat qilish uchun oldingi bilimlardan foydalanish. • Turli strategiyalarning kombinatsiyasini o'rgatish, bir narsaga e'tibor qaratishdan ko'ra yaxshiroqdir.</p> | 2 |
| M 13 | <p>Teaching writing. Yozishni o'rgatishning ba'zi usullari mavjud, ular rasmlardan, o'qishdan, boshqariladigan yozuvdan va rolli o'yinlardan foydalanadi. Texnikaning maqsadi - o'quvchilarni materiyani tushunishni rag'batlantirish va osonlashtirish strategiyasini o'rgatadi.</p> | 2 |

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| M 14 | Teaching the text: the goals Matnni o'qitishning asosiy maqsadlari, tarkibni tushunish. Matnni til konida o'qitishning asosiy maqsadlari tarkibni tushunish, til o'rganish, nutqni tahlil qilishdir. va keyin matnning turli jihatlari asosida keyingi vazifalar orqali boyitish. | 2 |
| M 15 | Assessment of language skills Ingliz tili ko'nikmalarini baholash IELTS - fanlarning ingliz tilini bilish darajasini aniqlash uchun mo'ljallangan testlar guruhi. Testlar ingliz tilini o'rganayotganlar orasidagi yutuqlarni kuzatish yoki ingliz tilini bilish talab qilinadigan ish yoki ta'lim darajasini bilish uchun ishlatilishi mumkin. | 2 |
| Jami: | | 30 |

Ma'ruza mashg'ulotlari multimedia qurilmalari bilan jihozlangan auditoriyada akadem guruhlar oqimi uchun o'tiladi.

5-semestr uchun

| Mashg'ulot shakli: Seminar (S) | | Soat |
|---------------------------------------|---|-------------|
| S 1 | Introduction to methodology of teaching English | 2 |
| S 2 | Aims of teaching foreign languages | 2 |
| S 3 | Content of teaching foreign languages | 2 |
| S 4 | Methods and principles of teaching foreign languages | 2 |
| S 5 | Relation of methodology of teaching foreign languages with other sciences | 2 |
| S 6 | Aids of teaching foreign languages | 2 |
| S 7 | Teaching vocabulary | 2 |
| S 8 | Investigating the learning and teaching of grammar | 2 |
| S 9 | Mastering the sounds of the language | 2 |
| S 10 | Teaching listening | 2 |
| S 11 | Teaching speaking | 2 |
| S 12 | Teaching reading | 2 |
| S 13 | Teaching writing | 2 |
| S 14 | Teaching the text: the goals | 2 |
| S 15 | Assessment of language skills | 2 |
| Jami: | | 30 |

Seminar mashg'ulotlar multimedia qurilmalari bilan jihozlangan auditoriyada har bir akadem guruhga alohida o'tiladi. Mashg'ulotlar interfaol usullari yordamida o'tiladi. Ko'rgazmali qurollar va multimediali vositalar qo'llash orqali o'tiladi.

6-semestr uchun

| Mashg'ulotlar shakli: Ma'ruza (M) | | soat |
|--|--|-------------|
| M 1 | Language teaching policy in the world | 2 |

| | | |
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| | Jahon lingvo-didaktikasida olib borilayotgan so'ngi ilmiy tadqiqotlar. Jahonda chet tillar ta'limini siyosatining olib borilishi | |
| M 2 | The syllabus design O'quv dasturining asosiy xususiyatlari va turlari: structural, grammatical syllabus, functional-notional syllabus, standards-based syllabus. | 2 |
| M 3 | Materials development Til o'rganuvchilarning yehtiyojlari, qiziqishlari va motivatsiyalari tufayli ular til o'rganishda individual farqlarni ko'rsatishi mumkin. Til dasturlarida qo'llaniladigan materiallar o'quvchilarga til haqida ma'lumot berish, qo'llanilayotgan til tajribasini taqdim yetish va o'quvchilarga o'zlari uchun til haqida kashfiyotlar qilishga yordam berishlari uchun ko'rsatma, tajriba, tushuntirish yoki izlanish bo'lishi mumkin. | 2 |
| M 4 | Forms of organizing lessons Dars maqsadini aniqlashni o'rganish, dars siklini o'rganish. | 2 |
| M 5 | Planning the lesson Dars rejasi ma'lum bir o'quvchilar guruhi uchun mo'ljallangan. Sinf vaqti har xil bo'lishi mumkin. Bir soatdan to'rt soatgacha davom etadi va o'quvchilarga maqsadga erishish uchun zarur bo'lgan ko'nikmalar rivojlantiriladi. Dars rejasi bo'linma rejasini batafsil ajratadi va dars davrining yo'nalishi hisoblanadi. | 2 |
| M 6 | Learning style and strategies 8 Ta'lim Uslublari: Visual (spatial) Learners, Aural (audio) Learners, Physical (tactile) Learners, Verbal Learners (aka Linguistic Learners), Logical (analytical) Learners, Social Learners (aka Linguistic Learners), Solo Learners, Natural/ Nature Learners. | 2 |
| M 7 | Classroom management and teacher-learner interaction Sinf boshqaruvi va o'qituvchi bilan o'quvchining o'zaro ta'siri | 2 |
| M 8 | The language learning task : TBL, CTB, PBL Ingliz tilini o'qitishning kommunikativ usullaridan biri. Ushbu usulning mohiyati nimada, uning afzalliklari va kamchiliklari nimada - biz ushbu maqolada tahlil qilamiz. | 2 |
| M 9 | Blended learning and flipped classroom Blended learning classroom, bir talaba o'qituvchi bilan yuzma-yuz ta'lim berish. Flipped classroom aralashtirilgan ta'lim shaklidir. O'quvchi avval sinfdan tashqari yangi materialga duch keladi. O'qituvchilar o'z o'quv maqsadlari bilan bog'liq onlayn mazmuniga qisqa video yoki link yaratishingiz mumkin. | 2 |
| M10 | Teaching foreign languages in different educational establishments Chet tilni turli ta'lim muassasalarida o'qitish. O'zlashtirilgan bilimlarni o'rta umumta'lim maktablari, akademik litsey va kasb-hunar kollejlari pedagogik amaliyotda tatbiq etish. | 2 |
| M11 | Stages of teaching foreign languages Hozirgi madaniyatlararo jamiyatda hech kim ikkinchi tilni o'rganish muhimligini inkor eta olmaydi. Oliy ta'limda biz barcha talabalarga dunyoning turli burchaklaridan kelgan odamlar bilan muloqot qilish qobiliyatiga ega bo'lishlarini kafolatlash uchun katta choralar ko'rishimiz kerak deb hisoblaymiz. | 2 |
| M12 | Error correction and feedback Xatolarni tuzatish - bu ikkinchi yoki chet tilini o'rganuvchilarning malakasini | 2 |

| | | |
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| | oshirish usuli. Bu ikkinchi yoki chet tilini ongli ravishda bilish va til qoidalarini o'rganish uchun ishlatilishi mumkin. | |
| M 13 | Learner differences: teaching heterogeneous classes Geterogen guruhlash - bu maktab o'quvchilarini ma'lum sinfdagi turli sinflar o'rtasida taqsimlash turi. Bu usulda har xil qobiliyatli o'quvchilarning nisbatan teng taqsimlanishini, shuningdek, har xil ta'limiy va yemotsional yehtiyojlarni yaratish maqsadida taxminan bir xil yoshdagi bolalar turli sinflarga joylashtiriladi. Iqtidorli bolalar bir sinfdan emas, balki har xil darajadagi sinf xonalarida tarqatiladi. | 2 |
| M 14 | Teacher development: Competence in teaching foreign languages O'qituvchining rivojlanishi aynan nima? O'qituvchining kasbiy rivojlanishini shaxsning o'qituvchi sifatidagi bilim, ko'nikma va malakasini oshiruvchi va kuchaytiradigan faoliyat deb ta'riflash mumkin. O'qituvchining rivojlanishi - bu o'qituvchi sifatida o'qish, malaka oshirish va rivojlanishni o'z ichiga oladigan butun jarayon. | 2 |
| M 15 | English teaching today: worldwide experience Ovozli va to'g'ridan-to'g'ri usullar kabi an'anaviy metodologiyalar hali ham foydali elementlarni taklif qilsa-da, ular zamonaviy sinfdan eskirgan. Oxirgi yillarda modaga aylangan kommunikativ yondashuv hanuzgacha zamonaviy tilni o'rgatishning so'nggi yutug'i hisoblanadi. | 2 |
| Jami: | | 30 |

Ma'ruza mashg'ulotlari multimedia qurilmalari bilan jihozlangan auditoriyada akadem guruhlar oqimi uchun o'tiladi.

6-semestr uchun

| Mashg'ulotlar shakli: Seminar(S) | | soat |
|---|---|-------------|
| S 1 | Language teaching policy in the world | 2 |
| S 2 | The syllabus design | 2 |
| S 3 | Materials development | 2 |
| S 4 | Forms of organizing lesson | |
| S 5 | Planning the lesson | 2 |
| S 6 | Learning style and strategies | 2 |
| S 7 | Classroom management and teacher-learner interaction | 2 |
| S 8 | The language learning task : TBL, CTB, PBL | 2 |
| S 9 | Blended learning and flipped classroom | 2 |
| S 10 | Teaching foreign languages in different educational establishments. | 2 |
| S 11 | Stages of teaching foreign languages | 2 |
| S 12 | Error correction and feedback | 2 |
| S 13 | Learner differences: teaching heterogeneous classes | 2 |
| S 14 | Teacher development | 2 |
| S 15 | English teaching today: worldwide experience | 2 |
| Jami: | | 30 |

Seminar mashg‘ulotlar multimedia qurilmalari bilan jihozlangan auditoriyada har bir akadem guruhga alohida o‘tiladi. Mashg‘ulotlar interfaol usullari yordamida o‘tiladi. Ko‘rgazmali qurollar va multimediali vositalar qo‘llash orqali o‘tiladi.

5-semestr uchun

| Mashg‘ulotlar shakli: Mustaqil ta’lim (MT) | | Soat |
|---|---|-------------|
| 1 | Competence in teaching foreign languages | 4 |
| 2 | Methods, ways and technologies of organizing modern foreign language learning. | 4 |
| 3 | Lesson planning in different stages of EFL education (primary education, secondary education, lyceum, specialized schools) | 4 |
| 4 | The analysis of teaching/learning materials of EFL | 4 |
| 5 | Forming professional competence of foreign language teacher in the system of continuous education. | 4 |
| 6 | The importance of textbooks, and resources in different stages of EFL education (primary education, secondary education, lyceum, specialized schools) | 4 |
| 7 | Writing an article | 4 |
| 8 | The structure of teacher’s portfolio | 4 |
| 9 | Lesson observation | 4 |
| 10 | Using computer and online technologies in teaching English | 4 |
| 11 | Specific features of teaching foreign languages in compulsory educational system | 4 |
| 12 | Preparation of teacher’s professional portfolio | 4 |
| 13 | Applying modern educational technologies in different stages of EFL education (primary education, secondary education, lyceum, specialized schools) | 4 |
| 14 | Applying interactive methods in different stages of EFL education (primary education, secondary education, lyceum, specialized schools) | 4 |
| 15 | Different levels of professional competence of a foreign language teacher features | 4 |
| Jami: | | 60 |

6-semestr uchun

| Mashg‘ulotlar shakli: Mustaqil ta’lim (MT) | | Soat |
|---|---|-------------|
| 1 | The system of exercises for developing communicative competence of EFL learners (on the example of primary education, secondary education, lyceum, specialized schools) | 4 |
| 2 | Implementation of innovative technologies and method in EFL classroom (primary education, secondary education, lyceum, specialized schools) | 4 |
| 3 | Lesson planning on the basis of IT technologies in different stages of EFL education (primary education, secondary education, lyceum, specialized schools) | 4 |
| 4 | Classroom Activities to enhance learners’ communicative competence | 4 |
| 5 | Types of testing in teaching foreign language | 4 |
| 6 | Extracurricular activities in teaching foreign language | 4 |
| 7 | Writing an article | 4 |
| 8 | Lesson observation | 4 |
| 9 | Creating teaching aids for teaching English | 4 |
| 10 | Organizing independent learning in teaching process | 4 |
| 11 | Applying project works in different stages EFL teaching | 4 |
| 12 | Lesson planning in different stages of EFL education (primary education, secondary | 4 |

| | | |
|--------------|---|-----------|
| | education, lyceum, specialized schools) | |
| 13 | The system of exercises for developing communicative competence of EFL learners (on the example of primary education, secondary education, lyceum, specialized schools) | 4 |
| 14 | Educational basis of developing linguistic and communication materials in different stages of EFL education (primary education, secondary education, lyceum, specialized schools) | 4 |
| 15 | The analysis of teaching/learning materials of EFL | 4 |
| Jami: | | 60 |

Mustaqil ta'lim mavzulari talabalar tomonidan o'zlashtiriladi. Mavzular yuzasidan talabalar mustaqil ish, taqdimotlar tayyorlash va himoya qilishi tavsiya etiladi.

Amaliy mashg'ulotlarining barcha mavzularini to'la o'zlashtirgan hamda mustaqil ishni bajargan talabalarga yakuniy nazoratda ishtirok etishga ruxsat etiladi. Talaba semestr oxirida yakuniy nazorat topshiradi.

| | |
|-----|--|
| | 1. Kurs ishi mavzulari |
| 1. | Pedagogical testing (educational measurement). |
| 2. | Interlanguage/ Error analysis for teaching purposes |
| 3. | The role of teacher personality and methodology in ELT |
| 4. | Teaching speaking |
| 5. | Content of teaching English |
| 6. | Teaching vocabulary |
| 7. | Plan of the lesson |
| 8. | Methods of teaching foreign languages |
| 9. | Teaching grammar |
| 10. | Evaluating written and oral performance in the classroom |
| 11. | Teaching listening |
| 12. | Types of speech activity |
| 13. | The notion of "Reading technique" |
| 14. | Teaching reading |
| 15. | System of exercises |
| 16. | General methodology |
| 17. | Mixed methods |
| 18. | Selection of vocabulary |
| 19. | Teaching speaking |
| 20. | Special methodology |
| 21. | Teaching presentation skills or debating in ELT |
| 22. | Main aids of teaching |
| 23. | Teaching listening |
| 24. | Teaching pronunciation |
| 25. | Cultural aim of teaching |

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| 26. | Types of reading |
| 27. | Analysing teaching materials |
| 28. | Teaching English for specific purposes |
| 29. | Teaching writing |
| 30. | Presentation of pronunciation material |
| 31. | Out of class activities |
| 32. | Autonomous language learning |
| 33. | The role of reflection in teacher development |
| 34. | Alternative assessment: portfolio assessment |
| 35. | Exercises of listening |
| 36. | Using ICT tools in ELT |
| 37. | Assessment of speech habits and skills |
| 38. | Methods and principles of teaching |
| 39. | Difficulties in listening |
| 40. | Methodology of intercultural learning |
| 41. | The lexical view of language and its implications for classroom practice |
| 42. | Teaching writing |
| 43. | Distribution pronunciation |
| 44. | Teacher effectiveness, teacher professionalism, stages of teacher development |
| 45. | Teaching Vocabulary |
| 46. | Types of lesson |
| 47. | Teaching reading technique |
| 48. | Aims of the lesson |
| 49. | Motivation and confidence among language learners |
| 50. | Developing aim of the lesson |
| 51. | Developing language skills with the help of tasks for the interactive white board (IWB) |
| 52. | Didactic principles of teaching |
| 53. | Methods of teaching |
| 54. | Teaching speaking |
| 55. | Cultural aim of teaching foreign languages |
| 56. | Psychological principles of teaching foreign languages |
| 57. | Creativity in ELT |
| 58. | Principles of teaching grammar |
| 59. | Testing |
| 60. | The role of L1 in language teaching |
| | <p style="text-align: center;">2. Ta'lim texnologiyalari va metodlari:</p> <p><i>Ma'ruzalar</i> - interfaol keys-stadilar; seminarlar (mantiqiy fiklash, tezkor savol-javoblar); guruhlarda ishlash; taqdimotlarni qilish; individual loyihalar; jamoa bo'lib ishlash va himoya qilish uchun loyihalar.</p> <p><i>Amaliy mashg'ulotlarda</i> - mavzularga oid masalalar yechish, amaliy kuzatish, o'lchash, astronomik jadvallar bilan ishlash amallari bajariladi.</p> <p><i>Mustaqil ishlar</i> quyidagi turlarda amalga oshirilishi tavsiya etiladi:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - esse – dolzarb mavzu bo'yicha shaxsiy fikrini tanqid, publitsistik va boshqa janrlarda yozma bayon qilish; - dokladlar tayyorlash; |

- kurs ishi yozish;
- konspekt yozish;
- glossariy tuzish;
- individual va guruhviy o'quv loyihasi;
- keys-topshiriqlarini bajarish;
- mavzuli portfoliolar tuzish;
- axborot-tahliliy materiallar bilan ishlash;
- manbaalar bilan ishlash;
- infografika tuzish;
- multimediali taqdimotlar yaratish;
- darslarning metodik ishlanmalarini tayyorlash;
- darsdan tashqari mashg'ulotlar ishlanmalarini tayyorlash;

ta'lim yo'nalishi(mutaxassislik)ning xususiyatidan kelib chiqqan holda mustaqil ishlarning boshqa turlaridan foydalanish mumkin.

Kurs ishi mavzulari bevosita ishlab chiqarish ya'ni, umumiy o'rta ta'lim maktablarida pedagogik jarayonga bog'liq holda ishlab chiqiladi va har bir talabaga alohida shaxsiy topshiriq beriladi

Shuning uchun ham o'qituvchi kurs ishini taqsimlash va tushuntirish uchun o'quv rejasida ajratilgan 4 soat ichida kurs ishining mohiyati, tadqiqot olib borish usullari va adabiyotlar bilan ishlash, ya'ni ularda masalaning qo'yilishi, nima ish qilinganligi, ularning mavjud ishlardan farqi, taklif yoki tavsiya qilinayotgan usullarni ajrata olish haqida batafsil tushuntirish nazarda tutiladi.

Kurs ishi:

- talabada tanlangan mavzu bo'yicha o'z nazariy bilimni chuqurlashtirishi;
- psixologik-pedagogik, metodik va o'quv materiallarini tahlil qilish malakasini o'zlashtirishi;
- pedagogik eksperimentni rejalashtirishi, tayyorlashi va o'tkazishi;
- eksperiment natijalariga ishlov berish malakasini egallashi;
- nazariy va eksperiment natijalarini umumlashtirish malakasini egalashga imkon yaratadi.

Kurs ishi talaba tomonidan bajarilgan kichik ilmiy tadqiqot ishi hisoblanadi, shuning uchun ham mavzuning dolzarbligi va bajarilgan ishning sifatiga qarab talabalarning ilmiy anjumanlariga tavsiya etilishi yoki bo'lg'usi diplom ishiga asos qilib olishiga maslahat qilinishi mumkin.

Kurs ishi mavzulari kafedra tomonidan ishlab chiqiladi va o'quv yilining boshida shu o'quv yili uchun tasdiqlanadi. Talaba o'zini qiziqtirgan mavzuni tanlab olgandan so'ng, bu mavzu bo'yicha ish rejasini tuzadi va uni tasdiqlash uchun kafedraga taqdim etadi. Talabaning tanlagan kurs ishi mavzusi tasdiqlangandan so'ng kafedra unga ilmiy rahbar tayinlaydi. Talaba kurs ishini o'z ilmiy rahbarining bevosita rahbarligida bajaradi.

8. Kreditlarni olish uchun talablar:

Fanga oid nazariy va uslubiy tushunchalarni to'la o'zlashtirish, tahlil natijalarini to'g'ri aks ettira olish, o'rganilayotgan jarayonlar haqida mustaqil mushohada yuritish va joriy, oraliq nazorat shakllarida berilgan vazifa va topshiriqlarni bajarish, yakuniy nazorat bo'yicha yozma ishni topshirish.

9. Fan bo'yicha talabalar bilimni baholash va nazorat qilish mezonlari

Talabalarning ta'lim natijalari 100 ballik reyting tizimida baholanadi. Talabalar tomonidan ta'lim natijalari buyicha ballarni konvertatsiya qilish YeCTS (European Credit Transfer System) tizimi asosida amalga oshiriladi.

Ta'lim natijalarini baholash uchun ballar quyidagi tartibda belgilanadi:

| | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Joriy nazorat bali | Oraliq nazorat bali | Yakuniy nazorat bali |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|

| | | |
|--|---|---|
| Auditoriya mashg'ulotida berilgan topshiriqlarni bajarilganligi uchun – joriy baholash(JB); Mustaqil ta'lim topshiriqlarini bajarganligi uchun – mustaqil ishni baholash (MIB); | Oraliq nazorat vaqtida javob berganligi uchun – oraliq nazorat bali(ONB); Mustaqil ta'lim topshiriqlarini bajarganligi uchun – mustqil ishni baholash (MIB); | Yakuniy nazorat vaqtida javob berganligi uchun – yakuniy nazorat bali (YNB) |
| Joriy nazoratning maksimal bali 30 ball: $\Sigma JN = JB + MIB$ | Oraliq nazoratning maksimal bali 20 ball: $\Sigma ON = ONB + MIB$ | Yakuniy nazoratning maksimal bali(YNB) 50 ball. |

$\Sigma JN + \Sigma ON > 30$ ball bo'lgan talaba yakuniy nazorat topshirishga ruxsat beriladi.

Modul(fan)dan o'zlashtirish ko'rsatkichi(O'K):

$$\Sigma O'K = \Sigma JN + \Sigma ON + YNB$$

$\Sigma O'K \geq 60$ ball bo'lganda modul(fan) o'zlashtirilgan hisoblanadi.

Talabalarining ta'lim natijalarini baholash mezonlari:

| Daraja | 5 ballik tizim (baho) | O'zlashtirish foizda | An'anaviyda | Baholash mezonlari |
|------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------|--|
| O'quv boshqarma uchun | | Professor-o'qituvchi uchun | | |
| A+ | 4,51 – 5 | 91 - 100 | A'lo | Talaba materialni mustaqil ravishda tez o'zlashtiradi: xatolarga yo'l qo'ymaydi; mashg'ulotlarda faol ishtirok etadi; savollarga to'liq va aniq javob beradi. |
| A | 4,26 – 4,5 | 86 – 90 | | talaba materiallarni mustaqil ravishda o'zlashtiradi: xatolarga yo'l qo'ymaydi; savollarga to'liq va aniq javob beradi. |
| B+ | 4,01–4,25 | 81 – 85 | Yaxshi | talaba materiallarni yaxshi o'zlashtirgan, uni mantiqiy ifoda eta oladi; mashg'ulotlarda faol ishtirok etadi; savollarga to'liq va aniq javob beradi, biroq uncha jiddiy bo'lmagan xatolarga yo'l qo'yadi. |
| B | 3,51 – 4,0 | 71 – 80 | | talaba materiallarni yaxshi o'zlashtirgan, savollarga to'liq va aniq javob beradi, biroq uncha jiddiy bo'lmagan xatolarga yo'l qo'yadi. |
| C+ | 3,26 – 3,5 | 66 – 70 | Qoniqarli | asosiy materiallarni biladi, biroq aniq ifoda etishga qiynaladi; savollarga javob berishda aniqlik va to'liqlik yetishmaydi; materiallarni taqdim etishda ayrim xatoliklarga yo'l qo'yadi; kommunikatsiya jarayonida qiyinchilik sezadi. |

| | | | | |
|----------|--------------------|-------------|------------|--|
| C | 3,0 – 3,25 | 60 – 65 | | asosiy materiallarni biladi, biroq aniq ifoda etishga qiynaladi; savollarga javob berishda aniqlik va to‘liqlik yetishmaydi; materiallarni taqdim etishda ayrim xatoliklarga yo‘l qo‘yadi; |
| F | 3,0 dan kam | 59 dan past | Qoniqarsiz | materiallarni o‘zlashtirmagan; savollarga javob bera olmaydi; mashg‘ulotlarda ishtirok etmaydi |

10. O‘quv-uslubiy adabiyotlar va elektron ta‘lim resurslari ro‘yxati.

Asosiy darslik va o‘quv qo‘llanmalar

| № | Mualliflar | Adabiyot nomi | Nashr yili | Adabiyotning ARMdagi shifri | Adabiyotning ARMdagi inventar raqami |
|----|---|---|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------------|
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O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining Farmoni

1. O‘zbekiston Respublikasini yanada rivojlantirish bo‘yicha harakatlar strategiyasi to‘g‘risida. (O‘zbekiston Respublikasi qonun hujjatlari to‘plami, 2017 y., 6-son, 70-modda)
2. O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2020 - yil 6 – noyabrdagi "O‘zbekistonning yangi taraqqiyot davrida ta‘lim - tarbiya va ilm - fan sohalarini rivojlantirish chora tadbirlari to‘g‘risida " gi PF - 6108 - son farmoni.

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3. <http://www.gov.uz>– O‘zbekiston Respublikasi xukumati portali.
4. www.pedagog.uz
5. <http://www.ziyonet.uz/>

11. Oraliq nazorat savollari

1. Stages of TFL
2. Teaching Vocabulary
3. Out of class activities
4. Content of TFL
5. Teaching speaking
6. Communicative Method
7. Aids of teaching
8. Teaching listening
9. Oral and written correction
10. Cultural aim of teaching
11. Types of reading
12. English teaching today: worldwide experience
13. Aims of TFL
14. Teaching writing
15. Planning the lesson
16. Out of class activities
17. Aids of teaching foreign languages
18. Stages of teaching foreign languages
19. Problems of teaching English at primary education
20. Exercises of listening
21. Oral and written correction
22. Assessment of speaking skills
23. Methods and principles of teaching
24. Difficulties in listening
25. Selection of grammar
26. Teaching Vocabulary
27. Teaching writing
28. Teaching pronunciation
29. Direct method
30. Teaching Vocabulary
31. Out of class activities
32. Teaching reading
33. Aims of the lesson
34. Types of the text
35. Developing aim of the lesson
36. What is Syllabus?
37. Didactic principles of teaching
38. Methods of teaching
39. Teaching speaking
40. Cultural aim of teaching foreign languages
41. Psychological principles of teaching foreign languages

42. Types of controlling
43. Principles of teaching grammar
44. What types of Testing do you know?
45. What do you know about Communicative approach?
46. Practical aim of teaching foreign languages
47. Writing exercises
48. Teaching Vocabulary
49. Plan of the lesson
50. Types of Assessment
51. Assessing speaking skills
52. Linguistic and psychological problems of writing
53. History of teaching foreign languages
54. Educational aim of teaching foreign languages
55. Teaching writing
56. Teaching pronunciation material
57. Advantages and Disadvantages of Non-traditional methods
58. Advantages and Disadvantages of traditional methods
59. Teaching writing
60. Learner differences: heterogeneous classes
61. Teaching foreign languages in different educational establishments
62. Oral and written correction
63. Problems of teaching foreign languages in primary education
64. Problems of teaching foreign languages in primary education
65. Types of assessment
66. Competence in teaching foreign languages
67. Teaching the text: the goals
68. Teaching writing
69. Assessment of vocabulary
70. Teaching foreign languages in different educational establishments
71. Classroom interaction
72. Problems of teaching foreign languages in primary education
73. Problems of teaching foreign languages in primary education
74. Relation of methodology of TFL with other sciences
75. Competence in teaching foreign languages
76. Aims of teaching English.
77. Teaching pronunciation.
78. English teaching today: worldwide experience
79. Teaching speaking
80. Content of teaching English
81. Teaching vocabulary
82. Plan of the lesson
83. Methods of teaching foreign languages
84. Teaching grammar
85. Aids of TFL
86. Teaching listening
87. Types of speech activity
88. Assessment of grammar
89. Teaching reading
90. Planning the lesson
91. Methodology as theory of teaching foreign languages
92. Relation of methodology of teaching foreign languages with other sciences
93. Aims of teaching foreign languages

94. Content of teaching foreign languages
95. Methods and principles of teaching foreign languages
96. Aids of teaching foreign languages
97. History of methodology of teaching foreign languages
98. Teaching vocabulary
99. Teaching grammar
100. Teaching pronunciation
101. Assessment of vocabulary and grammar
102. Assessment and testing
103. Teaching foreign languages in different educational establishments.
104. Problems of teaching English at primary education
105. Competence in teaching foreign languages
106. Teaching the text: the goals
107. The language learning task
108. Oral and written correction
109. Learner differences: teaching heterogeneous classes
110. Teacher development
111. English teaching today: worldwide experience
112. Controlling speech habits and skills
113. Planning the lesson
114. Stages of teaching foreign languages
115. Out of class activities
116. Teaching foreign languages in different educational establishments
117. Problems of teaching English at primary education
118. Competence in teaching foreign languages
119. Teaching the text: the goals
120. The language learning task
121. Oral and written correction
122. Learner differences: teaching heterogeneous classes
123. Teacher development
124. English teaching today: worldwide experience
125. Mixed methods
126. Selection of vocabulary
127. Teaching speaking
128. Special methodology
129. Comparative cognitive method
130. Main aids of teaching
131. Teaching listening
132. Types of speech activity
133. The notion of "Reading technique"
134. Teaching reading
135. System of exercises
136. General methodology
137. Mixed methods
138. Selection of vocabulary
139. Teaching speaking
140. Special methodology
141. Teaching presentation skills or debating in ELT
142. Main aids of teaching
143. Teaching listening
144. Teaching pronunciation
145. Cultural aim of teaching

- 146. Types of reading
- 147. Analysing teaching materials
- 148. Teaching English for specific purposes
- 149. Teaching writing

12. Yakuniy nazorat savollari

- 1. Stages of TFL
- 2. Teaching Vocabulary
- 3. Out of class activities
- 4. Content of TFL
- 5. Teaching speaking
- 6. Communicative Method
- 7. Aids of teaching
- 8. Teaching listening
- 9. Oral and written correction
- 10. Cultural aim of teaching
- 11. Types of reading
- 12. English teaching today: worldwide experience
- 13. Aims of TFL
- 14. Teaching writing
- 15. Planning the lesson
- 16. Out of class activities
- 17. Aids of teaching foreign languages
- 18. Stages of teaching foreign languages
- 19. Problems of teaching English at primary education
- 20. Exercises of listening
- 21. Oral and written correction
- 22. Assessment of speaking skills
- 23. Methods and principles of teaching
- 24. Difficulties in listening
- 25. Selection of grammar
- 26. Teaching Vocabulary
- 27. Teaching writing
- 28. Teaching pronunciation
- 29. Direct method
- 30. Teaching Vocabulary
- 31. Out of class activities
- 32. Teaching reading
- 33. Aims of the lesson
- 34. Types of the text
- 35. Developing aim of the lesson
- 36. What is Syllabus?
- 37. Didactic principles of teaching
- 38. Methods of teaching
- 39. Teaching speaking
- 40. Cultural aim of teaching foreign languages
- 41. Psychological principles of teaching foreign languages
- 42. Types of controlling
- 43. Principles of teaching grammar
- 44. What types of Testing do you know?

45. What do you know about Communicative approach?
46. Practical aim of teaching foreign languages
47. Writing exercises
48. Teaching Vocabulary
49. Plan of the lesson
50. Types of Assessment
51. Assessing speaking skills
52. Linguistic and psychological problems of writing
53. History of teaching foreign languages
54. Educational aim of teaching foreign languages
55. Teaching writing
56. Teaching pronunciation material
57. Advantages and Disadvantages of Non-traditional methods
58. Advantages and Disadvantages of traditional methods
59. Teaching writing
60. Learner differences: heterogeneous classes
61. Teaching foreign languages in different educational establishments
62. Oral and written correction
63. Problems of teaching foreign languages in primary education
64. Problems of teaching foreign languages in primary education
65. Types of assessment
66. Competence in teaching foreign languages
67. Teaching the text: the goals
68. Teaching writing
69. Assessment of vocabulary
70. Teaching foreign languages in different educational establishments
71. Classroom interaction
72. Problems of teaching foreign languages in primary education
73. Problems of teaching foreign languages in primary education
74. Relation of methodology of TFL with other sciences
75. Competence in teaching foreign languages
76. Aims of teaching English.
77. Teaching pronunciation.
78. English teaching today: worldwide experience
79. Teaching speaking
80. Content of teaching English
81. Teaching vocabulary
82. Plan of the lesson
83. Methods of teaching foreign languages
84. Teaching grammar
85. Aids of TFL
86. Teaching listening
87. Types of speech activity
88. Assessment of grammar
89. Teaching reading
90. Planning the lesson
91. Methodology as theory of teaching foreign languages
92. Relation of methodology of teaching foreign languages with other sciences
93. Aims of teaching foreign languages
94. Content of teaching foreign languages
95. Methods and principles of teaching foreign languages
96. Aids of teaching foreign languages

97. History of methodology of teaching foreign languages
98. Teaching vocabulary
99. Teaching grammar
100. Teaching pronunciation
101. Assessment of vocabulary and grammar
102. Assessment and testing
103. Teaching foreign languages in different educational establishments.
104. Problems of teaching English at primary education
105. Competence in teaching foreign languages
106. Teaching the text: the goals
107. The language learning task
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125. Mixed methods
126. Selection of vocabulary
127. Teaching speaking
128. Special methodology
129. Comparative cognitive method
130. Main aids of teaching
131. Teaching listening
132. Types of speech activity
133. The notion of “Reading technique”
134. Teaching reading
135. System of exercises
136. General methodology
137. Mixed methods
138. Selection of vocabulary
139. Teaching speaking
140. Special methodology
141. Teaching presentation skills or debating in ELT
142. Main aids of teaching
143. Teaching listening
144. Teaching pronunciation
145. Cultural aim of teaching
146. Types of reading
147. Analysing teaching materials
148. Teaching English for specific purposes

O'zimizniki

Talabalarni baholash

Talabalar bilimni baholash semestr va yakuniy nazorat davomida o'qitish materiallarini o'zlashtirish ko'rsatkichi (topshiriqlar, mustaqil ish, test va yozma ish natijasi)ga asoslangan.

O'quv mashg'uloti davomida talabalar 100 ballik tizimda baholanadi. Shundan joriy va oraliq natijasiga 50 ball, yakuniy nazorat natijasiga 50 ball ajratiladi. Joriy va oraliq ballarning umumiy natijasi 30 balldan past bo'lgan talabalar yakuniy nazoratga kiritilmaydi. Yakuniy nazoratda 30 va undan ko'p ball to'plagan talaba fanni o'zlashtirgan hisoblanadi.

Nazorat turlari bo'yicha ballar quyidagicha taqsimlanadi:

5-semestr uchun

| Topshiriq | Maksimal ball | |
|---|----------------------|--|
| 1*. Writing an article about technologies of teaching foreign languages | 3 | Amaliy mashg'ulotlar bo'yicha 15 ball |
| 2*. Writing a thesis about the structure of foreign language lesson and its organizing. | 3 | |
| 3*. Write a library research paper about providing successful oral fluency practice | 3 | |
| 4*. Making a ppt on the topic improving students' reading comprehension | 3 | |
| 5*. Writing an article on the system of exercises for developing communicative competence of EFL learners (on the example of primary education, secondary education, lyceum, specialized schools) | 3 | |
| Mustaqil ish. | 15 | Mustaqil ta'lim bo'yicha 15 ball |
| Oraliq nazorat bo'yicha maksimal ball | | 20 |
| Yakuniy nazorat bo'yicha maksimal ball | | 50 |
| Jami: | 100 | 100 ball |

6-semestr uchun

| Topshiriq | Maksimal ball | |
|--|----------------------|--|
| 1*. Creating a lesson plan | 3 | Amaliy mashg'ulotlar bo'yicha 15 ball |
| 2*. Writing a thesis on teaching reading for B1(10-11 forms, students of lyceum and colleges) learners | 3 | |
| 3*. Writing an article on teaching English speaking for B1(10-11 forms, students of lyceum and colleges) learners. | 3 | |
| 4*. Writing a thesis on teaching writing for B1(10-11 forms, | 3 | |

| | | |
|---|------------|---|
| students of lyceum and colleges) | | |
| 5*. Making a ppt on the types of testing in teaching foreign language | 3 | |
| Mustaqil ish. | 15 | Mustaqil ta'lim bo'yicha 15 ball |
| Oraliq nazorat bo'yicha maksimal ball | | 20 |
| Yakuniy nazorat bo'yicha maksimal ball | | 50 |
| Jami: | 100 | 100 ball |

* Izoh: 1. Amaliy mashg'ulotlar bo'yicha ajratilgan 15 ball mavzulardan kelib chiqqan holda taqsimlanib, aniq topshiriqlar beriladi.

2. Fan bo'yicha yuqorida keltirilgan nazoratlarda to'plangan reyting ballari umumlashtiriladi yakunda ballar 5 baholik tizimga konvertatsiya qilinadi.

Mustaqil ishni baholash. Berilgan mavzular bo'yicha mustaqil ishini baholash

- Mavzular bo'yicha taqdimot va rasmiylashtirish - **3 ball**;
- tanlangan mavzular bo'yicha leksik va grammatik xatoliklarga yo'l qo'ymaslik- **3 ball**;
- mavzu va ma'lumotning o'zaro bir-biriga bog'liqligi – **3 ball**;
- tadqiq qilinadigan mavzu yuzasidan taqdimot matnining yetarli hajmda tayyorlanganligi (kamida 10ta slyddan tashkil topganligi) - **3 ball**;
- taqdimot vaqtida og'zaki nutq normalariga rioya qilish- **3 ball**.

Talabalarni baholashda quyidagilar hisobga olinadi:

- mashg'ulotlardagi faollik va ijodkorlik;
- asosiy va qo'shimcha o'quv materiallarini o'zlashtirish;
- mustaqil ta'lim bo'yicha topshiriqlarni o'z vaqtida bajarish;
- nazoratning barcha turlarini o'z vaqtida bajarish.

AKADEMIK VA ETIK TALABLAR

Nazorat topshiriqlarini bajarishda ko'chirmakashlikka (plagiat) yo'l qo'yilmaydi.

Test, o'quv loyihalari, mustaqil ishlar, joriy, oraliq, yakuniy nazorat topshiriqlarini boshqa shaxslardan ko'chirib olinishiga yo'l qo'yilmaydi, boshqa talabaning o'rniga imtihon topshirish ta'qiqlanadi.

Kurs bo'yicha har qanday nazorat topshirig'ini soxtalashtirgan talaba "fanni o'zlashtirmagan" hisoblanadi.

Mashg'ulotlar paytida mobil aloqa va boshqa elektron qurilmalardan foydalanishga yo'l qo'yilmaydi.

Mashg'ulotlar paytida auditoriyada (virtual auditoriyada) belgilangan talablarga zid harakatlar qilish mumkin emas.

Boshqalar va turli fikrlarga tolerant munosabatda bo'lish talab etiladi.

Foydalaniladigan adabiyotlar ro'yxati

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V. Мустақил таълим ва мустақил ишлар

Талаба мустақил ишининг асосий мақсади – ўқитувчининг раҳбарлиги ва назорати остида муайян ўқув ишларини мустақил равишда бажариши учун унинг билим ва қўникмаларини шакллантириш ва ривожлантиришдан иборат. Талабанинг мустақил ишини ташкил этишда куйидаги шакллардан фойдаланилади:

1. Айрим назарий мавзуларни ўқув адабиёти ёрдамида мустақил ўзлаштириш.
2. Берилган мавзулар бўйича реферат тайёрлаш.
3. Назарий билимларини амалиётда қўллаш.
4. Кундалик дарс режасини тузиш.
5. Илмий анжуманларга илмий мақола, маъруза тайёрлаш.
6. Берилган мавзулар бўйича презентациялар тайёрлаш.
7. Компьютер ва он-лайн технологияларни қўллаш.
8. Ўқитувчи портфолиосини тайёрлаш.
9. Мустақил ҳолда дарс жараёнини кузатиш ва таҳлил қилиш.

Семинар машғулотлари ва талабалар мустақил ишини ташкил этиш бўйича кафедра профессор-ўқитувчилари томонидан услубий кўрсатма ва тавсиялар ишлаб чиқилади.

Тавсия этилаётган мустақил ишларнинг мавзулари:

1. Узлуксиз таълим тизимида чет тил ўқитишнинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари.
 2. Таълимнинг турли босқичларида ўқув жараёнида замонавий таълим технологияларидан фойдаланиш (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-хунар коллежлари мисолида)
 3. Таълимнинг турли босқичларида чет тили бўйича аудитория ва синфдан ташқари ҳамда мустақил ишларни ташкил этиш. (ёндашув, метод ва усуллар)
 4. Таълимнинг турли босқичлари учун ўқитишнинг интерфаол методлари. (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-хунар коллежлари мисолида)
- 10
5. Турли босқичларда лойиҳа технологиялари асосида ўқитиш. (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-хунар коллежлари мисолида)
 6. Ўқитувчи касбий портфолиосини тайёрлаш ва ҳимоя қилиш.
 7. Чет тил ўқитувчиси касбий компетенциясининг турли босқичлардаги хусусиятлари.
 8. Узлуксиз таълим тизими ўқув адабиётларининг аҳамияти. (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-хунар коллежлари мисолида)
 9. Назорат иши ва унинг вазифалари намуналари.
 10. Мустақил таълимнинг турли босқичдаги хусусиятлари (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-хунар коллежлари мисолида)
 11. Чет тил таълимининг турли босқичларида дарсни режалаштириш. (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-хунар коллежлари мисолида)
 12. Чет тил дарсини АКТ асосида режалаштириш. (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-хунар коллежлари мисолида)
 13. Чет тили бўйича ЎУМ таҳлили.
 14. Чет тил бўйича коммуникатив компетенцияни шакллантириш ва ривожлантиришга қаратилган машқлар тизими. (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-хунар коллежлари мисолида)
 15. Турли таълим босқичларида тил ва нутқ материални яратишнинг дидактик асослари. (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-хунар коллежлари мисолида)

GLOSSARY

| | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| Activity | – work mainly, done by language learners, that involves direct experience by the student rather than text book study |
| Approach | – a set of principles about teaching including views on method, techniques, activities |
| Assessment | – is the process of evaluating achievements of learners |
| Attitude | – the specific ability of teacher/learner for teaching/learning a second language |
| Authentic Language | – is a real and natural language used by native speakers in real life contexts |
| Authentic materials | – are the materials of language teaching, that were originally intended for native-speakers, e.g. newspaper texts, TV, radio or internet broadcasts |
| Body Language | – the gestures used by individuals in communicating with others |
| Classroom observation | – is the practice of sitting in another teacher's class to observe |
| CLT | – Communicative language teaching |
| Communication | – is the process of sending and receiving messages. Verbal and written communication types are distinguished |
| Communicative activities | – activities aimed at improving communication skills |
| Communicative approach (CLT) | – is the theory that language is communication and it emphasizes developing language proficiency through interactions in meaningful contexts |

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| Communicative Competence | – refers to a learner’s ability to understand and use language effectively to communicate successfully in social settings |
| Communication skills | – the ability to convey information to another effectively and efficiently |
| Content-based teaching/learning | – is an approach in language teaching based on content/information that students will require |
| Critical thinking | – is evaluating claims, assumptions, and implications without simply accepting them as facts |
| Educator | – Language teacher |
| EFL | – English as a foreign language |
| ELT | – English language teaching |
| ESL | – English as a second language |
| ESOL | – English for speakers of other languages |
| Facilitator | – is the term used for language teacher in CLT |
| Formative assessment | – is a type of assessment completed during the course, learners can improve, it always includes feedback |
| Grammatical Competence | – is the ability to recognize and produce the distinctive grammatical structures of a language |
| Group formation | – is a process of setting/organizing learners into groups |
| Group work | – is requiring students to work together in learning procedure |

| | |
|---|--|
| Handout | – a sheet provided to each student by the teacher, it contains information, a task to be completed for an assignment |
| Independent learning | – is a way of learning completed by an individual without the assistance of teacher |
| Integrated Skills | – are defined as the combination of two or more skills within a communicative task |
| Interactive methods/activities | – are methods that involve learners to communicate and interact with others to receiving feedback after completion of a task |
| L1 | – First language, native language |
| L2 | – Second language |
| Language educator / instructor / teacher | – Foreign language teacher |
| Language learner | – is a person who learns foreign language |
| Learning styles | – the different preferences of learners in the process of learning foreign language |
| Linguistic Competence | – refers to the ability to use the language code or system itself and all its component parts |
| Mentor | – adviser to a language learner |
| Method | – is a way, procedure of teaching, made up of a set of techniques |
| Motivation | – is the encouragement, lots of attention which helps students to accomplish learning process |
| Multiple choice | – is an assessment where answers provided with several options |

| | |
|--|---|
| Native speaker | – is a person who speaks a language as his/her first language or mother tongue |
| Observation form | – is a usually sheet, that are completed by the observer |
| Observer | – is a person, mainly teacher who observes another teacher's lesson |
| Peer observation | – is a type of observation where teaching stuff observes each other's lessons and at the end, they discuss strengths and weaknesses of the lesson procedure |
| Student (learner)-centred education | – language learners are the focus in the whole procedure of the lesson |
| Summative assessment / Final assessment | – is a type of assessment typically occurs at the end of the learning period, learners receive final score |
| Target language | – a foreign language students are in the process of learning |
| Task-based learning/teaching | – refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core of planning in language teaching, it is presented as a logical development of CLT |
| TBL | – Task-based learning |
| Teacher-centred education | – in the centre of the class is teacher who gives instructions with little input from students |
| Teamwork | – is the process of engaging individuals in a cooperative effort to achieve a common goal |
| TESOL | – Teaching English for speakers of other languages |
| TFL | – Teaching foreign language |

Ilovalar:

VI. Асосий ва қўшимча ўқув адабиётлар ҳамда ахборот манбалари¹ Асосий адабиётлар

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TESTLAR

№ 1

| |
|--|
| What does the lexical approach include? |
| Multi-word prefabricated chunks |
| Only grammar rules |
| Vocabulary and listening |

№ 2

| |
|---|
| What does the basic principles of lexical approach |
| lexis |
| grammar |
| Subservient managerial role |

№ 3

| |
|--|
| In which activity students are encouraged to act out roles of people in different spheres of society? |
| Role play |
| Information gap |
| Jig saw activities |
| Fish bowl |

№ 4

| |
|--|
| In which method students may create their own story and draw several sequential pictures that describe story? |
| Story narrating through the pictures |
| Interviews |

| |
|--|
| Story forming |
| Brain storming |
| № 5 |
| In which method well known for its common use of small colored rods of varying length and color coded word charts depicting pronunciation values, vocabulary and grammatical paradigms(Fidel Chart, Word Chart, Sound Color Charts) and concentrates on cognitive principles in language learning? |
| The Silent way |
| Suggestopedia |
| Grammar Translation Method |
| Audio-lingual Method |
| № 6 |
| What is the aim of pedagogical technology? |
| To achieve high result in short time and with less effort |
| To increase efficiency of learning process |
| To project learning process |
| To have innovative approach to education |
| № 7 |
| The meaning of “Technology” is |
| Art, competence efficiency |
| Project |
| techniques |
| Process |
| № 8 |
| What type of pedagogical technology is rating technology? |
| general |
| private |
| local |
| productive |
| № 9 |
| What kind of organizer is “T” scheme? |
| analyzing |
| problematic |
| notion |
| Directed to think |
| № 10 |
| Art, competence, efficiency is |
| Technology |
| Project |
| techniques |
| Process |
| № 11 |
| Rating technology is.....? |
| general |
| private |
| local |
| productive |
| № 12 |
| What kind of organizer is “SWOT” table? |
| analyzing |
| problematic |
| notion |
| Directed to think |
| № 13 |
| What kind of organizer is “BBB” technology? |
| working with the text |
| analyzing |
| problematic |
| comparative |
| № 14 |
| The meaning of “Sinkwein” |

| |
|-----------------|
| 5 th |
| link |
| scheme |
| table |

№ 15

| |
|---------------------------------|
| “BBB” technology is ...? |
| working with the text |
| analyzing |
| problematic |
| comparative |

№ 16

| |
|---------------------------|
| “Sinkwein” is |
| 5 th |
| link |
| scheme |
| table |

№ 17

| |
|--|
| What controlling types of pedagogical technologies do you know? |
| Controlling which requires short time |
| Oral |
| written |
| Independent work |

№ 18

| |
|--|
| Controlling types of pedagogical technologies are.....? |
| Controlling which requires short time |
| Oral |
| written |
| Independent work |

№ 19

| |
|--|
| In what innovation stage pedagogical technology is going in Uzbekistan? |
| 2 |
| 8 |
| 5 |
| 7 |

№ 20

| |
|---|
| How many parts are in Technological map? |
| 3 |
| 4 |
| 5 |
| 6 |

№ 21

| |
|--|
| What makes a good teacher? |
| all answers are true |
| marketing the subject, knowing the subject: teaching it with encouragement |
| using a variety of teaching styles, building on family and outside-of-school experiences |
| involving students as learning partners, collaborating with other adults, making sure students know they are cared about |

№ 22

| |
|---|
| What is method? |
| <i>A series of related and progressive acts performed by a teacher and students to achieve the objective of the lesson.</i> |
| <i>the personal art and style of the teacher in carrying out the procedure of teaching.</i> |
| <i>set of decisions to achieve an objective that results in plan</i> |
| <i>one’s viewpoint toward teaching</i> |

№ 23

| |
|--|
| What is technique? |
| <i>the personal art and style of the teacher in carrying out the procedure of teaching.</i> |
| <i>one’s viewpoint toward teaching</i> |
| <i>set of decisions to achieve an objective that results in plan.</i> |
| <i>a series of related and progressive acts performed by a teacher and students to achieve the objective of the lesson</i> |

№ 24

| |
|--|
| What is strategy? |
| <i>set of decisions to achieve an objective that results in plan.</i> |
| one's viewpoint toward teaching |
| a series of related and progressive acts performed by a teacher and students to achieve the objective of the lesson. |
| the personal art and style of the teacher in carrying out the procedure of teaching. |

№ 25

| |
|--|
| What is approach? |
| <i>one's viewpoint toward teaching</i> |
| a series of related and progressive acts performed by a teacher and students to achieve the objective of the lesson. |
| the personal art and style of the teacher in carrying out the procedure of teaching. |
| set of decisions to achieve an objective that results in plan. |

№ 26

| |
|---|
| Technological map consists of parts |
| 3 |
| 4 |
| 5 |
| 6 |

№ 27

| |
|--|
| What makes a great teacher? |
| all answers are true |
| marketing the subject, knowing the subject: teaching it with encouragement |
| using a variety of teaching styles, building on family and outside-of-school experiences |
| involving students as learning partners, collaborating with other adults, making sure students know they are cared about |

№ 28

| |
|---|
| Method is |
| <i>series of related and progressive acts performed by a teacher and students to achieve the objective of the lesson.</i> |
| the personal art and style of the teacher in carrying out the procedure of teaching. |
| set of decisions to achieve an objective that results in plan |
| one's viewpoint toward teaching |

№ 29

| |
|---|
| Technique is? |
| <i>the personal art and style of the teacher in carrying out the procedure of teaching.</i> |
| one's viewpoint toward teaching |
| set of decisions to achieve an objective that results in plan. |
| a series of related and progressive acts performed by a teacher and students to achieve the objective of the lesson |

№ 30

| |
|--|
| Strategy is |
| <i>set of decisions to achieve an objective that results in plan.</i> |
| one's viewpoint toward teaching |
| a series of related and progressive acts performed by a teacher and students to achieve the objective of the lesson. |
| the personal art and style of the teacher in carrying out the procedure of teaching. |

№ 31

| |
|--|
| Approach is |
| <i>one's viewpoint toward teaching</i> |
| a series of related and progressive acts performed by a teacher and students to achieve the objective of the lesson. |
| the personal art and style of the teacher in carrying out the procedure of teaching. |
| set of decisions to achieve an objective that results in plan. |

№ 32

| |
|--|
| How many distinct words the "Neurolinguistic programming" can be broken down? |
| 3 |
| 5 |
| 6 |
| 9 |

№ 33

| |
|---|
| How many types of learning styles? |
| 3 |
| 5 |
| 6 |

| |
|--|
| 9 |
| № 34 |
| What are visual learners based on? |
| <i>It is based on the idea of the positioning of items and they are often seen as “daydreamers”.</i> |
| It is based on the easiest style |
| It is based upon the idea |
| It is based on copying or re-copying |
| № 35 |
| What are auditory learners based on? |
| <i>It is based on learners who do better by hearing and seeing new materials</i> |
| It is based on the idea of the positioning of items and they are often seen as “daydreamers”. |
| It is based upon the idea |
| It is based on copying or re-copying |
| № 36 |
| What are kinesthetic learners based on? |
| <i>It is based upon the idea that motion is useful for learning</i> |
| It is based on the idea of the positioning of items and they are often seen as “daydreamers”. |
| It is based upon the idea |
| It is based on copying or re-copying |
| № 37 |
| Auditory learners are |
| <i>based on learners who do better by hearing and seeing new materials</i> |
| It is based on the idea of the positioning of items and they are often seen as “daydreamers”. |
| It is based upon the idea |
| It is based on copying or re-copying |
| № 38 |
| There are types of learning styles. |
| 3 |
| 5 |
| 6 |
| 9 |
| № 39 |
| Visual learners are |
| <i>based on the idea of the positioning of items and they are often seen as “daydreamers”.</i> |
| It is based on the easiest style |
| It is based upon the idea |
| It is based on copying or re-copying |
| № 40 |
| Kinesthetic learners are |
| <i>based upon the idea that motion is useful for learning</i> |
| It is based on the idea of the positioning of items and they are often seen as “daydreamers”. |
| It is based upon the idea |
| It is based on copying or re-copying |
| № 41 |
| What language is used in grammar translation method? |
| Native language |
| Target language |
| Both of them |
| A and B |
| № 42 |
| Where was grammar translation method founded? |
| Germany |
| France |
| Russia |
| Uzbekistan |
| № 43 |
| When was direct method appeared? |
| At the turn of 19 th century and 20 th |
| At the beginning of 19 th century |
| 100 years ago |

| |
|---|
| 20 years ago |
| № 44 |
| Who is actively involved in direct method? |
| Learner |
| Teacher |
| Both of them |
| None of them |
| № 45 |
| What skill is firstly taught in direct method? |
| Speaking |
| Reading |
| Writing |
| Listening |
| № 46 |
| When holistic philosophy of reading instruction was first introduced? |
| 1970's-80's |
| Early 80's |
| Early 60's |
| Early 50's |
| № 47 |
| What types of language acquisition do you know? |
| Oral and written |
| B and C |
| Natural and oral |
| Selective and Oral |
| № 48 |
| What is the objective of multiple intelligences? |
| to find more ways of helping all students in classes |
| to find more ways of helping all students in their classroom |
| to find more ways of creating abilities of students |
| correct answer is not given |
| № 49 |
| is actively involved in direct method |
| Learner |
| Teacher |
| Both of them |
| None of them |
| № 50 |
| is firstly taught in direct method |
| Speaking |
| Reading |
| Writing |
| Listening |
| № 51 |
| Peer correction is |
| encouraging students to help each other in a cooperative not competitive spirit |
| make students stay silent |
| student's use of building words with correct pronunciation |
| all answers are correct |
| № 52 |
| What is Peer correction? |
| encouraging students to help each other in a cooperative not competitive spirit |
| make students stay silent |
| student's use of building words with correct pronunciation |
| all answers are correct |
| № 53 |
| Rods |
| used to trigger meaning, and to introduce or actively practice language |
| a part of the tool, which can be used for fishing |
| Invitation of students to make observation about the day's lesson |

| |
|--|
| all answers are correct |
| № 54 |
| This method provides opportunities for learners to improve imagination, speaking, and as well as communication skills |
| story forming |
| Discussion |
| Onion |
| talk shows |
| № 55 |
| provides opportunities for learners to improve imagination, speaking, and as well as communication skills |
| Story forming |
| Discussion |
| Onion |
| talk shows |
| № 56 |
| Which answer corresponds to aspect of lexis? |
| translation, chunks of language, synonymy |
| Tenses, synonymy |
| Visualization, chunks of language |
| Suggestopedia |
| № 57 |
| Brainstorming.... |
| encourages learners to produce the idea of solving practical and scientific problems individually or in groups. |
| is a strategy that offers several advantages for both student and teacher |
| is one more effective strategy to improve communication skills |
| are based on the information – gap principles |
| № 58 |
| Aspect of lexis are? |
| translation, chunks of language, synonymy |
| Tenses, synonymy |
| Visualization, chunks of language |
| Suggestopedia |
| № 59 |
| What is Brainstorming? |
| encourages learners to produce the idea of solving practical and scientific problems individually or in groups. |
| is a strategy that offers several advantages for both student and teacher |
| is one more effective strategy to improve communication skills |
| are based on the information – gap principles |
| № 60 |
| Discussion is..... |
| an active method of sharing opinions on a specific problem individually and freely |
| based on the information – gap principles |
| It is based upon the idea that motion is useful for learning |
| It is based on re-reading and re-writing |
| № 61 |
| What is Discussion? |
| an active method of sharing opinions on a specific problem individually and freely |
| based on the information – gap principles |
| It is based upon the idea that motion is useful for learning |
| It is based on re-reading and re-writing |
| № 62 |
| The most prominent characteristic of the Silent method is ... |
| The teacher stays silent and uses rods |
| the teacher actively manages the class |
| the teacher participates in all activities |
| the student works silently |
| № 63 |
| What is CLT? |
| Communicative Language Teaching |

| |
|---------------------------------|
| Communicative Language Learning |
| Common Language Teaching |
| Common Learning and Teaching |

№ 64

| |
|---------------------------------|
| What is CLL? |
| Community Language Learning |
| Communicative Language Learning |
| Common Language Teaching |
| Common Learning and Teaching |

№ 65

| |
|---------------------------------|
| CLL is? |
| Community Language Learning |
| Communicative Language Learning |
| Common Language Teaching |
| Common Learning and Teaching |

№ 66

| |
|---------------------------------|
| CLT is? |
| Communicative Language Teaching |
| Communicative Language Learning |
| Common Language Teaching |
| Common Learning and Teaching |

№ 67

| |
|---|
| The CLL method Principles are: |
| all answers are true |
| To encourage the students to take increasingly more responsibility for their own learning, and to "learn about their learning", so to speak. |
| Learning in a non-defensive manner is considered to be very important, with teacher and student regarding each other as a "whole person" where intellect and ability are not separated from feelings. |
| The initial struggles with learning the new language are addressed by creating an environment of mutual support, trust and understanding between both "learner-clients" and the "teacher-counselor." |

№ 68

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| What is TPR? |
| Total Physical Response |
| Testing Phonetics |
| Teaching Phonetic Rights |
| Teaching Phonological Reasons |

№ 69

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| The principles of the communicative approach are: |
| All answers are true |
| The use of target language in a communicative way |
| Emphasis on meaning rather than form |
| more student-orientated |

№ 70

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|--------------------------------|
| What is ESP? |
| English for Specific Purposes |
| English for sons and Parents |
| English for Super Power |
| English for Society and Policy |

№ 71

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|--------------------------------|
| ESP is |
| English for Specific Purposes |
| English for sons and Parents |
| English for Super Power |
| English for Society and Policy |

№ 72

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|--------------------------|
| What is scanning? |
|--------------------------|

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| examples in support of an argument |
| sequencing relations between parts of the text |
| Psychological tests |
| testing vocabulary |
| № 73 |
| In which testing is essential to demonstrate linguistic skills? |
| testing vocabulary |
| reading tests |
| writing |
| grammar |
| № 74 |
| The levels in CEFR are described in the form of statements |
| can do |
| can read |
| can write |
| can understand |
| № 75 |
| Levels for school-leaving |
| A1 and A2 |
| C1 and C2 |
| B1, B2 |
| A2, C1 |
| № 76 |
| The new curriculum has been prepared in the light of..... |
| CEFR |
| CLL |
| EFL |
| CLT |
| № 77 |
| A1 and A2 levels are |
| for school-leaving |
| for college-leaving |
| for university-leaving |
| for kinder-garten-leaving |
| № 78 |
| Level for college-leaving |
| B1 |
| C1 |
| B2 |
| A2 |
| № 79 |
| What are traditional approaches? |
| Teacher-centeredness |
| learner-centered |
| Teaching technology and the internet |
| Promoting autonomy and awareness |
| № 80 |
| Antonyms to indicate words of the same category of parts of speech which have... |
| contrasting meanings |
| the same meanings |
| several meanings |
| two or more meanings |
| № 81 |
| Discussion is..... |
| an active method of sharing opinions on a specific problem individually and freely |
| based on the information – gap principles |
| It is based upon the idea that motion is useful for learning |
| It is based on re-reading and re-writing |
| № 82 |
| In traditional method teachers do not pay attention to... |

| |
|--|
| speaking and pronunciation practice |
| grammar |
| tenses |
| translation and memorizing |
| № 83 |
| In which method students write and re-tell the stories? |
| Traditional |
| modern |
| structural |
| Semantic Base |
| № 84 |
| Method is... |
| just the mediator between theory and classroom practice |
| the same with technique |
| a classroom research |
| an analysis of students |
| № 85 |
| Story forming method provides opportunities for learners to improve |
| Imagination, speaking, and as well as communication skills |
| Listening-comprehension |
| Reading skill |
| Grammar |
| № 86 |
| Traditional Method is also known as... |
| Grammar-Translation Method |
| Communicative Method |
| Structural Method |
| Oral Method |
| № 87 |
| Unlike traditional methodology, is much more student-centred. |
| Modern Methodology |
| Traditional Methodology |
| Structural Approach |
| Semantic Base |
| № 88 |
| CEFR is not.... |
| theoretical document |
| descriptive document |
| a document to reflex |
| a starting point to develop new tools |
| № 89 |
| The CEFR aims are |
| all answers are correct |
| Elaboration of language syllabuses and curriculum guidelines |
| Design teaching and learning materials |
| The assessment of language proficiency |
| № 90 |
| Find the Reasons to Use Games in the Classroom |
| all answers are true |
| Students learn through the process of playing the game. |
| Games provide a context for engaging practice |
| Through games, students can learn a variety of important skills. |
| № 91 |
| Stages of the lesson are such order: |
| pre, while, post |
| while, post, pre |
| post, pre while |
| pre, post, while |
| № 92 |
| Pre-, while-, post- , are |

| |
|----------------------|
| Stages of the lesson |
| Timing of the lesson |
| Games |
| Exercises |

№ 93

| |
|----------------------------------|
| Receptive Skills are:.... |
| listening and reading |
| listening and speaking |
| writing and speaking |
| speaking |

№ 94

| |
|-------------------------------------|
| Productive skills are: |
| writing and speaking |
| listening and speaking |
| listening and reading |
| listening |

№ 95

| |
|---|
| Listening and reading are? |
| Receptive Skills |
| Productive skills |
| Speaking skills |
| None of them |

№ 96

| |
|--|
| Writing and speaking are: |
| Productive skills |
| Receptive Skills |
| Speaking skills |
| None of them |

№ 97

| |
|---|
| <i>A cinquain</i> was created by American poet |
| Adelaide Crapsey |
| B. Franklin |
| Writer |
| Ch.Bronte |

№ 98

| |
|---------------------------------------|
| A cinquain is a form of? |
| poetry |
| essay |
| novel |
| works |

№ 99

| |
|--|
| What is cinquain? |
| A cinquain is a five-line poem that has special syllable counts. |
| A cinquain is a three-line poem that has special syllable counts |
| A cinquain is a four-line poem that has special syllable counts |
| A cinquain is a six-line poem that has special syllable counts |

№ 100

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|---|
| Venn diagram was introduced by |
| John Venn |
| Veranda |
| J.Vern |
| J. William |

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