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Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Tuzuvchi: f.f.f.d. PhD Z. B. Allayarova – SHDPI "Xorijiy tillar"   kafedrasi mudiri,
                   dots.v.b.

Taqrizchilar: f.f.f.d.DSc N.A.Sa`dullayeva   – O`ZMU dotsenti
                       f.f.f.d.PhD Z.R.Yaxshiyeva –TATU Qarshi filiali dotsenti

Kafedra yig'ilish qarori №_1   28 - avgust **2023 - yil**

Xorijiy tillar kafedrasi mudiri: **_____ Z.B. Allayarova**

Fakultet kengashi qarori №_1_   29 - avgust **2023 - yil**
Fakultet kengashi raisi: **_____ A. Muhammadiyev**

Institut kengashi qarori №_1__   30 - avgust **2023 yil**
Institut O'UBB   **_____ A. Berdiyev**

O'QUV – USLUBIY MAJMUANING TARKIBI

MUNDARIJA

O'RGANILAYOTGAN CHET TILI O'QITISH METODIKASI FANIDAN MA`RUZA VA AMALIY MASHG`ULOTLARI MAVZULARI

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Contents:

1.	Introduction to Methodology. Types of the methods in teaching a foreign language.
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Lecture 1. Introduction to Methodology. Types of the methods in teaching a foreign language.

This unit involves:
1. **The table of approaches and methods**
2. **The Direct method**
3. **Grammar-translation method**
4. **Audio-lingual method**
5. **Presentation practice and production method (ppp)**
6. **Community Language Learning**
7. **Suggestopedia**
8. **Total Physical Response (TPR)**
9. **The Silent Way**
10. **The Natural Approach**

1. The table of approaches and methods

Method	Focus	Characteristics
GrammarTranslation	Written literary texts	Translate from English into your native language
Direct Method (also called Natural Method)	Everyday spoken language	Student learns by associating meaning directly in English
Audio-LingualMethod	Sentence and sound patterns	Listening and speaking drills and pattern practice only in English
CognitiveCodeApproach	Grammar rules	English grammar rules deduced and then understood in context

HumanisticApproaches – 4 popular examples

Method	Focus	Characteristics
The Silent Way	Student interaction rather than teacher	Teacher is silent to allow student awareness of how English works
Suggestopedia	Meaningful texts and vocabulary	Relaxed atmosphere, with music; encourages subliminal learning of English
Community Language Learning	Student interaction	Understanding of English through active student interaction
Comprehension Approach (Natural Approach, the Learnables, and Total Physical Response	Listening comprehension	English speaking delayed until students are ready; meaning clarified through actions and visuals

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Communicative Language Teaching	Interaction, authentic communication and negotiating meaning	Understanding of English through active student interaction; role play, games, information gaps

Content-based, Task-based, and Participatory Approaches	What is being communicated, not structure of English	Content based on relevance to students' lives: topics, tasks, problem-solving
Learning Strategy Training, Cooperative Learning, and Multiple Intelligences	How to learn?	Teach learning strategies, cooperation; activities vary according to different intelligences

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').v

1. The Direct method

In this method the teaching is done entirely in the target language. The learner is not allowed to use his or her mother tongue. Grammar rules are avoided and there is emphasis on good pronunciation. This method is based on the direct involvement of the student when speaking, and listening to, the foreign language in common everyday situations. Consequently, there is lots of oral interaction, spontaneous use of the language, no translation, and little if any analysis of grammar rules and syntax.

Teacher's role:
-They intend that students learn how to communicate in the target language.
-They provide their students the necessary tools to get familiar with a target language.
-They have to have their students participating.
-They may have their students to self-correct.
-They might simply repeat what a student has just said.

Student's role:
-They should learn to think in the target language.
-They are asked to use the target language.
-They are the active learners.
-They observe the target language used by the teacher in teaching and they try to get the meaning based on the demonstration given and then they will practice the target language they observed and they use it to communicate with their friends and teacher in classroom.

2. Grammar-translation method

Learning is largely by translation to and from the target language. Grammar rules are to be memorized and long lists of vocabulary learned by heart. There is little or no emphasis placed on developing oral ability. The grammar-translation method is one of the key methods applied for the teaching of foreign languages. It is a derivation of the classical (sometimes called traditional) method of teaching Greek and Latin. According to this method students learn grammatical rules and then apply those rules for translating sentences between the target language and their native language. Advanced students may be required to translate whole texts word-for-word.

While studying the history of teaching methods, we come to know that the grammar-translation method originated from the practice of teaching Latin. In the early 1500s, Latin was the most widely-studied foreign language due to its prominence in government, academia, and business. However, during the course of the century the use of Latin dwindled, and it was gradually replaced by English, French, and Italian. After the decline of Latin, the purpose of learning it in schools changed. Whereas previously students had learned Latin for the purpose of communication, it came to be learned as a purely academic subject.

Throughout Europe in the past two centuries, the education system was formed primarily around a concept called faculty psychology. This theory dictated that the body and mind were separate and the mind consisted of three parts: the will, emotion, and intellect. It was believed that the intellect could be sharpened enough to eventually control the will and emotions.

Teacher's role:
-Teacher has authority.
-Teacher supplies students with the correct answer.

Students' role:
-They follow instructions to learn what teacher knows.
-They memorize the rules, then apply them to other examples.
-They learn paradigms such as verb conjugations.
-They learn the native language equivalents of vocabulary words.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

-They learn by translating from one language to the other, often translating reading or passages in the target language to the native language.
-They use Native language freely in class as it provides key to meanings in the target language.

Characteristics of the approach

-Vocabulary: grammar emphasizes; reading, writing are primary skills; pronunciation and other speaking/listening skills not emphasized.
-The target language is quickly explained in GTM.
-The students easy to understand because of grammatical lessons.
-No Scope for effective communication and very tedious for learners.
-More Importance on Grammar Rules than on Meaning.
-Slow learning rate and making learners think in L1.
Interaction:
-Student-Teacher & Student-Student.
-Most interaction is teacher-to-student.
-Student-initiated interaction.
-Student-student interaction is minimal.

Techniques that we would employ in this method:

Translation of a literary passage:
a) Students translate a reading passage from the target language into their native language.
b) The reading passage then provides the focus for several classes: vocabulary and grammatical structures in the passage are studied in subsequent lessons.
c) The passage may be excerpted from some work from the target language literature, or a teacher may write a passage carefully designed to include particular grammar rules and vocabulary.
d) The translation may be written or spoken or both.
e) Students should not translate idioms and the like literally, but rather in a way that shows that they understand their meaning.

Fill-in-the-blanks:
a) Students are given a series of sentences with words missing. They fill in the blanks with new vocabulary items or with items of a particular grammar type, such as prepositions or verbs with different tenses.

SWOT of the method

Strenghts:
-Students learn a lot of vocabulary and grammar rules.
-Writing and Reading skills are developed.
-Students can make inferences through the understanding of Reading passages.
-It helps students to read and appreciate foreign language literature.
-Students would become more familiar with the grammar of their native language.
-It provides students with good mental exercise which helps to develop their minds and grow intellectually.
Weaknesses:
-There is a lot of student-teacher interaction, there is little student-student interaction, and there is little student interaction.
-Little attention is given to speaking and listening skills, and almost none to pronunciation.
-The students are translating almost all the time from English to Spanish and vice versa.
-The English teacher is considered as a walking dictionary.
-The roles are very traditional.
-The students' feelings are not considered in this method.
-The language that is used in class is mostly the students' native language.
Opportunities:
-Students can learn about the culture of the target language community.
-To learn grammatical paradigms.
-To know language equivalents for target language words.
Threats:
-Almost everything should be committed to the memory.
-Students have to deal with grammar and the rules for using sentences, paragraphs, compositions, etc., in order to learn the form of the target language.
-Accuracy in writing.
-The ability to communicate in the target language is not a goal.
-Almost all the evaluations are accomplished through written tests.

-The teacher corrects students' errors strictly because errors are not tolerated.
-This method is not considered as a humanistic approach.

3. Audio-lingual method

The theory behind this method is that learning a language means acquiring habits. There is much practice of dialogues of every situations. New language is first heard and extensively drilled before being seen in its written form. Audio-Lingual approach is a method of teaching foreign languages that was commonly used in mid-fifties and developed from the Aural-Oral or Structural Approach and "Army method" of teaching and learning languages. The first step towards Audiolingualism was "Army method" which was based on Leonard Bloomfield's technique of memorization and repetition in simple foreign language patterns.

The emergence of Audio-linguistic approach, according to Richards (1987), "claimed to have transformed language teaching from an art to science, which would enable learners to achieve mastery of a foreign Language effectively and efficiently". In general, Audio-lingual approach to language learning suggests that students be taught phonology, morphology, and syntax of the language; all these patterns can be learned through contrastive analysis of the differences between the native tongue and the target language, which helps students to acquire new language easier. In Audio-lingual approach, second language skills development is based on listening, speaking, reading, and writing. At first, the second language may be presented entirely orally (usually, in early stages of learning language written materials are not presented). However, as soon as the students understood and memorized how to say some language patterns orally, they could try to do reading and writing activities. In order to minimize the possible mistakes, reading and writing exercises are based on what students already know how to say orally. Repetition, oral drills and memorization of simple patterns are the basis of audio-lingual approach.

Teacher's role:
-The teacher is central and active.
-Teachers must provide varieties of drills and tasks to keep learner's motivation.
-They should teach new vocabulary only in the context.
-The teacher is like an orchestra leader, directing and controlling the language teaching behavior of his student.
-The teacher is also responsible for providing students for a good model for imitation.

Student's role:
-The learner should be guided by skilled training techniques in order to produce correct answers.
-Learners should repeat carefully all the information that is presented by teacher.
-Students need to learn to use the target language automatically without stopping to think.

Characteristics of the method
-New vocabulary and structural patterns are presented through dialogs.
-The dialogs are learned through imitation and repetition.
-Drills are conducted based upon the patterns present in the dialog.
-Students' successful responses are positively reinforced.
-Grammar is induced from the examples given; explicit grammar rules are not provided.
-Cultural information is contextualized in the dialogs or presented by the teacher.
-Students' reading and written work is based upon the oral work they did earlier.

Techniques we would use of this method:
-Use of minimal pairs

The teacher works with pairs of words which differ in only one sound; for example, 'ship/sheep.' Students are first asked to perceive the difference between the two words and later to be able to say the two words. The teacher selects the sounds to work on after s/he has done a contrastive analysis.
-Complete the dialogue

Selected words are erased from a dialog students have learned. Students complete the dialogue by filling the blanks with the missing words.

SWOT of this method
Strengths:
-Students learn the language automatically without stopping thinking.
-Students overcome the olds habits of their native language.
-Students learn accurately.
-Students learn more vocabulary.
Weaknesses:
-Students just make focus on talking and repeating not in writing.

-Students overlearn their language because of too much repetition.
-Mispronunciation of the teacher is learned by Ss.
-A bad teacher model means bad students.
-Students may get bored.
Opportunities:
-Students improve their memorization.
-Students improve pronunciation.
-Grammar is induced from example given
Threats:
-This method doesn´t give to the student a lead role.
-Teachers don´t imitate to the 21st century teacher, because through this method the only one who works is the teacher.
-Teachers don´t improve teaching grammar rules.
-Reading and writing work is based upon the oral work they did earlier, so students are not allowed to produced new vocabulary by their own.

4. Presentation practice and production method (PPP)

As far as language teaching is concerned, there has been a great deal of research carried out by linguists from all over the world and many theories and methods on how languages are best learnt have been put forward. Some have indeed proved to be very successful ways of learning a second language (L2), becoming very popular in L2 classrooms around the world. Among many methods, the PPP is a successful one and is widely used throughout the world by many English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers. Every PPP lesson has a language aim, which students should fulfill by the end of it. It is a modern equivalent of the audio-lingualism method, which dates back to the 1940s. Not only can the PPP be applied to teach grammar items, but it can also be used to teach functions, vocabulary and even pronunciation. In a PPP lesson there are three stages: first, the teacher presents the target language; then, students practise the new language items; and finally they use their own ideas to talk about themselves.

According to Jeremy Harmer (2009), the PPP is a method that is widely used in teaching simple language at lower levels. Furthermore, many modern coursebooks contain examples of PPP lessons which have retained elements of structural-situation methodology and audio-lingualism. Harmer adds that there is a general consensus that PPP is just one method among many, not taking into consideration other ways of learning. It is very learning-based and takes little account of students' acquisition abilities. However, I strongly believe that once the lesson is finished and your students have actually achieved its aim, having been able to produce language in an meaningful way, it means that the method applied was successful and effective, and only then will the teacher feel that learning has really taken place.

Teacher´s role:
-Teachers have to monitor when the students make mistakes.
-They explain the grammatical structures that are going to be used in the topic
-Teacher make some activities for the students
-The teacher gives minimal assistance when his or her pupils are producing the language.
Student´s role
-First, students just listen to what the teacher explains.
-Second, students speak a little bit more.
-Finally, students have to speak the majority of time. They have to speak at least the eighty percent of the time.

Characteristics of this method:

-PPP is divided into three phases, moving from tight teacher control towards greater learner freedom.
-This method is relied on the progression from presentation, through controlled practice, to free poduction.
-The PPP method could be characterized as a common-sense approach to teaching as it consists of 3 stages that most people who have learnt how to do anything will be familiar with.
Techniques of this method:
-Mime: The teacher is going to choose a student to mime what he or she said. Then, the other students are going to guess what their classmate has mimed.
-Drawing: Students are going to draw something related to what they have studied. Then, they are going to explain why they have made that drawing.

SWOT of this method:

Strengths:

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-PPP method is one of the best method for new teachers.
-Teachers trained on this method.
Weaknesses:
-It encourages accurately over fluency.
-It does not allow for recap.
-This method allows too much teacher talking time.
Opportunities:
-This method provides students to put into practice what they have learned.
Threats:
-Students can get lost or focused with grammar explanation.

5. Community Language Learning

In this method attempts are made to build strong personal links between the teacher and student so that there are no blocks to learning. There is much talk in the mother tongue which is translated by the teacher for repetition by the student.

Community Language Learning (CLL) is the name of a method developed by Charles A. Curran and his associates. Curran was a specialist in counseling and a professor of psychology at Loyola University, Chicago. His application of psychological counseling techniques to learning is known as Counseling-Learning. Community Language Learning represents the use of Counseling-Learning theory to teach languages.

Within the language teaching tradition Community Language Learning is sometimes cited as an example of a "humanistic approach." Links can also be made between CLL procedures and those of bilingual education, particularly the set of bilingual procedures referred to as "language alternation" or "code switching". Let us discuss briefly the debt of Community Language Learning to these traditions.

As the name indicates, CLL derives its primary insights, and indeed its organizing rationale, from Rogerian counseling. Counseling, as Rogerians see it, consists of one individual (the counselor) assuming "insofar as he is able the internal frame of reference [of the client], perceiving the world as that person sees it and communicating something of this empathetic understanding" (Rogers 1951). In lay terms, counseling is one person giving advice, assistance, and support to another who has a problem or is in some way in need. Community Language Learning draws on the counseling metaphor to redefine the roles of the teacher (the counselor) and learners (the client?) in the language classroom. The basic procedures of CLL can thus be seen as derived from the counselor-client relationship.

Consider the following CLL procedures: A group of learners sit in a circle with the teacher standing outside the circle; a student whispers a message in the native language (LI); the teacher translates it into the foreign language (L2); the student repeats the message in the foreign language into a cassette; students compose further messages in the foreign language with the teacher's help; students reflect about their feelings. We can compare the client—counselor relationship psychological counseling with the learner—knower relationship in Community Language Learning

Student´s role:
-They have to listen attentively to their teacher.
-Students depend completely on their teachers
-The learner repeats utterances made by the teacher in the target language and "overhears" the inter•changes between other learners and knowers.
-In this method we can find some stages of human growth.
-In stage 1 the learner is like an infant, completely dependent on the knower for linguistic content.
-In stage 2 the "child achieves a measure of independence from the parent"
-In stage 3, "the separate-existence stage," learners begin to understand others directly in the target language.
-Stage 4 may be considered "a kind of adolescence." The learner func•tions independently, although his or her knowledge of the foreign lan•guage is still rudimentary
-Stage 5 is called "the independent stage." Learners refine their un•derstanding of register as well as grammatically correct language.

Teacher´s role
-They provide a good environment to their students.
-They respond calmly and non-judgmentally, in a supportive manner, and help the client try to understand his or her problems better by applying order and analysis to them.
-Teacher operates in a supportive role, providing target language translations and a model for imitation on request of the clients.
-The teacher monitors learner utterances, providing assistance when requested.

Characteristics of this method:
-The learners and teachers interact and facilitate learning by giving values and prizes to each individual.
-Students express themselves in their native language and teachers translate what they have said in target language.
-This method not only teaches students to use the second language communicatively, but also tries to persuade the students to take the responsibility task for their own learning.
-Students are clients and teachers are counselors.

Techniques of this method:
-Translation. Learners form a small circle. A learner whispers a message or meaning he or she wants to express. Then, the teacher translates it into the target language. Finally, the teacher has students repeat what he or she has translated.
-Listening. Students listen to an audio, podcast, etc. then, the teacher ask questions about what they have listened.

SWOT:

Strengths:
-Stresses the humanistic side of learning language.
-This method is centered on the learner; the most important part in the learning process is the learner.
-Whole person learning. It takes not only the cognitive domain but also the affective one.
Weaknesses:
-Constrained by the number and knowledge of learners
-Lack of syllabus
-It focuses on fluency rather than accurately.
-The most important part is the speaking, not writing.
Opportunities
-Build rapport
-To work without conventional materials
This method let students and teachers be themselves, share ideas, experiences, etc.
Threats:
-The success depends on the translation expertise or ability of the teacher.
-Sympathetic to the role of counselors
-Hostile learners

6.
Suggestopedia
The theory underlying this method is that a language can be acquired only when the learner is receptive and has no mental blocks. By various methods it is suggested to the student that the language is easy - and in this way the mental blocks to learning are removed. Suggestopedia is a teaching method which is based on a modern understanding of how the human brain works and how we learn most effectively. It was developed by the Bulgarian doctor and psychotherapist Georgi Lozanov (see right). The term 'Suggestopedia', derived from suggestion and pedagogy, is often used loosely to refer to similar accelerated learning approaches. However, Lozanov reserves the title strictly for his own method, and he has his own training and certification facilities. Suggestopedia was originally applied mainly in foreign language teaching, and it is often claimed that it can teach languages approximately three times as quickly as conventional methods. It is now applied in several other fields, and its central ideas inspired the development of my own Brainware workshops. Another revolutionary language teacher who developed his own distinctive methods was the late Michel Thomas, his numerous famous clients including: Woody Allen, Bob Dylan and Eddie Izzard.

Teacher´s role:
-The teacher creates a good environment. They correct their students in a good way They have to know everything related to the topic
-Teachers have to use a good voice sound and a good intonation.
-The teacher introduces the grammar and lexis of the content.
-The teacher teaches the material in "a playful manner" instead of analyzing lexis and grammar of the text in a directive manner
-Teachers should act as a real partner to the students, participating in the activities such as games and songs "naturally" and "genuinely."
Student´s role:
-Students are listeners all the time.
-The students sing classical songs and play games while the teacher acts more like a consultant.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

-The students finish off what they have learned in the class with dramas, songs, and games.
Characteristics of this method:
-Stimulates the whole person
-Undoes blocks
-Goes rapidly forward
-Gives creative solutions
-Encourages relaxation
-Strengthens self-image
-Talks to all the senses
-Optimizes learning
-Propagates talent
-Enhances learning
-Dramatizes material
-Includes pictures, music and movement
-Addresses the whole person

Techniques of this method:

-visualization: Students are asked to close their eyes and visualize scenes and events, to help them relax, facilitate positive suggestion and encourage creativity from the students.

-choose a new identity: Students select a target language name and/or occupation that places them "inside" the language (language they are learning).For example later on they may be asked to talk or write about their fictional hometown, childhood, and family.

SWOT

Strengths:

-Music was central to this method. Baroque music created the kind of "relaxing concentration" that leads to learn. According to Lozanov, during the soft playing of baroque music, one can take in tremendous quantities information due to an increase in alpha brain waves and a decrease in blood pressure and pulse rate.

Why is important the increase in alpha brain waves?
-First of all, we must kwon what alpha brain waves are. They are one of the four types of brain waves in which we found beta, alpha, theta, and delta brain waves. Each of these brain waves activated a specific function in the brain. In the case of Alpha brain waves, you learn faster and are more receptive to information, (which is great for studying or concentrating). Furthermore, Alpha state is ideal for problem-solving.

-A positive expectation of success: we learned a bit about how to believe in the power of human brain. People are capable of learning much than they give themselves credit for. This self-confidence will be beneficial in the classroom as students are going to pay attention to their abilities and forget about the preliminary negative concept regarding the difficulties in the process of learning".

-A rich sensory learning environment: students are exposed to pictures, color, music, etc. Learners receive stimuli.

-The use of a varied range of methods: dramatized texts, music, active participation in songs and games, etc.

Weaknesses:

-Music and comfortable chairs could not be available in public schools. The provision of comfortable armchairs and a relaxing environment will probably be beyond the means of most educational establishments.

-We point out memorization, but we exclude understanding and finding solutions of problems. Tutors attempt to teach memorization techniques, and the comprehensive aspect is not enhanced.

-The problems lie in the fact that many people find classical music irritating rather than stimulating (to some cultures Western music may sound discordant).
-The length of the dialogues and the lack of a coherent theory of language may confuse rather than motivate.

Opportunities:

-Suggestopedia allows the development of a good mental state that is calm and relaxed, but alert and focused.
-Concert sessions boost learners' imagination.
-People remember best and are most influenced by information coming from an authority source.

-The syllabus includes a variety of activities for learners. There are more possibilities for students to learn according to their own learning style. However, the activity more original to Suggestopedia is the listening, which concerns the text and text vocabulary of each studied unit.

Threats:

-For students, this method and its activities might become monotonous since they know how is going to be taught the class. They expect that the tutor aims the class at musical stimuli.

-Suggestopedia cannot be well accepted for teachers since it suggest a different and modern way to tackle topics even it can be confused with hypnosis.

7. Total Physical Response (TPR)

TPR works by having the learner respond to simple commands such as "Stand up", "Close your book", "Go to the window and open it." The method stresses the importance of aural comprehension.

Total Physical Response is a language teaching method. This method is applied through involving students in physical activities. The method was developed by James Asher, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University, whose first publication on this topic appeared in 1965. it draws on several traditions, including developmental psychology, learning the•ory, and humanistic pedagogy, as well as on language teaching proce•dures proposed by Harold and Dorothy Palmer in 1925.

Total Physical Response is linked to the "trace theory " of memory in psychology, which holds that the more often or the more intensively a memory connection is traced, the stronger the memory association will be and the more likely it will be recalled. Retracing can be done verbally (e.g., by rote repetition) and/or in association with motor activity. Combined tracing activities, such as verbal rehearsal accompanied by motor activity, hence increase the probability of suc•cessful recall.

In a developmental sense, Asher sees successful adult second language learning as a parallel process to child first language acquisition. He claims that speech directed to young children consists primarily of commands, which children respond to physically before they begin to produce verbal responses. Asher feels adults should recapitulate the processes by which children acquire their mother tongue.

Asher shares with the school of humanistic psychology a concern for the role of affective (emotional) factors in language learning. A method that is undemanding in terms of linguistic production and that involves game like movements reduces learner stress, he believes, and creates a positive mood in the learner, which facilitates learning.

Asher's emphasis on developing comprehension skills before the learner is taught to speak links him to a movement in foreign language teaching sometimes referred to as the Comprehension Approach (Winitz 1981). This refers to several different comprehension-based language teaching proposals, which share the belief that

(a) Comprehension abilities precede productive skills in learning a language.

(b) The teaching of speaking should be delayed until comprehension skills are established.

(c) Skills acquired through listening transfer to other skills; (d) teaching should emphasize meaning rather than form; and (e) teaching should minimize learner stress.The emphasis on comprehension and the use of physical actions to teach a foreign language at an introductory level has a long tradition in language teaching.

Teacher´s Role:

-The instructor is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors the teacher plays an active and direct role in Total Physical Response.

-The teacher is the one who decides what to teach, who models and presents the new materials, and who selects supporting materials for classroom use.

-The teacher is encouraged to be well pre•pared and well organized so that the lesson flows smoothly and predictably.

-The teacher has the responsi•bility of providing the best kind of exposure to language so that the learner can internalize the basic rules of the target language.

-The teacher controls the language input the learners receive, providing the raw material for the "cognitive map" that the learners will construct in their own minds.

-The teacher should also allow speaking abilities to develop in learners at the learners' own natural pace.

-Teachers should refrain from too much correction in the early stages and should not interrupt to correct errors, since this will inhibit learners.

Learner´s role:

-Learners have the primarily roles of listener and performer.

-Students listen attentively and respond physically to com•mands given by the teacher.

-Learners are required to respond both individually and collectively.

Chet tili oʻqitish metodikasi.

-Learners have little influence over the con•tent of learning, since content is determined by the teacher, who must follow the imperative-based format for lessons.
-Learners are also ex•pected to recognize and respond to novel combinations of previously taught items.
-Learners are also required to produce novel combinations of their own.
-Learners monitor and evaluate their own progress.
-They are encouraged to speak when they feel ready to speak. That is, when a sufficient basis in the language has been internalized.

Characteristics of the method:
-The coordination of speech and action facilitates language learning.
-Meaning is more important than form.
-Grammar is taught inductively.
--Speaking is delayed until comprehension skills are established.
-Effective language learning takes place in low stress environment.
-The learner is a listener and a performer responding to commands individually or collectively.
-The role of the teacher is central. S/he chooses the appropriate commands to introduce vocabulary and structure.
-Learning is maximized in a stress free environment.

Total physical response techniques.

-One of the Total Physical Response techniques that we would use is Role plays on every day situation so that the students can make use of physical movements through performing a given situation for example, at a restaurant at the movies.
-Other useful technique is the use of songs and games to teach the parts of the body. For example the use of ¨Simon says¨ that consist of giving commands for the students to perform them.

SWOT
Strengths:
-There is a more effective learning process because pupils learning by doing.
-Classes are more practical rather tan theoretical.
-There is a more playful learning.
-All learning types are included in this method.
Weaknesess:
-Pupils could easily be confused if the teacher says an unkwon command.
-Pupils become accustomed to follow the teacher´s commands.
-This method does not develop pupil´s writing skill.
Opportunities:
-There is a great opportunity to develop a different skill than this that we have.
-The class is not teacher-centered, but he is the one who guide the learning process.
-Pupils are more interested in class; they pay more attention.
Threats:
-The teacher has to be smart to persuade shy students to be part of the learning activities, otherwise those pupils will not learn as the others.
-Logical learners will not learn with this method.
-STT is Little or zero

8. The Silent Way
This is so called because the aim of the teacher is to say as little as possible in order that the learner can be in control of what he wants to say. No use is made of the mother tongue.The Silent Way is an approach for learning languages developed in the early 1970's by Dr. Caleb Gattegno (1911-1988). Dr. Gattegno also worked in other areas of education, as mathematics and literacy. Gattegno's name is recognized for his renaissance of interest in the utilization of colored wooden sticks called Cuisenaire Rods and for his series of Words in Color. In this approach, the sounds are coded by specific colors for teaching initial reading. The silent way is an innovative method that focuses on the importance of problem-solving approach in education. The method is constructivist, and helps the learners to create their own conceptual models of de aspects of language. This method is based on the idea that the teacher should be silent as much as possible in the classroom and the learner is the one who produce as much language as possible. The best way of reaching this goal is let students to be experimental learners. The silent way represents Gattegno's adventurousness into foreign language teaching. The materials used in the Silent Way, specially the color

charts and the colored cuisenaire rods, arose from Gattegno´s previous experience as educational designer of reading and mathematics programs.

Teacher's role:

-The teacher presents an item once, typically using non verbal clues to get across the meaning

-Teachers should be as much silence as possible.

-The teacher test student´s knowledge by eliciting and shaping students production. This is done in as silent way as possible.

-The teacher silently monitors learner´s interactions with each other.

-The teacher designs teaching sequences and create individual lessons and lessons elements.

-The teacher has to create an environment that encourages student risk taking and that facilitates learning.

-The teacher's role is one of neutral observer, neither elated by correct performance nor discouraged by error.

-The teacher uses gestures, charts, and manipulatives in order to elicit and shape student responses and so must be both facile and creative as a pantomimist and puppeteer.

Learner´s role:

-Learner's are expected to develop independence, autonomy, and responsibility.

-Learners are aware that they must depend on their own resources and that they can use ¨the knowledge of their own language to open up some things in the new language.

-They are autonomous learners that choose proper expressions in a given set of circumstances and situations.

-They are free to choose among any set of linguistic choices.

-Learners develop ¨inner criteria¨ in the absence of teacher correction. They have to correct themselves.

-Learners have to make generalizations, come to their own conclusions, and formulate whatever rules they themselves feel they need.

-Learners exert a strong influence over each other´s learning and, to a lesser degree, over the linguistic content taught.

-Learners have only themselves as individuals and the group to rely on, and so must learn to work cooperatively rather than competitively.

-In order to be productive members of the learning group, learners thus have to play varying roles. At times one is an independent individual at other times a group member. A learner also must be the teacher, a student, part of a support system, a problem solver, and a self evaluator.

Characteristics of the Method

-The Silent Way is characterized by its focus on discovery, creativity, problem solving and the use of accompanying materials.

-Learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates. The Silent way belongs to the tradition of teaching that favors hypothetical mode of teaching (as opposed to expository mode of teaching) in which the teacher and the learner work cooperatively to reach the educational desired goals. (cf Bruner 1966.) The learner is not a bench bound listener but an active contributor to the learning process.

-Learning is facilitated by accompanying (mediating) physical objects. The Silent Way uses colorful charts and rods (cuisenaire rods) which are of varying length. They are used to introduce vocabulary (colors, numbers, adjectives, verbs) and syntax (tense, comparatives, plurals, word order …)

-Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned. This can be summarized by Benjamin Franklin's words: A good silent way learner is a good problem solver. The teacher's role resides only in giving minimum repetitions and correction, remaining silent most of the times, leaving the learner struggling to solve problems about the language and get a grasp of its mechanism.

Silent Way Method Techniques:

-One of the techniques that we would use is the finger technique to isolates words, and to give instructions while teaching content with the Silent Way Teaching Method.

-Another technique that we would use to develop content is the use of Cuisenaire Rods for storytelling and vocabulary.

SWOT

Strenghts:

-The learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned.

-The skills of speaking, reading and writing reinforce one another.

-The silent way views language as a problem-solving, creative, discovering activity in which the learner is the principal actor.

Weaknesess:

-It is criticized as being too focused on building structure, and misses out on cultural input through the language.

-The method should be used in small groups of students.

-Language is separated from its social context and taught through artificial situations usually rods and charts.

Opportunities:

-The students correct the errors themselves, and teachers view these errors as the responses to the teaching and give some hints and help.

-The self-stem of the students will be increased, and this will enhance learning.

-Learners gain practical knowledge and use of the target language.

-Students work as independent language learners. They become independent, responsible and autonomous.

Threats:

-Students may be confused with the colored wooden rods.

-The rigidity of the system may be meaningless.

-The silence of the teacher can prevent students from hearing many active models of the correct usage that they may find useful

9.The Natural Approach

This approach, propounded by Professor S. Krashen, stresses the similarities between learning the first and second languages. There is no correction of mistakes. Learning takes place by the students being exposed to language that is comprehensible or made comprehensible to them.The natural approach developed by Tracy Terrell and supported by Stephen Krashen, is a language teaching approach which claims that language learning is a reproduction of the way humans naturally acquire their native language. The approach adheres to a communicative approach to language teaching and rejects earlier methods such as the audiolingual method and the situational laguage teaching approach which Krashen and terrell (1983) believe are not based on "actual theories of language acquisition but theories of the structure of language¨. The natural approach was an attempt to develop a language teaching proposal that incorporated the ¨naturalistic¨ principles researchers has identified in the study of second language acquisition. Krashen and Terrell have identified the natural approach with what they called ¨traditional approaches to language teaching. Traditional approaches are defined as ¨based on the use of language in communicative situations without the recourse to the native language¨ and perhaps needless to say without reference to grammatical analysis, grammatical drilling or to a particular theory of grammar.

The term natural , used in reference to the Direct Method, merely emphasized that the principles underlying the method were believed to conform to the principles of naturalistic language learning in young children. Similarly, the Natural Approach, as defined by Krashen and Terrell, is believed to conform to the naturalistic principles found in successful second language acquisition. Unlike the Direct Method, however, it places less emphasis on teacher monologues, direct repetition, and formal questions and answers, and less focus on accurate production of target language sentences. In the Natural Approach there is an em•phasis on exposure, orinput, rather than practice; optimizing emotional preparedness for learning; a prolonged period of attention to what the language learners hear before they try to produce language; and a will•ingness to use written and other materials as a source of comprehensible input. The emphasis on the central role of comprehension in the Natural Approach links it to other comprehension-based approaches in language teaching.

Teacher's role:

-The teacher is the primary source of comprehensible input in the target language. Class time is devoted primarily to providing input for acquisition," arid the teacher is the primary generator of that input. In this role the teacher is required to generate a constant flow of language input while providing a multiplicity of nonlinguistic clues to assist students in in•terpreting the input. The Natural Approach demands a much more center-stage role for the teacher than do many contemporary commu•nicative methods.

-The Natural Approach teacher creates a classroom atmosphere that is interesting, friendly, and in which there is a low affective filter for learning. This is achieved in part through such Natural Approach techniques as not demanding speech from the students before they are ready for it, not correcting student errors, and providing subject matter of high interest to students.

-The teacher must choose and orchestrate a rich mix of class•room activities, involving a variety of group sizes, content, and contexts. The teacher is seen as responsible for collecting materials and designing their use. These materials, according to Krashen and Terrell, are based not just on teacher perceptions but on elicited student needs and interests.

Learner's role:

-Learners' roles change according to their stage of linguistic development. Central to these changing roles are learner decisions on when to speak, what to speak about, and what linguistic expressions to use in speaking.

-In the pre-production stage students "participate in the language ac•tivity without having to respond in the target language". For example, students can act out physical commands; identify student colleagues from teacher description, point to pictures, and so forth

-In the early-production stage, students respond to either-or questions, use single words and short phrases, fill in charts, and use fixed conver•sational patterns (e.g., How are you? What's your name?).

-In the speech-emergent phase, students involve themselves in role play and games, contribute personal information and opinions, and partici•pate in group problem solving.

-Learners have four fundamental roles of in the Natural Approach classroom:

-Provide information about their specific goals so that acquisition activities can focus on the topics and situations most relevant to their needs.

-Take an active role in ensuring comprehensible input. They should learn and use conversational management techniques to regulate input.

-Decide when to start producing speech and when to upgrade it.

-Where learning exercises (i.e., grammar study) are to be a part of the pro•gram, decide with the teacher the relative amount of time to be devoted to them and perhaps even complete and correct them independently.

-Learners are expected to participate in communication activities with other learners. Although communication activities are seen to provide naturalistic practice and to create a sense of fellowship, which lowers the affective filter, they may fail to provide learners with well-formed and comprehensible input at the I + 1 level. Krashen and Terrell warn of these shortcomings but do not suggest means for their improvement.

Characteristics of the method:

This acquisition method-approach sees the communicative competence progressing through three stages:
1. Aural Comprehension
2. Early Speech
3. Speech Activities

-All fostering ¨natural¨ language acquisition, much as a child would learn his/her native tongue.

-Teaching according to the Natural approach focuses on communicative abilities.

-One of its objectives is to help beginners become intermediate.

-Vocabulary is considered prior to syntactic structures.

-A lot of comprehensible input must be provided.

-Use of visual aids to help comprehension.

-Focus is on listening and reading. Speaking emerges later.

-Reducing the high affective filter by

- Focusing on meaningful communication rather than on form

- Providing interesting comprehensible input

Natural approach techniques:

-One of the techniques that we would use while applying the Natural Approach Method is the use of ¨Yes/No questions¨ for introducing learners to the Early Speech Stage. Example: Is Lizzie wearing a sweater today?

-The use of general questions which encourage lists of words. For example: What do you see on the table now?

SWOT

Strengths:

-The Natural Method Approach focuses on teaching communicative abilities.

-Language is view as a vehicle for 'communicating meanings' and 'messages'.

-The natural approach applies proper order of lexical items.

Weaknesses:

-It focus too much on lexical item and structures

-Learning the grammar rules of a foreign/second language does not result in subconscious acquisition.

-Learning does not take place when student's affective filter is high.

-Learners have to learn rule

-There must be sufficient time for a learner to choose and apply a learned rule.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

-The language user must be focused on correctness or on the form of the output
Opportunities:
-Students may use either the language being taught or their first language.
-The student is able to use the language to talk about ideas, perform tasks, and solve problems.
-This approach fulfils the requirement for learning and acquisition.
-It emphasizes ¨Comprehensible input¨ and distinguishes between acquisition and learning.
Threats:
-It may be the case that student´s affective filter is high, so language learning will not take place.
-Students may not know how to answer the teachers questions.

The Lexical Syllabus

This approach is based on a computer analysis of language which identifies the most common (and hence most useful) words in the language and their various uses. The syllabus teaches these words in broadly the order of their frequency, and great emphasis is placed on the use of authentic materials.

The structural approach

This method sees language as a complex of grammatical rules which are to be learned one at a time in a set order. So for example the verb "to be" is introduced and practised before the present continuous tense which uses "to be" as an auxiliary.

Immersion

This corresponds to a great extent to the situation we have at our school. ESL students are immersed in the English language for the whole of the school day and expected to learn math, science, humanities etc. through the medium of the target language, English.
Immigrant students who attend local schools find themselves in an immersion situation; for example refugee children from Bosnia attending German schools, or Puerto Ricans in American schools. .

Task-based language learning

The focus of the teaching is on the completion of a task which in itself is interesting to the learners. Learners use the language they already have to complete the task and there is little correction of errors.(This is the predominant method in middle school ESL teaching at Frankfurt International School. The tasks are subsumed in a major topic that is studied for a number of weeks. In the topic of ecology, for example, students are engaged in a number of tasks culminating in a poster presentation to the rest of the class. The tasks include reading, searching the internet, listening to taped material, selecting important vocabulary to teach other students etc.)

Communicative language teaching (CLT)

The focus of this method is to enable the learner to communicate effectively and appropriately in the various situations she would be likely to find herself in. The content of CLT courses are functions such as inviting, suggesting, complaining or notions such as the expression of time, quantity, location.

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.

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2-Lecture Lingua-cultural teaching and learning.

EXPERIENCE

An international student who majors in engineering drops by the engineering department office and asks the secretary, "Can you tell me where the English department is?" The secretary smiles and responds, "I don't know, actually. It's probably somewhere in the Humanities Building. Do you have a campus map?" The student turns around and leaves. The secretary is taken aback and feels slightly uncomfortable. She wonders why the student left so abruptly.

WHAT IS CULTURE AND WHAT IS ITS ROLE IN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING?

Two parallel types of research have been carried out to identify the role of culture in society and its influence on human behavior. The research on culture as it applies to social norms, beliefs, assumptions, and value systems that affect many (if not most) human activities is carried out in the domains of ethnography, anthropology, sociology, and intercultural communication. In these disciplines, culture is examined in terms that apply to most human societies and organizations, and research on culture seeks to determine the similarities and differences that exist in human constructions of reality. Applied linguistics (and specifically sociolinguistics and pragmatics) is concerned with the inextricable connection between language and sociocultural norms and frameworks and also seeks to identify patterns that can lead to an understanding of how members of particular cultllresuse language to refer to, describe, or function within social organizations. For example, politeness is considered to be a universal feature of language use in social organizations, but its pragmatic, linguistic, social, intentional, and con•

ceptual realizations vary substantially across different languages and cultures. Even speakers of the same language or speakers of different dialects

may belong to different subcultures and thus have different concepts of what it means to be polite and how politeness should be realized in speech

and behavior. In addition, research in ethnography, anthropology, and applied linguistics also includes studies of specific cultures, such as American, Chinese,

Japanese, and Mexican (e.g., Saville-Troike, 2003; Scollon & Scollon, 2001; Stewart & Bennett, 1991). These studies identify and describe ways of doing, speaking, and behaving in specific cultural communities without necessarily attempting to determine commonalities and differences among various cultures. Both research on culture in general and on specific cultures can be useful for teachers of second language (L2) students who wish to allow learners to become more aware of the connection between the culture of the community and the language of its speakers. In language teaching and research on language, the term culture includes many different definitions and msiderationsthat deal with forms of speech acts, sociocultural behaviors, the rhetorical structure of text, and the ways in which knowledge is transmitted and obtained. Culture may find its manifestations in

body language, gestures, concepts of time, hospitality customs, and even expressions of friendliness. While all these certainly reflect the cultural norms accepted in a particular society, the influence of culture on language use and on concepts of how language can be taught and learned is both broader and deeper. To a great extent, the culture into which an individual is socialized defines how that individual sees his or her place in society. Although it is essential for learners to attain language proficiency to be linguistically competent, particularly in English as a second language (ESL) settings, language proficiency alone is not sufficient. On the whole, to become proficient and effective communicators, learners need to attain

L2 sociocultural competence. Knowing how to say thank you, for example, does not automatically confer the knowledge of when to say thank you, how

often to say thank you, and whether any additional action is called for. Quite reasonably, learners first tend to apply the standards that exist in the first

or native language (Ll) communities where they were socialized. People who interact with ESL students have commented that some seem to express gratitude

excessively for small considerations, even to the point of embarrassing the person they are speaking to. Others, like the student in the initial example, seem downright rude because they do not say thank you when they are expected to. If the receptionist in an office spends time and effort trying to help

someone but fails to provide concrete help, it is not obvious to the student that a thank you is warranted. After all, she did not provide any real assistance, and it is her job to try to help. However, if no thanks is given, the receptionist may not be very likely to even attempt to help this student in the future. Not understanding the sociocultural

expectations of the culture can negatively impact learners' ability to function in an L2 community. In language teaching, focusing on the inextricable connections between a culture and its language uses should be a key characteristic of effective instruction in all language skills. At the present time, the ultimate goal of all cultural and cross-cultural education is to enable learners to become successful in an international community, in the global economy, and across national boundaries. Without instruction in and an understanding of L2 cultural and sociopragmatic norms,

learners do not have and cannot make the essential choices needed to optimize their communicative competence.

CONCEPTUAL UNDERPINNINGS OF LANGUAGE LEARNING AND CULTURE LEARNING

Among many other researchers, Hymes (1996) emphasized that the learning of culture is an integral part of language learning and education because culture crucially influences the values of the community, everyday interaction, the norms

of speaking and behaving, and the sociocultural expectations of an individual's roles. He further noted that those who do not follow the norms of appropriateness that are accepted in a community are often placed in a position that exacerbates

social disparities and inequality. Today, when the numbers of ESL and English

as a foreign language (EFL) students have grown dramatically worldwide, it is becoming increasingly clear that the learning of a second culture does not take care of itself. Thus, L2 learners cannot always make the best of their educational, professional, and vocational opportunities unless they become familiar with fundamental L2 cultural concepts and constructs. Most important, an ability to recognize and employ culturally appropriate ways of communicating in speech or writing allows learners to make choices with regard to their linguistic, pragmatic, and other behaviors (Byram & Morgan, 1994; Hinkel, 1999). Although traditionally courses and texts for language teachers have concentrated on teaching L2 language skills, it may be difficult to separate the teaching and learning of English from the culture of its speakers. For example, what represents polite ways of speaking and the appropriate ways of writing an essay depend on culturally dependent concepts that are closely bound up with the language skills needed to speak or write well in the L2.

The visible and the invisible culture In L2 teaching, the term culture can and has been employed to refer to distinctly different domains of people's lives. It can be uliterature, the arts, the architecture, and the history of a particular people. When asked about their native culture, many L2 learners and ESL/ EFL teachers alike describe the history or the geography of their country because these represent a popular understanding of the term culture.In addition, some definitions of culture can include the styles of dress, cuisine, customs, festivals, and other traditions. These aspects can be considered the visible culture in that they are readily apparent to anyone and can be discussed and explained relatively easily. Yet another far more complex meaning of culture refers to sociocultural norms, worldviews, beliefs, assumptions, and value systems that find their way into practically all facets of language use, including the classroom. The term invisibleculture applies to sociocultural beliefs and assump•tions that most people are not even aware of and

thus cannot examine intellectually. Scollon and Scallon (2001) state that the culturally determined concepts of what is acceptable, appropriate, and expected behavior are acquired in the process of socialization and, hence, become inseparable from an individual's identity. For example, in the classroom, the roles of the student and the teacher are defined by the sociocultural values of the larger community and the society. If students believe that the teacher is responsible for explaining the material and that speaking up in class is considered rude, presumptuous, and selfish, the teacher's simply instructing students to participate

in discussions may do little to change learners' notions of what is appropriate and how they will be seen by others if they actually speak up in class. Most teachers, even those with minimal classroom experience or exposure, know how difficult it can

be to convince some students to speak in front of their classmates, whereas other students may find it difficult to allow their classmates an opportunity to have their turn.

Why second culture learning is complex

The complexity of teaching culture lies in the fact that most people who engage in crosscultural interactions are not aware of the indelible impact of the invisible culture-their own and that of other participants-on practically all social uses

of language. In language learning, culture does not represent a separate domain of L2 skills, such as speaking or writing; instead, the learning of the L2 culture and its many manifestations in, for example, speech and writing makes learners better

communicators. In language teaching and learning, crucial sociocultural principles determine the norms of appropriate language use and behavior within the frameworks of the society (Hall, 2012).

These are likely to remain invisible unless they are taught and learned in conjunction with other language skills. As E. Stewart (1972) commented: [t] he typical person has a strong senseof what the world is really like, so that

it is with surprise that he discovers that"reality" is built up out of certain assump•

tions commcmly shared among members of the same culture. Cultural assumptions

may be defined as abstract, organized, and general concepts which pervade a person's outlook and

behavior. (p. 16)To members of a particular community

and culture, these assumptions appear to be self-evident and axiomatic. On the other hand, they are not always shared by members of other cultures whose values are similarly based on unquestioned and unquestionable fundamental assumptions and concepts. It is also important to note that ways of using language (e. g. , speaking, listening, reading, and writing) and sociocultural frameworks in different communities may conflict to varying degrees (Hinkel, 1999). Learners' awareness of sociocultural frameworks and the concepts they acquire as a part of

their socialization into beliefs, assumptions, and behaviors remains predominantly first-culture•bound even for advanced and proficient L2 learners (Hinkel, 1999). Byram and Morgan (1994) pointed out that "[l] earners cannot simply shake off their own culture and step into another .... [T]heir culture is a part of themselves and created them as social beings ... " (p. 43).

Lecture 3. Age groups for choice of methods in teaching methods.

First of all, children have a potential in developing accurate pronunciation and accent as native speakers, as well as perfectly repeating and memorizing intonation and grammatical patterns. Second, due to the fact that children start learning a foreign language from the early age, they have more time for learning it. They do not need to hurry and memorize as much as possible in a short period of time. By the beginning of the school period children already have some proficiency in a foreign language. Third, according to some studies, foreign language learning enhances cognitive development, basic skills performance and metalinguistic skills [3, p. 192].

Forth, while learning a foreign language a young learner also learns about the world, foreign culture, nature etc.. Fifth, in the early age children are extremely motivated to explore the world and learn new things, and with a proper class organization, it can positively influence the learning process. Teaching according to students' age: Age of children attending kindergartens varies from country to country, mostly ranging from 2 to 6 (rarely 7) years old. In this article I consider the class division in an average non-bilingual kindergarten in China. Mostly this kind of educational institutions has the following classes division:

Nursery class(托班), it addresses toddlers from 2 to 3 years old (hereinafter the y. o.); Low level class(小班), it addresses children from 3 to 4 y.o.; Middle level class (中班), it addresses children from 4 to 5 y.o.; High level class(大班), it addresses children from 5 to 6 y.o.. It is common that each group has one English class a week with a Chinese teacher, and one class a week with a foreign teacher. Duration of each lesson varies across kindergartens. In some kindergartens it depends on the different students' age, for example in nursery classes English lesson can last for 10–15 minutes, in low level and middle level classes for around 20 minutes, in high level classes for 30 minutes. However in some kindergartens duration of the lessons does not depend on the age, and it can last up to 45 minutes.

The time of a child's focus capability correlates with the age, and older children are capable of longer periods of attention than younger learners. According to some studies, an average attention span for children is: 7 minutes for 2 y.o.; 9 minutes for 3 y.o.; 12 minutes for 4 y.o.; and, 14 minutes for 5 y.o. [4, p.18]. The amount of concentration also depends on a child's motivation, thus it is highly recommended for the teacher to change activities a few times during the lesson. There are many different methods to teach foreign languages, and I would like to concentrate on some of them. The direct method is based on a concept that second language learning should be based on the example of the first language studying model.

Therefore, all the classroom instructions are provided only in the target language (L2). In order to increase comprehensible input, teaching is conducted with lots of active oral interaction, spontaneous use of the language, no translation between first and second languages, and little or no analysis of grammatical rules. As this method does not use the students' first language, the teacher must use concrete objects, pictures or demonstration as aids for teaching [5, p. 19]. The Audio-lingual Method has some similarities with the direct method. Typically, the lesson begins with a dialogue. A student is expected to mimic the dialogue and eventually memorize it. Structural patterns are taught using repetitive drills. Through repetitive drills students use pattern sentences automatically which is helpful for conversations. There is little or no grammatical explanation. Vocabulary is learned in the context. Because this method demand oral skills, it heavily depends on tapes, language labs and visual aids [5,p.54]. The Total Physical Response (TPR) method, developed by James Asher, comes from the idea that memory increases if it is stimulated through association with some activities. In TPR, instructors give commands to students in the target language with body movements, and students respond with whole-body actions. The method is aimed on quickly recognizing the meaning of language components, and helps students to passively learn the language structure. Grammar is not taught explicitly but can be learned from the language input. TPR is a valuable way to learn vocabulary, especially idiomatic terms, e.g., phrasal verbs. Asher developed three main hypothesis based on his research: first, that language is learned primarily by listening; second, that language learning must engage the right hemisphere of the brain; and third, that learning language should not involve any stress [5,p.73]. Grammar is not explicitly taught, but is learned by induction. Students are expected to subconsciously acquire the grammatical structure of the language through exposure to spoken language input, in addition to decoding the messages in the input to find their meaning. The natural approach is aimed at basic personal communication skills, e.g. conversations, shopping and listening to the radio. For the

natural approach, the class is used to provide comprehensible input, therefore the teacher speaks only the target language in the classroom.

The natural approach uses TPR activities at the beginning level of language learning to provide students with comprehensible input [6, p. 70]. Young children learn quickly and also forget quickly, therefore a complete lesson should involve "the learning of something new, the revision of something well-known and a period of consolidation of items already learnt but needing more practice" [6, p. 72]. Mostly, due to the fact that all the teaching methods have their limitations, most teachers combine several teaching methods at the same time. The amount of time spent on each method varies from the age and the purpose.

In older age children are already able to sit still for some time and listen to instructions, as well as being able to do exercises which require more concentration and brain activity. Teaching younger children (for example in the low level classes) requires more use of games and less time for instructions and studying part. Teaching English in the environment where children don't have an opportunity to practice the language nowhere except the English lesson creates some limitations, and makes it hard for the teacher to use some parts of these methods on practice. Mostly, in the reality, it might be complicated to explain new games or materials to the students without the use of the children's first language.

Thus, it can be effective at the early stages of learning the new language to use some translation, and then as students' age rises, to reduce the amount of children's native tongue used in the classroom. For children under three the stages of their development in English as a second language are similar to those of their development in their first language. They first play with the language, make sounds, learn and use single words and do non-verbal actions. These single words convey meaning to the adult who responds, elaborates and extends what is being said. Activities to assist babies and toddlers learning English as a second language are no different from those that are provided from children with English as their first language. It is important to provide a range of interactions, particularly those that happen on a one to one basis, or in a small group. These regular interactions provide the best outcomes for learning and practicing language. In the non-bilingual kindergartens, teachers have to consider the time limit factor.

At the beginning the most productive interactions might be: singing, running, introducing some vocabulary and playing games with the use of this vocabulary. Mostly in this age and low level of games' difficulty no translation into the native tongue is required. While doing the explanation the teacher might use some pictures or videos as well as real objects. For all the preschool age students arts and crafts explained in English can help students to extend their vocabulary, practice grammar and to increase motivation in learning the foreign language. For children from 2–3 it's better just to show them some experiments and crafts. And older aged students can participate in the activities themselves. Every language can be divided into several aspects:

Grammar, Speaking (which includes pronunciation), Reading, Writing. Vocabulary is the basic part of speaking, reading and writing. At the early age each of these aspects are introduced to students gradually. At the age of 2 to 3 y.o. the main focus will be on the listening, a bit on speaking, and children are being introduced to some vocabulary. The main activities can be songs, charts and some easy games. Due to the fact, that most children have never heard a foreign language before, storytelling will require a big amount of pictures, active explanation, mimicking, as well as translation into the children's native tongue. In the low level class (3–4 y.o.) children mostly already know some easy songs like "abc" and a few words in English (numbers, some animals, colors).

All sitting activities for more than 10 minutes may lead to the students' loss of concentration, due to the attention span theory. On this level a big amount of the vocabulary, stories will require translation. It will be hard for the teacher to use only the target language while teaching, because children don't have enough experience with the language yet. On this level some easy sentences will be introduced, such as: What is your name; How old are you; how are you etc.. It may require some translation, repetitive drills and the Audio-lingual method. More than half of the lesson's time is better to be spent on developing and action games, along with the TPR method. Children from 4 to 5 y.o. already know many words in English and some easy sentences. So the teacher might start introducing some language structures by showing how to change sentences, how to put different words in the sentence. The teacher can spend more time on the use of the direct and audio-lingual methods, meanwhile the time spent on games and activities remains not less than or half of the lesson's time. At this age children already can be introduced to the written alphabet, so to prepare them for learning written words in a big level class.

Children learn the written alphabet during the whole year, with the association with the words (for example c-cat). Only complicated sentences in the stories and new games' instructions will need to be translated into the first language. Depending on a group's level the natural approach can be used during the lesson by means of communication and usage of some authentic materials (like videos). At the age of 5–6

y.o. 90 percent of the teacher's speech and explanations already can be done in the target language. The teacher is working on developing communicative skills as well as reading and writing. Children already know a big amount of vocabulary, sentences, they can be encouraged to participate more in the dialogs. The teacher can start working on the children's reading skills. More complicated games can be introduced. Time spent on the vocabulary introduction reduces, and the big amount of time is spent on the practice itself. Conclusion: Learning a foreign language in the preschool age is extremely useful for a child's development.

Students' progress in the foreign language highly correlates with the methods used during the lesson. That is why, it is important for the teacher to know the abilities and the current English level of the students. Knowing the fact that children's abilities in a foreign language depend on their age can help the teacher to create an effective teaching plan and to make an interesting and developing lesson. The division into the age -- abilities structure is approximate. Children's level of English depends on a group and a child himself. However trying to use more complicated methods in teaching students with low level of English proficiency can lead to the lack of understanding within the group and, consequently, into the lack of motivation. It is highly important for the teacher to use a variety of teaching methods and to be able to make the studying plan flexible according to children's age and their foreign language level.

Lecture 4. Teaching and learning languages by means of Computer technologies. Computer assisted language learning.

Computer-assisted language learning and the web: The 1990s. In the 1990s, in addition to email communication, there was a growth of stand-alone programs that could be used in class•rooms, in laboratories, or for individual learning.

Examples of such programs included test-creation software, such as TestMaster (Wida Software, 1998); writing applications such as HyperCard (Apple

Computer , 1989); video-based listening, such as Real English Interactive (Marzio, 1999); and game•like programs, such as Oregon Trail (Minnesota

Educational Computing Consortium, 1974) and Escape from Planet Arizona (EF Education, 1995), which was one of the few simulation games intended for English learners. These programs(collectively called computer-assisted language learning [CALL]) represented a huge step forward in creativity and interactivity. However,

due to the limitations of the technology at the time, in addition to network connections being slow and expensive, many of them focused on a limited band of skill development and relied on what the technology could do best at the time: fill-in-the-blank or multiple-choice type assess•ment items. As Buell (1994) noted:

Tools, testers, tutors and toys: since the advent of CALL, these four categories have summed up the diversity of software available for language laboratory and individual use. The CD-ROM hasn't moved us beyond the four Ts,but it is bringing us bigger tools, testers, tutorsand toys than ever before. (n.p.)

At the same time as the growth in stand-alone soft•ware, in 1990, a proposal for the World Wide Web was put forth by Sir Tim Berners-Lee and Robert Cailliau (Berners-Lee & Cailliau, 1990). By the end of 1994, the web was growing exponentially, with new websites being added daily. With this new technology came an enormous expansion of CALL; in fact, CALL began to take center stage in new pedagogical practices (Egbert & Hanson-Smith, 1999; Hanson•Smith, 2000).

One of the larger shifts in the use of technology came because of increasing user.friendliness of the technology. Until this point, most computer programs had to be written by professional programmers or by educators who learned to

write programs on their own or through taking computer-programming course�. By comparison, webpages were easy to create. They required knowledge only of hyp

ertext markup language (HTML), a rather unsophisticated word processing style code. Many educators and students found they could master HTML rather quickly with the help of a book or online tutorial. As a result, CALL shifted from being

teacher-centered (or, more accurately, program•centered), with stand-alone software delivering grammar drills or similar activities, to a more

participatory medium. Teacher-created materials, now available on the web, became more popular , and even student-created projects, ty pically facilitated by teachers, popped up on sites around the globe (Isbell & Reinhardt, 2000). This change was

generally seen as a positive one, but it created a need for a new type of materials evaluation, one that took into account the new method of delivery and assessment of quality. With the nexus of control shifting away from traditional publishing, instructors and students grew wary of the quality of materials that were posted without having gone through traditional review processes (cf. Ciaffaroni, 2006;

Sokolik, 2003). As Greene (2000) noted: There is an attraction in Japanese CALL

instruction for software applications that demonstrate the power of computers to do graphic design rather than to learn English writing. This is evidence of the extent to which the "wow-factor" controls the Japanese post-secondary EFL agenda. (p. 241) Although Greene was speaking specifically about Japanese students using writing software, most instructors experienced in using educational software would probably agree that this problem•attraction to graphically interesting programs over those that deliver sound educational experiences•continues to be an issue today.

Web 2.0, social media, and expanding mobility: The 2000s and now. What was not entirely foreseen in the 1990s was the emergence of Web 2.0,

social networking, and social media along with their dramatic impact on educational practices and policies. Web 2.0 refers to a more interactive version of Internet capabilities. O'Reilly (2005) explains that it features "services, not software," functions "above the level of a single device," and harnesses "collective intelligence" (p. 5). Web 2.0 has meant that users are increasingly the creators

of materials and that even the barrier of learning HTML has been eliminated. Web 2.0 technologies have facilitated the growth of blogs, wikis (discussed later in this chapter), video sites like Vimeo and YouTube, social networking sites such as Facebook and Linkedin, ebooks (both "print" and audio versions), and a host of other applications that have enabled direct communication between users, either asy

nchro•nously (at different times; e.g., email is asynchro•nous) through written comments or videos, at the same time; e.g., a telephone conversation is synchronous) via text, voice, and video chats. These tools have given students and instructors more control than ever over classroom materials and, as a result, have caused some turmoil in the print publishing world. The availability of a wide range of media, often freely available, has pushed traditional textbook publishers to

change their own publishing practices and adapt to how students and teachers use materials.

As mentioned, Web 2.0 technologies are less and less platform-specific, meaning that they are available on laptops and mobile phones, as well as on an assortment of other connection tools such as tablet computers and ebook readers (e-readers).

These tools make computing more ubiquitous and open up the possibilities of what can be used in the language classroom. No longer is the student or teacher tethered to a computer lab or even to a classroom computer .

Theoretical Basis for the Use of Digital Technology

The theoretical basis for the use of digital technology in the classroom comes from the various second language acquisition theories and class•room practices themselves, rather than any theory intrinsic to the technology. In other words, there are not any specific pedagogical theories suggested by the use of any medium or technology, whether it is a chalkboard, a pad of paper and pencil, a telephone, or a computer. Not surprisingly, studies done in the late 1990s and early 2000s (Pelgrum & Plomp, 2002; Wenglinski, 1998) showed that the mere presence of classroom computers, for example, did nothing to improve learning. Furthermore, according to the TESOL Technology Standards Framework, "At present, there is no clearly articulated theory specific to technology use in language teaching" (T eachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 2009, p. 13).

However, various studies (Grgurovic & Chapelle, 2007; Warschauer , 1996) show that both student motivation and teacher instruction improve with the use of CALL in language learning. Similarly, "The use of technology in English language teaching and learning can also encourage the development of strategies necessary

for modern survival: communication, collaboration, and information gathering and retrieval" (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 2009, p. 15).

As Hanson-Smith (2003) noted, the development of methods and uses in CALL is a microcosm of the evolution of teaching practices in the field itself. When CALL features were limited by the technology, computer-based activities mimicked

the audiolingual approach and grammar-based methods. As the technology developed, more opportunities for rich content and interaction developed as well. applications, along with mobile telephones and computing, support the current focus on authentic materials and communicative learning

tasks. The question arises, however: Did our methods evolve because the technology has developed to support them, or did the technology change, at least in part, to fulfill our demands for a more content-rich learning environment?

CLASSROOM APPLICATIONS

Reading and writing skills

Digital technology has traditionally had its strength in offering ways to mediate reading and writing. Vast amounts of authentic reading materials, not to mention English language teaching (ELT) materials, are available online. In addition, written

exchanges between student and teacher have been made much simpler by email, instant messaging, and course management systems (CMSs), which offer

an integrated set of tools to deliver course materials, send group emails, and track assignments and attendance, in addition to other functions (CMS technology is discussed in more detail later in the chapter). Given new platforms, such as ebook readers and mobile telephones, access to and opportunities for reading and writing have expanded even more dramatically. Of course, along with these additional opportunities come complications; we might wonder which format is best for reading and writing, or whether any format is best. How do accessibility and usability figure into the use of different reading and writing platforms? How do we know which technologies our students can access? Can we predict which technologies are around the corner and plan accordingly ? Teachers need to consider these ques•

tions as they learn about the details of various tools and techniques for digital reading and writing.

Online reading. The type of reading we expect from students may not mesh well with what is generally known about online reading behavior . According to Agger (2008, referencing vanous studies by J. Nielson): Online' readers tend to skip large blocks of text; shorter paragraphs and bulleted lists get more attention.

The reading pace for online reading is believed to be 25% slower than reading from paper. If teachers assign reading that is to be read on a screen, these factors should be taken into consideration. For students who are interested in increasing

their reading speed, several websites offer reading speed assessment online (cf. Minnesota Laboratory for Low-Vision Research, 1999). On the other hand, the Internet has afforded instructors a nearly limitless supply of potential

reading material.

Teachers can use search enginesto locate topics of interest for students or assign

students to research areas of interest. One way to do this is to provide a focus for Internet research and reading rather than having students simply look up material online. Consider the activity in Figure 1. You are teaching an intermediate reading course, and the theme for the week is "Choosing a Career:' You go online and find three readings to assign to your students about three different careers: nursing, computer programming, and journalism.After having students read the articles you located, you ask them to participate in a discussion on a class discussion list, either by email or using other discussion platforms available to you. The question for discussion is:

Which career seems most interesting?

Figure I. Responding to assigned readings in an online discussion platform.

Writing: Email and chat. Much has been written about the use of email in the language class•room. Email has been used for communication between students, between students and teachers, and between students and others outside the

classroom. Many instructors and researchers have designed email tasks to focus on language learning. International culture exchanges such as "key-pal"programs help students to communicate authentically. However , email has in large part fallen out of favor as a method for communication between instructors and students in some circumstances.

This is due to two main factors:

1. Many instructors feel they receive too much email and that student messages often become lost in the shuffle; email is a less efficient way of communicating when classroom matters affect more than an individual student. Messages can also be

delayed, the answering time can be too long, or messages may end up in the spam folder.

2. Other platforms, such as social media (e.g.,Facebook) or CMSs, have arisen to facilitate communication between teacher and student,or among students, more economically.**Chat,** on the other hand, is real-time, or synchronous, communication. It has the informal feel of conversation, yet is mediated through writing.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Chat has the added feature of immediate response rather than the time lag involved with email. Chat can be used to facilitate class discussions, for immediate feedback between students and teachers outside class time, or for communication between students outside class. Chat logs, or written records of a chat session, can be kept in most chat programs and used as data for future classroom work or research. At present, there is a host of programs that can facilitate synchronous chat sessions, many of them free applications available for computers,

tablet computers, and mobile telephones. But, just as email has fallen out of favor with many instructors, chat has become less popular with students, who prefer using their telephones for sending text messages. In fact, in many communities around the world, mobile telephones are more common than computers-thus, the applications

and features of telephones are more popularly used. This fact need not be limiting-most smartphones have more computing capacity than the desktop computers of the early 1990s (using smartphones in the classroom is discussed later in the chapter).

Many instructors use chat to improve fluency in writing, but it can also be used to address issues in grammar and correctness. Consider the

activity in Figure 2. You have an online chat to discuss a popular event

in the media. You keep a chat log and have the file on your computer. You select some representative sentences, highlight the grammatical errors, print the file out or present it on a projector, and ask students to work in pairs to supply grammatically

correct options. Figure 2. Addressing accuracy in chat messages.

SUGGESTED ACTMTIES

1. Search online for a blog intended for students learning English. Based on your understanding of good educational practices, list at least three positive features of the blog. List three things that you could do to improve the blog.

2. Create a syllabus for a beginning English grammar course for ESL/EFL learners in which you integrate at least three different types oftechnology use. Discuss how your use of technology will enhance the grammar learning

experience.

3. Locate a website intended for ESL/EFL teachers. Provide a summary and review of what this site offers and how it is useful to ESL/EFL instructors.

4. Find an online resource that is a good sourceof authentic listening material for ELLs. Howmight you use the material in the context ofan ESL or EFL course? What types of activities could you create to help students understandthe material? What kinds of follow-up activities might be interesting and/ or useful?

Lecture 5. Language learning principles.

The unit involves:
1. **The Principle of Communicative Competence**
2. **The Principle of an Integrated Approach**
3. **The Principle of Conscious Approach**
4. **The Principle of Activity**
5. **The Principle of Visualization**
6. **The Principle of Systematic Teaching**
7. **The Principle of Accessibility**
8. **The principle of Individualization**
9. **Automaticity**
10. **Meaningful Learning**
11. **The Anticipation of Reward**
12. **The Intrinsic Motivation**
13. **Strategic Investment**
14. **The 6 principles for Exemplary Teaching of English learners**

The term "principle" introduces the notion of the leading basis thesis (propositions), regulating the process of teaching and educating the young generation.

1. The Principle of Communicative Competence

The aim of teaching English at school is to teach students how to use English for communicative needs. One of the main methodological principles is: **The Principle of Communicative Competence**. It means that students should be involved in oral and written communication throughout the whole course of learning English. Communicative goals are best achieved by giving great attention to language use and not just usage, to fluency and not just accuracy, to authentic language and contexts, and not just parallel structures. Some classroom implications of this principle are evident. Teachers try to keep every technique that they do as authentic as possible. Use language that students will actually encounter in the real world. Remember that someday your students will no longer be in your classroom. Make sure you are preparing them to be independent learners and manipulators or users of English "out there".

The principle of involving the pupils in the act of communication is highly important in the learning of FL. What are the most essential aspects of communication at the lesson?

Proffessor Passov determined 5 essential aspects of communication at the lesson:
2. Learn to speak by speaking (M.West).
3. There is a lot of difference between oral exercises and oral speech exercises.
4. Thinking-in-words activity is a major requisite of initiative in speech.
5. All the materials studied should have a communicative value.
6. Each class-period should be based on speech character, which is manifested:
   -in setting a communicative task;
   -in organizational form of a lesson (a short conversation at the beginning of a lesson, setting the class to work, etc);
   -in the teacher's conduct, speech conduct (as a communication partner).

2. The Principle of an Integrated Approach

Students do not assimilate sounds, grammar units, lexical items as discrete components of the language, but they acquire them in sentence-patterns, and pattern-dialogues related to certain situations. Students should use their skills as interdependent parts of their language experience. grammar structures, rules and lexical material. Consequently, we should differentiate between teaching speaking and writing;

teaching listening comprehension and speaking; teaching reading and writing; teaching prepared and unprepared speech, etc. However, the teaching process should also be done in integrated way – all types of activity – listening, speaking, reading and writing are developed simultaneously with regard to their interaction. Thus, a teacher should know how to teach a particular aspect of language with regard to its peculiarities, but at the same time he/she should try to integrate all activity types during the lesson.

3. The Principle of Conscious Approach

Students understand both the form and the content of the material they are to learn. Students are also aware of how they should treat the material while performing various exercises. Such an approach to language learning usually contrasts with "mechanical" learning through repetitive drill. The didactic principle of conscious approach is one of the leading principles because conscious learning plays an important role in language acquisition, enlarges intellectual capacities of learners, and helps to understand new concepts and express new ideas in the target language. This principle also implies comprehension of linguistic phenomena by the learner through the medium of vernacular and the arrangement in sentence patterns graded in difficulties with the emphasis on some essential points. The principle of conscious approach ensures purposeful perception and comprehension of the material, its creative absorption, and retrieval of information from the learner with a certain degree of automaticy.

4. The Principle of Activity

This principle implies that mastering English is only possible if the student is an active participant in the process of learning. From psychology we know that activity arises under certain conditions. First of all, the learner should feel a need to learn the subject (in our case is a foreign language). The main sources of activity are motivation, desire and interest. The didactic principle of activity presupposes a constant accumulation of knowledge and active participation of learners in the process of instruction. In TEFL we usually differentiate between intellectual, emotional and speech activities, which, if taken together, ensure favorable conditions to master the language. The intellectual activity can be obtained through guesswork, problem-solving questions, reading texts with their subsequent interpretation, etc. The emotional activity takes place when the pupils are pleased with the work they perform, when they like to learn a FL, and like the way of teaching. Speech activity appears during oral communication and is largely due to the intellectual and emotional activity which "feeds" it.

5. The Principle of Visualization

Visualization may be defined as a specially organized demonstration of linguistic material of the target language. Since pupils learn a foreign language in artificial conditions and not in real life, as in the case when children acquire their mother tongue, visualization should be extensively used in foreign language teaching. Visualization implies an extensive use of audio-visual aids and audio-visual materials through out the whole course of foreign language teaching. The didactic principle of visuality is realized in direct and visual modes of semantizing or explaining meanings, i.e. in the demonstration and naming by the teacher of objects, pictures and actions wherefrom the learners infer the meanings of words and expressions used. Visuality in methodology of FLT creates favorable conditions for sensual perceptions and brings another reality in instructive and educative process. The principle of visuality is considered to be one of the main methodological principles especially now that the instruction pursues practical aims. The implementation of visual aids develops the learners' habits of speech and enhances the emotional influence of visual perception.

6. The Principle of Systematic Teaching

Every work that is not done purely mechanically requires systematic approach to work implementation. The teaching of English must be systematic and very carefully planned. This means that the whole course and each lesson must be conducted according to a well-thought program or outline of the lesson.

7. The Principle of Accessibility

This principle implies the subject-matter of the instruction must correspond to the age and mental abilities of the learners; be neither too difficult not too easy for them (the material should be slightly above student's level); and be neither too much nor too little. The didactic principle of accessibility is realized in conformity with teaching strategies to the pupils' capacities so that they don't experience uphill difficulties while working with any materials during the lesson. The teaching materials should meet requirements of linguistic and psychological factors:

1) correspond to the age and mental abilities of the learners; be neither difficult nor easy;
2) be properly graded;
3) be heuristic in form and structure;
4) be presented in such a way that the pupils have to solve one problem at a time.

8. The principle of Individualization.

The didactic principle of individualization takes into account individual peculiarities of the learner, his background knowledge, what he knows, his spheres of interest, etc., so it focuses on the cognitive styles of the pupils. Cognitive styles have been defined as characteristic mental and psychological behaviors that "serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment". Differences in people's cognitive styles reflect the different ways people respond to learning situations. The teacher has to deal with a wide range of pupils: extroverts (who get their greatest satisfaction from social contacts with other people), introverts (who are self-centered, like to be alone with their dreams and their thoughts), deductivists (rational-logical types of pupils who like the rules to be formulated), inductivists (who induce rules from examples), etc.

9. Automaticity

Now we will take a look at a set of principles which is called "cognitive" because the principles relate mainly to mental and intellectual functions. Evidence of the success with which children learn foreign languages
is difficult to dispute, especially when children are living in the country where this language is spoken. We attribute children's success to their tendency to acquire
language subconsciously, which is without analyzing the forms of language. They learn the language without thinking about it. This childlike processing is sometimes called automatic processing. So, in order to manage the incredible complexity of language, learners must move away from processing language unit by unit and piece by piece, to an automatic processing in which language forms must be on the periphery of attention. Overanalyzing language by thinking too much abouits forms and rules hinder the graduation to automaticity. What does this principle say to you as a teacher? Here are some possibilities.
-Make sure that a large proportion of your lessons are focused on the use of language for purposes that are as genuine as a classroom context might permit.
-Automaticity isn't gained overnight. Teachers need to exercise patience with students as teachers slowly help them to achieve fluency.

10. Meaningful Learning

Meaningful learning will lead towards better long-term retention than rote learning. In the past, rote learning occupied much time of the class hour. Students were drilled and drilled in an attempt to learn language forms. Now we know that drilling easily lends itself to rote learning. Teachers should avoid the following pitfalls of rote learning: too much grammar explanation; too many abstract principles and theories; too much drilling and memorization; activities whose purposes are not clear; activities that do not contribute to accomplishing the goals of the lesson; techniques that are very mechanical or tricky.

11.The Anticipation of Reward

According to this principle, human beings are universally driven to act or behave by the anticipation of some sort of reward that will ensue because of the behavior. Really, there is virtually nothing that we do that is not inspired and driven by a sense of purpose or goal. The anticipation of reward is the most powerful factor in directing one's behavior. Some classroom implications of this principle for teachers are as follows:
-Provide verbal praise and encouragement to students as a form of short-term reward.
-Encourage students to reward each other with compliments and supportive action
-Display enthusiasm and excitement by yourself in the classroom because if you are dull, lifeless, bored and have low energy, you can be almost sure that your pupils will be the same.
-Try to get students to see the long-term reward in learning English by pointing out the prestige in being able to speak English.

12. The Intrinsic Motivation Principle

Simply stated, this principle is that the most powerful rewards are those that are intrinsically motivated within the learner. Teachers can perform a great service to learners and to the learning process by considering what the intrinsic motives of their students are and by carefully designing classroom tasks. The students will perform the task because it is interesting, useful, or challenging, and not because they anticipate some rewards from the teacher.

13. Strategic Investment

In the past the language teaching profession largely concerned itself with the "delivery" of language to the student. Teaching methods, textbooks, or grammar rules were considered as the primary factors in successful teaching. Nowadays, teachers are focusing more intently on the role of the learner in the process. The "methods" that the learner uses are as important as the teacher's methods — or more so. Thus, this principle is — the successful mastery of the foreign language will be due to a learner's own personal

"investment" of time, effort, and attention to the language. Some classroom applications of this principle indicate teachers must give ample verbal and non-verbal assurances to students, sequence techniques from easier to more difficult, and sustain self-confidence where it already exists and build it where it does not.

Both teachers and learners have to keep before them certain principles for effective teaching and learning foreign language:

14. The 6 principles for Exemplary Teaching of English learners

What are the most important English as a Second Language (ESL) teaching principles? How can English teachers better serve their students? What are some examples of best practices from across the globe?

-TESOL is an influential global association of English teachers. The organization aims to enhance the quality of English teaching through standards and advocacy, and by promoting professional development and research. At the 2018 TESOL International Convention in Chicago, TESOL unveiled "The 6 Principles for Exemplary Teaching of English Learners". Here they are:

Principle 1: Know your Learners

-English teachers should understand the students' personal and educational background so they can tailor classes according to their students' needs more effectively. Learning about the students' culture, first language, and past experiences are useful while preparing lesson plans, materials, and projects.

Principle 2: Create Conditions for Language Learning

-Creating a positive atmosphere in class considering physical space, materials, and student integration promotes better learning experiences for English students. A pleasant atmosphere makes students feel comfortable and more confident in participating and expressing themselves in a positive way, which is essential for learning development. Additionally, setting high expectations, differentiation, and motivation help learners deepen their English language skills.

Principle 3: Design High-Quality Lessons for Language Development

-Creating meaningful and exceptional lesson plans that develop the students' language acquisition and their content learning process remains essential. Teachers may engage students in authentic language practice experiences, supporting their learning strategies and critical thinking development. According to the 6 Principles manifesto, "gestures, visuals, demonstrations, embedded definitions, audio supports, and bilingual glossaries make information comprehensible."

Principle 4: Adapt Lesson Delivery as Needed

-Assessing students and adapting lesson plans accordingly remains a must. Reflecting on the students' performance and development improves the quality of many English lessons. There are several ways to do so: reteaching content, adapting activities and materials, adjusting instructions and tasks, being flexible with the students' response time they allow students.

Principle 5: Monitor and Assess Student Language Development

-Outstanding ESL/EFL teachers also monitor and assess students' language development to measure and document progress. English students learn in different ways and speed. Therefore, English teachers should prepare different forms of assessment while providing constructive feedback appropriate for the students' ages and levels for continual student improvement.

Principle 6: Engage and Collaborate Within a Community of Practice

-This last principle suggests English teachers should collaborate with each other to support their English language learners. Sharing classroom experiences, reflecting critically on teaching practices, following current ELT research, joining and engaging in professional groups, attending academic conferences, and engaging in online learning groups are all ways to be active within a community of practice. This advice might benefit teachers, their co-workers, their students and the institutions where we work. Is this last suggestion a tad self-serving for TESOL? Yes, but it's also a practical suggestion for dedicated ESOL professionals.

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Lecture 6. Using and evaluating textbook in teaching English.

This unit includes:
1. **What is teaching learning material?**
2. **The Importance of Learning Materials in Teaching**
3. **Objectives of Teaching-Learning Materials**
4. **The different types of Classroom Materials that are commonly used**

1. What is teaching learning material?

Teaching learning materials (TLMs) are the tools, which are used by teachers to help learners to learn concept with ease and efficiency. Teaching learning material is not very complicated, for there are multiple types of teaching materials available in the market and you need to choose the one that suits your purpose. Nowadays every student has different and unique needs. Even students who attend a specific school cannot go to the same college or school because of various reasons. Therefore, you have to select a teaching material for every student, according to their requirement. In short, different types of teaching material include teaching books, DVDs, CDs, computers, portable multimedia devices, personal computers, and a host of other teaching methods.

Teachers' educational backgrounds are very important for teaching. Once you select the material, it is your responsibility to make sure that it fits your subject. If you find the content in the material to be so difficult, then it is recommended that you do not use the material at all. This is true in most cases. It is also important to check the style, format, and reliability of the material. You have to decide whether you are going to print the material or distribute it in the form of a DVD or CD.

The classroom is the best place to make use of the teaching material because this is where students can get useful information from. The lesson plans, which you have prepared will be useful for the students for the entire session. Therefore, before you start with the actual work, ensure that you have made a proper study plan of the material. There are many teachers who will help you in the process of selecting the teaching material so that you do not have to face any problems in the end. Below are the types of teaching materials used:

Audio Aids: It includes human voice, telephonic conversation, audio discs/tapes, gramophone records, Radio broadcast.

Visual Aids: It includes Visual (Verbal) Print e.g. Textbook, Supplementary book. Reference books, encyclopedia, Magazine, Newspaper, Documents and Clippings, Duplicated written material, Programmed material, Case Studies/Reports,

Visual (Pictorial- Non Projected)–

a) Non-projected two dimensional – Here the TLM is in form of an image or picture e.g. blackboard writing and drawing Charts, Posters, Maps,Diagrams, Graphs, Photographs, Cartoons, Comic strips.

b) Non-Projected three-dimensional – This category includes three dimensional representation of the real object or phenomenon e.g. Models, Mock-up,Diorama, Globe, Relief Map, Specimen, Puppet, and Hologram.

4. Visual (Projected but still) – Here the images are projected or displayed on a screen and thus are nearer reality than visual non-projected ones e.g. Slide, Filmstrips, Over Head Projector (OHP), Microfilm,Micro card, etc.

Audio Visual TLMs are the projected aids, which use both auditory and visual senses to enhance learning e.g. Motion Picture Film, Television, Video discs/cassettes, slide – tape presentations, Multimedia, Computer.

2. The Importance of Learning Materials in Teaching

"Teaching materials" is a generic term used to describe the resources teachers use to deliver instruction. Teaching materials can support student learning and increase student success. Ideally, the teaching materials will be tailored to the content in which they're being used, to the students in whose class they are being used, and the teacher. Teaching materials come in many shapes and sizes, but they all have in common the ability to support student learning.
Examples

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Teaching materials can refer to a number of teacher resources; however, the term usually refers to concrete examples, such as worksheets or manipulatives (learning tools or games that students can handle to help them gain and practice facility with new knowledge -- e.g. counting blocks). Teaching materials are different from teaching "resources," the latter including more theoretical and intangible elements, such as essays or support from other educators, or places to find teaching materials.

Student Learning Support

Learning materials are important because they can significantly increase student achievement by supporting student learning. For example, a worksheet may provide a student with important opportunities to practice a new skill gained in class. This process aids in the learning process by allowing the student to explore the knowledge independently as well as providing repetition. Learning materials, regardless of what kind, all have some function in student learning.

Lesson Structure

Learning materials can also add important structure to lesson planning and the delivery of instruction. Particularly in lower grades, learning materials act as a guide for both the teacher and student. They can provide a valuable routine. For instance, if you are a language arts teacher and you teach new vocabulary words every Tuesday, knowing that you have a vocabulary game to provide the students with practice regarding the new words will both take pressure off of you and provide important practice (and fun) for your students.

Differentiation of Instruction

In addition to supporting learning more generally, learning materials can assist teachers in an important professional duty: the differentiation of instruction. Differentiation of instruction is the tailoring of lessons and instruction to the different learning styles and capacities within your classroom. Learning materials such as worksheets, group activity instructions, games, or homework assignments all allow you to modify assignments to best activate each individual student's learning style.

Acquiring Teaching Materials

Getting your hands on valuable teaching materials is not nearly as difficult as it can seem at first. The Internet has many resources for teachers, most of them free, that can significantly increase the contents of your teaching toolbox. You can also make your own materials. Every learning material you develop will be an asset to you when you next teach a similar unit. An investment of time or money in good teaching materials is an investment in good teaching.

Need of Teaching Aids

1) Every individual has the tendency to forget. Proper use of teaching aids helps to retain more concept permanently.

2) Students can learn better when they are motivated properly through different teaching aids.

3) Teaching aids develop the proper image when the students see, hear taste and smell properly.

4) Teaching aids provide complete example for conceptual thinking.

5) The teaching aids create the environment of interest for the students.

6) Teaching aids helps to increase the vocabulary of the students.

7) Teaching aids helps the teacher to get sometime and make learning permanent.

8) Teaching aids provide direct experience to the students. are making use of technology to prepare their assignments, reports or projects, then it is vital for them to acquire efficient knowledge. In the field of didactic theory, as well as in teaching practice, the classification of teaching-learning materials into visual, auditory and audio- visual is universally acknowledged (Busljeta, 2013). Furthermore, it is essential for the educators as well as the students to possess effective communication skills, especially when they are making use of any types of teaching-learning materials. When the educators will be able to communicate in an effective manner, then they would facilitate understanding among students. Whereas, when students augment their communication skills, then they will be able to acquire an efficient understanding of the academic concepts. The educators and the students need to collaborate with each other in the development of teaching-learning materials.

3. Objectives of Teaching-Learning Materials

The primary objective of teaching-learning materials is to motivate students towards acquisition of education. These are primarily used by teachers to provide assistance and support to the learners to achieve academic outcomes. The major objectives have been stated as follows: (Unit 7: Teaching Learning Materials, n.d.).

Motivate Learners – The teachers make use of not only one, but various forms of teaching-learning materials within the classroom setting. When they are making use of them, they ensure that students are able to feel pleasurable and get motivated towards learning.

Therefore, students develop interest and enthusiasm and develop motivation towards learning.

Development of Knowledge and Skills among Teachers – Through the implementation of teaching-learning methods in an effectual manner, the teachers are able to develop their knowledge and skills. They are able to generate awareness, regarding how to make use of this knowledge in performing their job duties well. They need to make use of these skills and knowledge in the achievement of educational objectives.

Help in Longer Retention of Information – The TLMs, when implemented should ensure that they help in the longer retention of information. When learners pay appropriate attention towards TLMs, then they are not only able to acquire an effective understanding of the concepts, but also are able to promote longer retention of information.

Facilitate Holistic Learning – Through TLMs, the learners are not only able to acquire an efficient understanding of the academic concepts, but the teachers also assist and support them in augmentation of psycho-motor, cognitive and intellectual development. As development of these aspects are regarded as essential for promoting effective decision making processes and rational thinking.

Help in Organizing Classroom Teaching – The teachers are able to generate awareness in terms of implementation of lesson plans and concepts. When they are using teaching-learning methods in an appropriate manner, then they are able to plan and organize the teaching methods too within the classroom. In addition, they are able to generate awareness in terms of concepts.

Promoting Effective Communication – The use of adequate teaching-learning methods help in promoting effective communication processes between the teachers and students and among students themselves. The communication processes between them takes place in verbal and written forms. Therefore, both forms of communications get promoted among the teachers and students and students themselves.

Facilitating Change in Attitudes – The teachers as well as students are able to bring about changes in attitudes and behavioural traits through the use of teaching-learning methods. Primarily, when modern and innovative methods are made use of, then students feel motivated towards learning and are also able to bring about changes in attitudes.

Practical Applications – TLM promotes the application of theoretical knowledge into practical applications. The theoretical knowledge that is studied in classes are depicted in the concrete form through TLMs for effective teaching. The application of theoretical knowledge into practical applications enables the students to achieve academic outcomes in an effective manner.

Making Learning Pleasurable – TLMs help in making learning fun and pleasurable within the classroom setting. Students take pleasure in acquiring understanding regarding the novelty of new projects and learn new concepts through them. It is essential for the students to ensure that they bring in their experiences within the classroom setting. This is especially important in the case of adult learners.

Concept Formation – TLMs facilitate the formation and attainment of concepts among students. In some subjects, certain academic concepts are difficult to learn and understand. Thus, it is vital for the students to ensure that they are able to acquire an efficient understanding of TLMs to augment their understanding and generate the desired academic outcomes.

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4. The different types of Classroom Materials that are commonly used

Classroom materials can be categorized into a number of types. Let's take a look at most important types of classroom materials.

1. Realia: Realia includes objects from real-life that are made use of by teachers, as important classroom materials. Such objects help in enhancing student's understanding various cultures and also understanding real life conditions.

A sort of a multidimensional and tangible connection exists between the lesson that has already been learned and the objectives of the lesson to be learned. Realia are characterized as being plentiful, i.e. comprises within its realm plenty of examples. This, in turn, helps the students to gain more solid and concrete experiences. That further plays a huge role in motivating the leaner.

However, sometimes they can be a little difficult because they are not always based on practicality and hence can be a distraction to students.

2. Models: Models can be defined as three-dimensional representations of real objects. Models are usually representations of structures. The best thing about models as a classroom material is that they can be manipulated. In fact they are considered to be more practical than Realia. Models go a long way in simplifying complex concepts. So models serve as really important instructional materials.

Like every other thing, however, sometimes inaccuracy in models, may lead to misconceptions. Further in its endeavor to simplify, it can sometimes lead to oversimplification of concepts. Again at times, models may really be difficult to design.

3. Text: This is the most important form of classroom material. A text can be defined as alphanumeric characters and letters presented to students in the form of printed materials. Benefits of text as instructional aids include the fact that a text may synthesize or enhance a text. It provides exercise and enriches activities. Plus it's easy to carry around.

However, in the age of technology, texts have become a traditional concept and may at times suffer from faulty misconceptions that may also lead to dividing the student's attention.

4.Story Books: Story books make great teaching-learning materials. For example, a middle school teacher can use a book like "The Hatchet" by Gary Paulson, a gripping story of a boy, 13, who finds himself alone in a desolate wooded area in Canada, with only a hatchet (a gift from his mother) and his wits to help him survive. A teacher can read this book to the class as a whole, then have students write a brief essay summarizing the book and explaining what they thought of the story. And at the elementary school level, book reports provide a great way to have students engage with the books they read, either individually or together with the class.

5.Manipulatives: Manipulatives are physical items such as gummy bears, blocks, marbles, or even small cookies, that assist student learning. Manipulatives are especially helpful in the younger primary grades, where students can use them to help solve subtraction and addition problems.

6.Samples of Student Writing: Having students write can be an effective teaching method. But students often have difficulty thinking of topics. That's where student writing prompts can be useful. Writing prompts are brief partial sentences designed to help spark student writing, such as "The person I admire the most is... " or "My biggest goal in life is..." Just be sure to give students the parameters of the assignment, such as a single paragraph for younger pupils or a full, multi-page essay for older students.

7.Videos: In the current digital age, there are plenty of websites that offer free educational videos for kids. Videos provide real, visual images that can help enliven learning, but you need to be careful to choose videos that have real educational value. Websites that offer free learning videos include the Khan Academy, which offers videos on basic and advanced math, English grammar and literature, science, and even SAT preparation.

8.Games: Games can be useful in teaching students everything from money and grammar to social skills. Sight words bingo, for example, can help students learn their basic sight words, but there are also relatively inexpensive bingo games that teach money skills, Spanish, telling time, and even English grammar. More active, outside games such as basketball or kickball can help students learn social skills, such as taking turns, sharing, working as a team, and being a good loser or gracious winner.

9.Flashcards: Even in this age of computers and internet-based learning materials, flashcards can be particularly useful for students with learning disabilities such as dyslexia. Printing high-frequency words, also known as sight words, on the front of flashcards with short definitions on the back can create a good learning tool for students who have auditory or visual learning styles.

10.Model Clay: Younger students, such as those in kindergarten through third grade, can learn using model clay. For example, a teacher might have young students make letters of the alphabet using clay. But you can also use clay to teach concepts to older students. Teachers have been known to use model clay to teach plate tectonics, the theory of how the Earth's surface behaves.

11. Overhead Projector Transparencies: In this modern age, don't forget about the value of old-fashioned overhead transparencies. A teacher can use overhead projector transparencies to teach counting skills, such as for numbers up to 100, and visually demonstrate how charts and graphs work. Better even than a whiteboard or blackboard, transparencies allow you or students to write numbers, create problems, circle, and highlight features and easily wipe away markings with a paper towel or tissue.

12. Computer Software and Apps: Plenty of learning computer software is available online. Interactive software programs can help English language learners study grammar and other elements of the English language. And apps, such as for tablet computers and even smartphones, offer instruction in everything from

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foreign languages to information on the Common Core Standards as well as university-level lectures and lessons for students—many of the apps are free.

13. Visual Aids: Visual aids can be teaching tools designed for the entire classroom, such as posters showing basic site words, class rules, or key concepts about important holidays or lessons. But they can also be used the help students individually, particularly visual learners or those having difficulty organizing their work or their thoughts. Graphic organizers, for example, are charts and tools used to visually represent and organize a student's knowledge or ideas. Graphic organizers can help students learn math and they are good tools for teaching special education students and English language learners.

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Lecture 7. Using authentic materials in the EFL classroom.

The statement of the problem.Currently the main task of the teachers is not only to
teach students in traditional and time-tested me-thods, but also to develop and apply new teaching methods using the latest technical achievements with the goal of developing professional knowledge and skills in order the young professionals will be competitive and easily cope with the demands of the modern world.The global goal in teaching foreign languages is to introduce to a different culture and participate in the dialogue of cultures. This goal is achieved if the student acquires the necessary level of inter-cultural communicative competence in the process of studying.

Work with authentic materials is one of the ways to satisfy the students' communicative and cognitive need to obtain new information and thereby increase the overall level of the motiva-tional component in teaching a foreign language. The purpose of the article.The paper deals with the teaching of English language using authentic materials. Firstly, the definition of authenticity should be found out. A. Gilmore gives at least eight meanings of this word, starting with "a text is pro-duced by a real speaker / writer for a real audience and having some real message". At the same time, authenticity, in his opinion, can also refer to the types of selected tasks [1]. D. Nunan says that au-thentic materials are not specifically created for the purpose of teaching a foreign language [3].

Many teachers emphasize the need to use au-thentic materials in foreign language classes, while others refuse from special educational materials in favor of "real" texts, which, in their opinion, contain "live" English. Their choice supports the
position of Gilmore, who argues that the English language is represented in the textbooks is only a weak reflection of reality, which will certainly affect negatively the practical skills of students.The statement of the main material.The understanding of foreign speech remains one of the most difficult in teaching. The fact that now there is the generation of "digital natives" should be tak-en into account [2]. One of the examples of authen-tic materials is podcasting.Among blogs there is a special type – audio-blogs, or so-called podcasts (from English Podcast or Podcasting). Podcasts are the same network dia-ries, only with audio files in MP3 format. Podcast-ing is the creation and distribution of audio files in MP3 format on the Internet, which you can listen to on-line or upload to an MP3 player. Podcasting is aimed at the fact that each student is able to create his audio blog, where he can place his au-dio recordings. The main difference between the
podcast and live broadcasting is that, after down-loading a "fresh" release, you can listen to it at a convenient time in a convenient place.One of the important goals of teaching is to teach students to understand speech. The teach-er's lack of audio recordings in the lesson will lead to the fact that students will not be able to under-stand live speech outside the classroom. The use of audio materials can greatly contribute to prepar-ing students for situations of real communication and to remove possible difficulties. Without mas-tering this kind of speech activity, like listening, it is impossible to learn a language and use a foreign language speech at the level that is necessary at
the present stage of society development.

Podcasts are good because they allow to "get used to" someone else's speech. Podcasts are bet-ter to choose on the topics of interest, they can be different, including economic, legal, environmental and other issues. The method, in which students repeatedly listen to different texts on the topic of interest to them, contributes to a deep and special
understanding of the language being studied. This technique requires a gradual change in that which entails an expansion of language competence in general.

One of the most difficult tasks when working with podcasts is the selection of material or the criteria by which the material should be selected. Currently, in the methodology of teaching foreign languages, domestic and foreign researchers have
developed several criteria for the selection of pod-casts: website credibility, reliability of information, the availability of additional options for the pod-cast (the availability of exercises) and the ability to choose the level of complexity of podcast.

Work on listening to podcasts can be recom-mended in the form of homework with further discussion in the class, after working out new lex-ical units and grammatical constructions, which facilitates working with podcasts to students of

a lower level. The availability of a transcript for this podcast will make students' work more acces-sible. The transcript of a podcast can be used after careful testing as a dictation to verify the learning of lexical and grammatical constructions.

Another type of authentic materials is video-conferences. Nowadays they are gained a lot of popularity and the most well-known is TED con-ferences. TED is a project of a private non-profit foundation in the United States, whose main goal is to spread unique ideas.The themes of speeches vary from culture and art to the most interesting problems of science,

politics, business and technology. All performanc-es can be viewed in free access, they are accom-panied by subtitles, and many are translated into more than 20 languagesof the world.

These materials are extremely useful for the formation and development of lexical skills, listen-ing skills, skills associated with working on pres-entations and public speaking. They perfectly mo-tivate and intensify the work of students in the classroom, encouraging them to form their own point of view, to seek additional information for its

reinforcement, to represent it in the group, disa-greeing and discussing with other participants in the discussion.

It is necessary to say about lexical variety and richness of accents and features of pronunciation of speakers of different age groups, which is use-ful from the point of view of developing listening skills and preparing students for communication with people of different countries and cultures.These videos are great for discussions, at the

stage of practical application of the studied vocab-ulary. They are an excellent basis for discussion, exchange of opinions, creating a situation of real communication in a foreign language.

On the basis of TED materials, it can be cre-ated multi-level assignments, selecting individual variant of the task for the student, according to his interests and capabilities at this stage of the work. The video materials give this opportunity from the very beginning due to the wide choice of the offered themes, including the simplest ones, not involving the use of a large volume of un-known vocabulary. In addition, speakers at TED

conferences are not only native speakers, among them there are even children: due to the differ-ence in levels of English, some speeches are based on simple vocabulary.Thus, the TED project can help teachers bring useful ideas to classes and build the situation of

real, "live" communication, exchange of opinions and cause debates. The main difference between the information contained in these materials from encyclopedic information is that it creates the need to express themselves, express their opinion, enter into a conversation.It can be also offered to conduct own research on the chosen problem. The project provides mate-rials for classes with a wide variety of age groups, from junior high school students to college and university students.

Using of TED materials in the classroom helps students to learn the lessons more effectively and with less effort, develops critical thinking skills, teaches to perceive and accept oth-er people's opinions and views along with their own.Perfect example of authentic material can be newspaper article. Although authentic newspaper

articles are not specifically created for the educa-tional process, they can be an excellent material for work at classroom and extracurricular time, as they have a number of positive didactic fea-tures. The article is taken from an English-lan-guage website or publication, first of all, reflects all the features of the "living" modern language.

It is possible to create databases of topics of inter-est, methodically process and edit selected texts, diversify the range of tasks for independent work of students, to add a source of teaching and meth-odological material to their arsenal, and to expand

the range of teaching methods.Among the features of a newspaper article, we

can single out repeatability of vocabulary in arti-cles of the same orientation; the statement of the problem or the description of the essence of the phenomenon at the beginning of the article, a de-scription of the general situation in the long first

sentence, and so on.When selecting text material, we can guided by

the following criteria: relevance, scientific, informa-tive, novelty, professional orientation, semantic com-pleteness, problematic, language, age of students.

From a didactic point of view, working with a newspaper in English is the best way to solve speech problems when it is aimed at activating three basic types of reading:

1. skimming – definition of the basic idea of the text;
2. scanning – search for specific information in the text;

3. reading for detail – a detailed understanding of the text at the level of content and meaning.These types of reading should be used at the main stages of the work: pre-reading stage, while-reading stage and the post-reading stage.At the pre-reading stage, students can be asked a number of questions that anticipate the topic or the main idea of the text, allowing them to form the attitude to the subject, event, situation or phenomenon described in the text of the article, to create a certain level of initial motivation.

The title of the article deserves special atten-tion. After reading it, students can think about the thematic affiliation of an article to a particular ru-bric, share their knowledge of the stated problem.

Alternatively, the work with a picture / photo / illustration can be offered. All these tasks contrib-ute the development of the ability to determine the basic idea of the text. After reading the first paragraph of the article students can also discuss the associations and ideas that have arisen.The while-reading stage is aimed at the for-mation of various language skills and speech skills. To develop the ability to search for specific infor-mation in the text, promptly finding of answers to specific questions can be offered.

The task "multiple choice" can be successfully applied at all stages of working with the text. At the initial stages of working with original sources, incorrect variants can be formulated using infor-mation that was not mentioned in the text, in order to concentrate attention on the general meaning of the statement. Later it is better to formulate vari-ants, using words and expressions used in the text, but not true for the given sentence. In addition, paraphrasing individual elements of the sentence to complicate the task, offering more than one true option can be used.

At the while-reading stage, students may be asked questions aimed, for example, at finding spe-cific information. Other types of questions are also good: alternative or general knowledge of students. It is separately proposed to choose idioms, clichés.The post-reading stage also involves the use of subjects, linguistic and grammatical constructions of the article for the development of oral and writ-ten skills.

After reading the article and completing work on it students can think about their original translation of the title of the article with the same meaning, subtext, style; write an essay on one of the proposed topics. Another tasks can be restoring the sequence, logical regrouping, draw-ing up a plan, comparing paragraphs with their names, etc.

The students themselves prefer to work with such materials, considering them"motivating, in-teresting and useful" and that they bring students closer to the culture of the country of the studied language, make the learning process more fun and,

consequently, increase the motivation of students.

Conclusion. These materials can be used both in classes and for the practice of oral speech, both for classroom work and for homework and inde-pendent work of students, given the openness of access to them, the possibility of organizing and participating in online discussions, as well as the existence of many other forms of control tasks.The use of authentic materials attracts interest to the subject, contributes to the development of all types of speech activity in the lesson, students express their opinion, discuss what they see, and discuss on one topic or another. In addition, they get acquainted with the peculiarities of the coun-try of the studied language, listen to the speech of native speakers.

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Lecture 8. Needs analysis. Teaching English for Specific Purposes.

Introduction The importance of teaching English for specific purposes (ESP) at university is increasing as it is becoming an integral part of professional competence. Globalization and internationalization of education open up new opportunities for university graduates, and at the same time put higher demands in terms of skills that they are expected to possess in order to compete in the job market. One of the specific features of ESP courses is their integrated nature – teaching the language is combined with teaching content relevant to students' future career. When designing and teaching an ESP course, higher educational institutions have to take into account students' needs and expectations as well as the relevance of the learning materials. One of the issues of teaching ESP courses is that teachers focus too much on the content, trying to "equip" their students with the maximum amount of "knowledge". This paper discusses some of the problems related to designing a well-balanced ESP course for university students and describes some of the activities for a learner-centered ESP class.

A learner-centered environment Over the past few decades, most educators have shifted from the teacher-centered classroom to the learner-centered one. The learner-centered approach focuses on the learners and their development rather than transmission of content. It balances learning and teaching and makes it possible for the learners to build up their own knowledge and take responsibility for the learning outcomes.

The learner-centered approach is in line with the theory or learner autonomy or selfdirected learning. The concept of self-directed learning was first introduced in 1975 by M. Knowles, who explained it as "a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes" [4]. The basic principles of self-directed learning can be expressed in the following abilities of a student:

- the ability to set learning goals and work out ways to achieve them;
- the ability to reach the desired learning outcomes;
- the ability to assess the learning outcomes and monitor their own progress;
- the ability to work independently without excessive guidance;

In other words, self-directed learning is a method of organizing the learning process in an effective way that makes it possible for the students to reach their targets. It is often associated with the development of higher order thinking skills such as creativity, problem solving and critical thinking. Besides, academic success depends a lot on self-directed learning. One of the ultimate goals of teaching ESP is the development of students' abilities and skills of using the language for professional communication in a variety of job-related settings.

Teaching ESP involves reaching proficiency in a foreign language for professional purposes, developing personal qualities, raising cultural awareness and acquiring special skills based on professional and linguistic knowledge. In other words, the essence of learning a foreign language for specific purposes lies in its integration with special disciplines in order to acquire additional professional knowledge and the form professionally significant personality traits. In this case, a foreign language acts as a means of increasing the professional competence combined with personal and professional development of students.

The role of technology for teaching and learning

ESP Obviously, successful learning of a foreign language depends on a wide range of factors, including social environment, learning environment, instructional strategies, students' personal qualities and attitude to learning, the previous experience of learning a foreign language, the existing learning skills and many others. One of the ways of enhancing students' self-directed learning is the use of educational digital tools, especially information and communication technologies.

Research into the role of information and communication technologies started back in the early 1990s, when it was shown that electronic media can be used to improve the acquisition of a foreign language [2; 5]. It was suggested that asynchronous learning can boost students' progress, and at the same time reduce anxiety and raise motivation for learning. The rapid development of the Internet created new opportunities for both teachers and students. While in the past teachers had to virtually "hunt" for authentic materials, today they no longer need to do this. With unlimited access to a variety of different sources, including mass media, movies and books online, teachers can create interesting learning materials using different tools. For ESP teachers this is especially important as their students have special needs.

Needs analysis

When planning an ESP course, a lot depends on understanding students' needs and expectations. The most popular ways of finding out what students want to learn in the course is to conduct a survey. It helps ESP teachers to understand what and how to teach. According to Hutchinson and Waters, ESP is

defined as 'an approach to language teaching which aims to meet the needs of particular learners' [4, p.21]. It means that teachers have to explore what students want to achieve in a particular course. The same idea was expressed by Ellis and Johnson, the course objectives are 'the goals of a course in English, as indicated by the needs analysis, and expressed in terms of what the learner should be able to do' [3, p.221].

Being the most important stage in course design, needs analysis is absolutely necessary for the formulation of learning outcomes. The role of the needs analysis is not reduced to finding out what language, skills and knowledge students need. It also helps students to identify their weaknesses and focus on the areas that need improvement. Another advantage, which a teacher can take in analyzing learners' needs, is prioritizing the goals they want to achieve and making sure the course will help to fulfill this task.

However, there are some issues related to the needs analysis. For example, some students might find it difficult to formulate clearly what they expect to learn due to insufficient knowledge of the subject area since they have no professional experience or they are not aware of what their future job will involve yet.

Another problem is that they might be reluctant to share their real needs or wants, by giving the expected answers about the needs for work. Also, some of them might not trust the whole process of needs analysis because they have had some bad experience in other courses they were taught at university.

Since questionnaires are more efficient for gathering information on a large scale than any other approach and help to avoid possible negative implications of the needs analysis performed in the form of a class discussion or interview, the most suitable approach to identify students' expectations from the course is an anonymous questionnaire given to the students before the course commences. Below is a sample questionnaire to find out students' needs and expectations.

It is significant to note that the purpose of this questionnaire is not to determine the importance of learning English for ESP, although it is supposed to raise students' motivation for learning English for professional communication and set their own goals and objectives. The aim is to support the needs analysis findings, and therefore help to determine what elements to include in the course and select the appropriate teaching materials.

Learner-centered activities for an ESP class It should be noted that activities integrated into the course are based on the communicative approach to language learning and include role-plays, discussions, simulations as well as exercises that help to build up learners' vocabulary necessary for both spoken and written communication.

Collaborative tasks

One of the ways to improve students' communication skills and build up their confidence when using the language is to organize collaborative learning activities in the class. These include pair work or group work. Since the goal of learning is acquisition of the 21st century skills – communication is one of the 4 Cs to be developed – it is absolutely necessary to encourage students to work either in pairs or in small groups. For example, you can set your students a task to do interviews in order to find out their attitude to a certain problem.

Creative tasks

Another important thing to do in class is to get students involved in activities that enhance their creativity. With the development of the Internet and technology, the number of ways of achieving this has increased. Take for instance some tools for creating content in different formats, such as video and audio podcasts, or Google-docs to create files that can be edited by multiple users. When studying the topic "Jobs and interviews" you can ask students to create a group project giving some tips to prospective candidates on doing well in a job interview. By giving access to the file, you can see the amount of each student's contribution to the final score.

Presentations and role-plays

University students are expected to develop a number of skills that can be easily acquired in a learner-centered class through a number of activities, such as doing role-plays or giving presentations on a variety of topics. Such activities help to develop public speaking skills that are important not only in academic settings, but also in the job-related environment.

Cognitive tasks

These require learners to mentally process new information (acquire and organize knowledge/learn) and allow them to recall, retrieve that information from memory and to use that information at a later time in the same or similar situation. Organizing debate or discussion that includes brainstorming on the topic that is relevant to the students is an example of cognitive task. For example, you can ask students to find a solution to a real-life problem that exists in their industry. Such activities raise motivation for learning as they are relevant to the students and make the learning process more meaningful.

Conclusion

45

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Designing an ESP course is an elaborative and challenging task. It comprises a number of stages, such as needs analysis, formulation of the learning objectives selection of content and designing activities and assignments for the course. It is important to bear in mind that creating a learner-centered environment can facilitate the process of acquisition of both the target language and skills that learners want to develop.

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Lecture 9. Syllabus and Curriculum Design for Second Language Teaching.

WHAT IS A SYLLABUS?

A syllabus provides information about a course. It can include a range of information. Figures 1 and 2 represent two different English language-focused courses. Figure 1 is a syllabus, and Figure 2 is part of a syllabus. The title of each course has intention•ally been omitted to show that what is in a syllabus depends on who the learners are, their purposes for learning, and the context, in which the course takes place. Each syllabus provides clues to the learners, their purposes, and the context. You are invited to take a moment to study them to see if you can provide a title or a context for each course. Figure 1 provides the following clues to the nature the course. The topics (e.g., "smoking" and "cyber-love") suggest the learners are adults or young adults, since they are not appropriate for children.

Title of course: _____

Goals
- Improve communication skills (focus on speaking and writing skills)
- Develop awareness about language learning

Objectives
- Enable students to have 4-minute discussions about social topics
- Enable students to write a five-paragraph essay about social topics
- Enable students to think logically and express their opinions in a debate
- Enable students to be autonomous learners through peer editing, self-assessment, and portfolio assessment

Topics (from *Impact Topics*, Day & Yamanaka, 1999)
- I Can't Stop (Unit 4; discussion)
- My Pet Peeves (Unit 19; discussion)
- Smoking (Unit 3; discussion)
- Living Together before Marriage (Unit 10; debate)
- English Should Be a Second Official Language in Japan (Lesson 7: English and the Filipinos, from the textbook in English Reading class; debate)
- Cosmetic Surgery (from *Impact Issues*, Day & Yamanaka, 1998; debate)
- Cyber Love (Unit 8; debate)

Assessment Components:
- Term examination (40%)
- Assignments (15%)
- Speaking test (20%)
- Fun essay (20%)
- Portfolio (5%)

Figure 1. Syllabus 1 (Sato & Takahashi, 2008).

One topic focuses specifically on Japan, which suggests that the learners are Japanese. The students appear to be at an intermediate level because the objectives require a four-minute discussion and a five-paragraph essay. The assessment includes a term examination, which suggests the context for the course is an academic setting. The purposes for learning focus on speaking and writing using the genres of discussions, debates, and an essay; these purposes also suggest the setting is academic.
The topics are from course books, which suggests that
the course focuses on general English rather than on specific content. One objective is for learners to become autonomous, which suggests they may not

be accustomed to being self-directed learners. The assessment includes a "fun essay," so the course may not be completely academic. The course appears to be extensive because seven chapters are addressed in one term.

Figure 2 provides the following clues to the type of course and who the learners are. The first aim mentions preparing students for university, which suggests the learners are university age. Their level of language appears to be advanced because they are expected to listen to lectures and take notes, write argumentative essays, and prepare annotated bibliographies. The mention of a specific university in the first aim suggests the context is a university or linked to it and that the purpose for learning is to be able to participate in university courses. The course seems highly academic because it focuses on academic text types, tutorials, lectures, and critical reading. The course appears to be intensive, since it meets every day for 10 weeks. Topics are not specified, so it is possible the learners choose their own topics.

The two courses have similarities. They are for young adults or adults, rather than children. They seem to be taking place in academic settings. Both focus on writing and speaking (although the second one also focuses on listening and reading). There are also striking differences. The learners are at different levels of language proficiency. One course takes place at an English-medium univer•sity; the other is in Japan. One is topic-focused and uses a course book; the other is focused on academic preparation and uses authentic texts. One is extensive; the other is intensive. In fact, Figure 1 is the syllabus for a writing course for students in their final year of high school in Japan(Sato & Takahashi, 2008). Figure 2 is an English for academic purposes (EAP) course that prepares students to enter the Department of Economics and Financial Studies at Macquarie University in Australia (Agosti, 2006).

Title of course: _____

Course Aims:

- To facilitate the active development of skills needed to function successfully within the particular discourse community in which learners will participate at Macquarie University
- To introduce learners to the text types they are likely to encounter during their university studies
- To facilitate the development of communication skills, both verbal and nonverbal
- To encourage learners to focus on planning skills and developing a study plan as a valuable strategy for future studies
- To familiarize learners with the dynamics used in tutorials and lectures regarding the setting of assignments and tutorial discussions

Excerpt from 10-Week Timetable

Week	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
2	Oral discussion techniques / Tutorial discussion / Group presentations	Reading skills: Inference / Written argumentation techniques / Group presentations	Individual consultations / Group presentations	Listening to lectures: Signposts / Group presentations	Connectives / Class meeting / Homework: Critical reading and summary / Group presentations
3	Tutorial discussion / Case studies / Group presentations	Group presentations / Case studies	Individual consultations / Group presentations / Case studies	Listening to longer talks / Group presentations	Class meeting / Homework: Critical reading and summary / Group presentations
4	Tutorial discussion / Essay and exam questions, and assignment instructions / Group presentations	Essay structure / Group presentations	Individual consultations / Group presentations	Annotated bibliography and reference list / Group presentations	Class meeting / Homework: Critical reading and summary / Group presentations

Figure 2. Syllabus 2 excerpts (Agosti, 2006).

The syllabus in Figure 3 comes from yet a different context, with different learners and purposes for learning. It is markedly different from the first two in that it identifies content objectives, content

concepts, and supplementary materials that are not related to language learning per se. These suggest that it is an academic course that focuses on science and the environment. Evidence that the unit is intended for or geared toward language learners is the presence of language objectives, vocabulary, and adaptation of content. Clues to the learners for whom it is intended may not be apparent until the description of the activities, which include songs.

Group presentations

Group presentations and snack time. These suggest that the learners are in primary school. It is also different because it is for a unit, not for a course or a semester, which is typical of how the curriculum of primary school classes is organized. Like the other two academic courses, this syllabus focuses on speaking skills, specifically, giving a presentation. It also fon'.1ses on listening

and questioning skills. The principal outcomes of the unit, however, are not only language skills but an understanding and mastery of content. In fact, the course is for fifth-grade learners (ages 10-11) in a public sector school in the UnitedStates (Sharkey & Cade, 2008). The context is a self-contained English as a second language (ESL)classroom, although it could also be a mainstream classroom that includes both mother-tongue English speakers and English language learners.

4-Week Interdisciplinary Biomes Unit

Content objectives:
Students will demonstrate an understanding that all biomes depend on the relationships of living things within that ecosystem.
Students will work in groups to create a diagram that illustrates the interdependence of plants and animals within a specific biome.

Language objectives:
Students will give an oral presentation of their biome project, appropriately using target vocabulary.
Students will evaluate each other's group projects through listening and questioning.

Content concepts:
An ecosystem is a group of interdependent organisms together with the environment that they inhabit and depend on.
A biome is an ecosystem that covers a large area of land.
Plants and animals within a particular ecosystem have interdependent relationships.
A food chain is a series of steps showing the transfer of energy among living things.

New vocabulary:
Ecosystem, habitat, producer, consumer, decomposer, omnivore, herbivore, carnivore

Supplementary materials:
Posters of biomes and food chains
Wall charts of plant and animal classification
Nonfiction books about biomes (at a variety of reading levels)
Overhead transparencies of food webs (downloaded from various websites)
Poster board and markers for students
Printouts of information about different animals (from various websites)

Adaptation of content:
Charts
Books
Songs (e.g., "Habitat")
The ways in which students use the maps and charts from the textbook

Meaningful activities:
Computer searches for information on assigned biomes
Group work creating biomes posters
Read alouds during snack time and other transition times
Class discussions
Vocabulary classification activities
Singing content songs at the end of each day

Figure 3. Syllabus 3 excerpt (Sharkey & Cade, 2008).

The information in Figures 1, 2, and 3 shows that syllabus design requires a good understanding of the learners, their purposes for learning, and the resources and constraints of the context in which they are learning. These understandings, which the syllabus designer finds out via needs assessment and context analysis, allow her or him to set goals as to what will be learned, how, and why; to choose or design materials, activities, and assessment tasks; and to organize them within the time frame available. These processes are discussed in detail in the next sections.

WHAT IS A CURRICULUM?
A curriculum is a dynamic system of interconnected, interrelated, and overlapping processes. The three main curricular processes are planning, enacting, and evaluating. (The second process is also called

"implementing." The distinction between enacting and implementing will be explored later in the chapter.) These processes are in play at every curricular level, whether it

is a lesson, unit, course, or program. They are carried out by people and may result in an array of curriculum products such as syllabuses, lesson plans, and assessment instruments.

At the lesson level, a teacher plans a lesson for a class. The process of lesson planning results in a product: a detailed written plan, a set of notes, marginal notes in the textbook, or a mental plan. Teacher and learners enact the lesson, which may go according to plan or may diverge from it, depending on a variety of factors. As the lesson is enacted, the teacher makes adjustments

depending on what happens in the classroom. During and after the lesson, the teacher (sometimes in conjunction with the learners) evaluates its effectiveness and makes decisions that affect the planning and enactment of the next lesson or future lessons.

At the program level, a person or group of people designs a curriculum plan for an educational program. Teachers and learners enact the curriculum over time (which may follow or diverge from the plan). Its effectiveness is then

evaluated informally, if not formally. Unlike the lesson level, where the teacher is usually the planner of the lesson, at the program level there are degrees of separation between the different people who conduct the processes and create the products of planning, enacting, and evaluating. Because of this separation among participants, communication and mutual understanding are essential to a coherent curriculum (R. K. Johnson, 1989; Markee, 1997).

Curriculum planning

The purpose of curriculum planning is to provide a framework for course and unit development, to guide and support teaching and learning in the classroom, and to provide a basis for the evaluation of program effectiveness. Successful curriculum

planning is built around three foundational processes: articulating the guiding principles on which the curriculum is based, analyzing contextual factors that have an impact on the success of the curriculum, and assessing the needs of the

learners for whom the curriculum is intended. These three processes provide the basis for determining educational goals (also called outcomes or aims) that are clear and realistic. To achieve the outcomes, decisions are then made about the

program-deciding what the content should be, how to organize it, and how to monitor and assess achievement. These processes, outlined in Figure 5, are described in broad terms in this section. In the next section, I explain them in detail at the

level of syllabus design for a course.

Articulating guiding principles	→	What beliefs about learners and learning, teaching, and subject matter undergird the curriculum?
Analyzing contextual factors	→	What social, economic, political, educational, and institutional factors impact the curriculum?
Assessing learner needs	→	What are the learners' abilities, needs, and purposes for learning?
Determining program goals	→	What knowledge, skills, and dispositions will learners attain?
Deciding program content	→	What should be taught and in what ways so that learners can attain the goals?
Organizing program content	→	How will the content and materials be organized and sequenced?
Designing an assessment plan	→	In what systematic ways will learning be monitored and assessed?

Figure 5. Processes of curriculum planning.

What does a syllabus include?

As we have seen in Figures 1, 2, and 3, a syllabus for a language course may include the overall goals for the course and specific learning objectives, topics to be explored, specific skills to be used or learned (e.g., academic skills), subject-specific content

and concepts to be mastered, and grammar or vocabulary to be studied; the timetable; materials used; assignments; types of in-class interactions and activities; and the assessment and grading scheme. Figure 6 provides a template for a syllabus. It includes a brief description of the course; the goals

for the course (and the objectives, if not too numerous); how learners will be assessed and graded; the materials that will be used (e.g., course books and readings); and an outline of the course content and sequence (what will be learned or done and in what order), which may include the timetable. Teachers need to have all this information, but what actually goes into the syllabus document depends on the intended audience. There

may be different versions of the syllabus depending on whom it is for. For example, the syllabus for the Japanese high school course (see Figure I) was originally written in Japanese and given to the learners as a way to inform them about what they could expect to do and learn in the course.

- ➢ Name of course:
- ➢ Brief description of course
- ➢ Course goals (and objectives)
- ➢ Assessment scheme
- ➢ Materials
- ➢ Outline or timetable of course content and sequence

SUMMARY

> A curriculum is the dynamic interplay of plan•ning, enacting, and evaluating an educationalprogram. A syllabus is a plan for a course. Thecurriculum and the syllabus are both designs for learning but at different levels.

> The history of syllabus design in languageteaching characterizes the ways in which language and language learning have been conceptualized to teach language in the classroom.

> Effective curriculum and syllabus design are based on understanding learners' needs and purposes for learning and the factors in thecontext that influence the enactment of the program or course.

> Clear goals and objectives and program/course organization go hand in hand with assessment to support learning.

Lecture 10. Assessment Concepts and Issues

WHAT IS CLASSROOM ASSESSMENT?

For many busy teachers planning lessons and teaching classrooms of language learners, assessment may be seen as yet one more task added on to an already crowded agenda of things that "should" be done in the classroom. Other teachers, like Ms. Aranda, however, have discovered that assessment can be a useful instructional tool that provides vital information about the extent of student learn•

ing and the effectiveness of their instruction. In this chapter, I address the role of assessment in language classrooms and illustrate how a range of practices can be embedded throughout the lesson to enhance learning opportunities for all students.

The term assessment refers to the use of methods and instruments to collect information to inform decision making about learning. In contrast, a test is

just one of many forms of assessment. Classroom assessment provides useful information for learning and teaching when it is integrated into an instructional framework, often referred to as a curriculum, that links assessment to learning targets. The model in Figure 1 represents how both instruction and assessment function together to promote learning within a dynamic educational delivery system.

Effective teachers use classroom assessment for multiple purposes, such as determining their students' learning needs, diagnosing specific learning challenges, monitoring the development of students' skills, and engaging students in their

own learning processes. Typically, tests are categorized according to their uses:

- ➢ **Placement tests** provide information that is useful for determining students' appropriate levels of instruction within a program or institution.
- ➢ **Diagnostic tests** are used to assess students' strengths and weaknesses, providing teachers and students with information that can guide decisions about appropriate instruction to meet students' needs.
- ➢ **Proficiency tests** are intended to assess students' ability in a language independent of a curriculum or specific course content.
- ➢ **Achievement tests** measure whether a student is reaching instructional objectives. A good deal of the assessment taking place in the classroom is via achievement tests. The discussion in this chapter addresses this last essential use of assessment.

Congruent with changes in educational theory, changes in language teaching have transformed our understanding of language learning. Methodologies have recognized the importance of not only what knowledge learners have accumulated about language but also how those learners use that knowledge to communicate meaning

and achieve their own communicative purposes in a variety of settings and with a range of interlocutors. Not surprisingly, new approaches to language assessment have emerged as alternatives to traditional testing (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010).

Terms such as authentic assessment and alternative assessment have been used to characterize assessment practices that engage learners in demonstrating their skills in communicative and authentic tasks and that use explicit criteria tied to learning aims to record and interpret student performances. Thus, concurrent with this new understanding has been a move away from an emphasis on indirect testing approaches that attempt to measure students' abilities underlying a specific skill to an increasing reliance ondirect testing approaches that require students

to perform that skill. To illustrate the difference between these two approaches, consider two different kinds of writing tests. A test that asks students to put a series of sentences into a sequence to make up a coherent paragraph is an indirect measure of

the students' ability to write a paragraph. One that asks students to write a paragraph is a direct measure of their writing skill. Both tests can provide information about language learning, albeit about different aspects of that learning.

As one component in an educational system keyed to learning, assessment reflects theories of learning and the educational approaches tied to those theories. Over time, as these theories have changed, assessment practices have also evolved

(Shepard, 2000b). For much of the twentieth century, behaviorist theories of learning dominated testing

culture. According to this paradigm, learning was characterized by the accumulation of bits of knowledge organized according to an instructional sequence that moved, step by step, from simpler to more complex skills. Positive reinforcement such as encouraging feedback at the end of each step enhanced learning by motivating learners to continue their efforts. Testing was a means of verifying that students had learned the lessons. If students did not meet the desired aim, the teacher could reteach, and then retest, until the aim was met (Shepard, 2000b). Newer theories of learning from a social constructivist perspective have broadened the focus of how learning occurs and, consequently, how to describe that learning; in addition to the products of instruction, they include how students process and make meaning within social contexts. Such theories acknowledge the role of prior knowledge and experiences that students bring to bear as they take on new learning experiences, and the theories recognize students as active participants in the learning process. Within this view of learning and assessment as connected and socially constructed activities, teachers, students, and community members participate as partners in the learning process (Arkoudis & O'Loughlin, 2004; Cumming, 2009b; Davison & Leung, 2009).

Congruent with changes in educational theory, changes in language teaching have transformed our understanding of language learning. Methodologies have recognized the importance of not only what knowledge learners have accumulated about language but also how those learners use that knowledge to communicate meaning and achieve their own communicative purposes in a variety of settings and with a range of interlocutors. Not surprisingly, new approaches to language assessment have emerged as alternatives to traditional testing (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010). Terms such as authentic assessment and alternative assessment have been used to characterize assessment practices that engage learners in demonstrating their skills in communicative and authentic tasks and that use explicit criteria tied to learning aims to record and interpret student performances. Thus, concurrent with this new understanding has been a move away from an emphasis on indirect testing approaches that attempt to measure students' abilities underlying a specific skill to an increasing reliance ondirect testing approaches that require students to perform that skill. To illustrate the difference between these two approaches, consider two different kinds of writing tests. A test that asks students to put a series of sentences into a sequence to make up a coherent paragraph is an indirect measure of the students' ability to write a paragraph. One that
asks students to write a paragraph is a direct measure of their writing skill. Both tests can provide information about language learning, albeit about different aspects of that learning. A view of assessment grounded in current theories of teaching and learning guides the kind of assessment practices envisioned by teachers like Ms. Aranda. Figure 2 contrasts some of the features of these current approaches to language testing with more traditional practices

Traditional Language Testing	Current Approaches to Language Testing
• Focus on language form	• Focus on communicative effect
• Learner produces isolated bits of language that can be scored as right or wrong	• Integration of skill areas
	• Includes process and product
• Oriented to product	• Clear criteria to guide scoring
• Highly objective scoring	• Open-ended answers
• Decontextualized test tasks focused on the right answer	• Attention to context

Figure 2. Contrasting features of traditional and current approaches to language testing.

Assessment and learning

Teachers new to assessment may have questions about how to choose among the array of assessment tools available for classroom use. Just as there are many useful activities for implementing instruction, there are a number of assessments
to support the learning agenda in the language classroom. This section outlines several factors that teachers should consider to make effective choices about incorporating assessment into their classrooms.

Summative and formative purposes for assessment. Busy teachers do not have time to assess their students without first articulating a purpose for assessment. Although tests can be used in several ways (e.g., to make diagnoses or to help with placement), the majority of assessment that takes place

in the classroom relates to the achievement of instructional aims. These instructionally aligned assessments serve two main pedagogical purposes. They are used for summative purposes when they focus on what students have learned as a result of a period of instruction; these are assessments of learning. They are used for formative purposes when they help to promote student learning during the process of instruction; these are assess•

ments for learning. Figure 3 lists how assessment is used for both summative and formative purposes.

It is important to note that assessment tools in and of themselves are not summative or formative. It is the purpose to which they are put that

determines how assessments are characterized. For example, Ms. Aranda uses a rubric when assessing her students' writing. A rubric is an assessment tool that includes criteria and levels of performance (examples of rubrics are provided in the section later in this chapter on assessing productive skills). When Ms. Aranda uses the rubric to determine a grade for one of her students on the final draft of a paper, it is being used for summative purposes. When she gives the same rubric to the student at the beginning of the writing process and it is used by the student and perhaps by the student's peers.

Summative Purposes: Assessment of Learning	Formative Purposes: Assessment for Learning
• Document learning • Diagnose learning needs • Provide information for communication linkages among students, families, and teachers • Plan and improve instruction	• Scaffold learning • Provide ongoing feedback during instruction and/or student performances • Engage students in self-assessment

Figure 3. Summative and formative purposes for assessment.

Lecture 11. Principles of Language Assessment

Types of language assessments. A good deal of the assessment literature focuses on how to construct various forms of assessment tools such as multiple•choice tests, gap-filling texts, rubrics, and check•lists; it also provides numerous useful examples of each type (e.g., see Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010; Coombe, Folse, & Hubley, 2007; Hughes, 2003; O'Malley & Valdez Pierce, 1996). One perspective on understanding the range and variety of assessment types examines how students are expected to respond when engaged in a specific type of assessment. Figure 4 presents such a framework, along with examples of each assessment type. The typology is divided into two main divisions: tools that require students to select an answer or response and tools that require students to provide

a response using language that they have learned. All the tools listed serve specific kinds of pedagogical purposes. For selected-response tools, students demonstrate learning by choosing a response from among a selection provided by the test maker.

Such kinds of assessments are useful, for example, for determining what students know about a particular language structure or text; they are also useful for assessing beginning students who have a limited repertoire of language skills they can call on to interpret a test or produce a response. Multiple-choice and matching tests are the most familiar examples of this type of format. To get a sense of how students use the language they have been studying, teachers choose assessments that require students to produce a response, ranging from short answers, such as

filling in a blank or responding to a partner with words or phrases, to language performances

requiring extended text, such as writing an essay or engaging in a role play.

The design of an assessment includes both the way in which a language performance is elicited-via either a selected- or constructed•response format-and a means of scoring that performance. For selected-response assessments, scoring appears fairly straightforward. Such assessments are scored via reference to an answer key that provides the predetermined correct selection for each item.

Constructed-response formats require the use of a scoring guide-such as a rubric-to

assist in recording and making judgments about a language performance. Because learners can generate a range of responses, it takes more time and expertise to score these assessments. (More discussion on both types of formats can be found in the section on assessing specific language skills.)

Just as each type of assessment serves specific pedagogical purposes, each format also presents specific challenges. As previously noted, selected•response formats provide opportunities for students to show what they know about language but not how effectively they can use that knowledge incommunicative tasks. The format may also restrict the range of possible language areas to be tested since it is not always possible to come up with an appropriate range of options for possible answers. Given that these items provide a fixed number of answers, guessing has to be factored into how well

students perform on these types of tests. Last, a good deal of time and effort is required to construct useful items. For multiple-choice tests, for example, it is important to make sure that only one answer is correct; that each item tests only one bit of language knowledge; and that nothing about the options, such as one response being much longer than the others, provides a clue to the correct response (see Coombe, Folse, & Hubley, 2007, for tips on writing these kinds of tests). To ensure

that such tests meet the teacher's intention in using them, they should be tried out beforehand,

perhaps by other teachers.

SELECTED-RESPONSE FORMAT	CONSTRUCTED-RESPONSE FORMAT			
	Brief Constructed Response	Performance-Based Assessment		
		Product-focused	Performance-focused	Process-focused
Multiple choice	Gap filling	Essay	Oral presentation	Observation
True/false	Short answer	Story/play/poem	Dramatic reading	Reflection
Matching	Cloze	Portfolio	Role play	Journal
Same/different	Label a visual	Report	Debate	Learning log
Grammatical/ ungrammatical	Sentence completion	Video/audiotape	Interview	
	Error correction	Poster session	Online chats	
		Project		

Figure 4. Types of assessment (based on McTighe & Ferrara, 1998).

When students are called on to generate language during a constructed-response type assessment, they provide evidence of how they can use that language. Tests that engage learners in pro•ducing extended oral and written texts also often engage students in demonstrating higher-order thinking skills. However, this format presents challenges as well. Because it takes longer for students to respond to these kinds of tests, teachers must allot more time to them in the classroom, reducing the number of items that can be included in a test and thus the range of student learning. An essay test, for example, is a one-item test. Scoring the language that students produce also requires a sizable investment of time on the part of the teacher as well as careful attention to the process of providing useful feedback and arriving at a score for the language performance.

Linking assessment to learning. Assessment data provide teachers with information about students' developing skills and the effectiveness of their instruction. However, incorporating assessment into the daily routine of the classroom takes some planning. A useful way to conceptualize and organize activities related to assessment is through a multistep and recursive instructional and assessment cycle (Davison & Leung, 2009; Rea-Dickens, 2001; Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 2001) in which teachers set up tasks, monitor student engagement and performances during those tasks, collect information about performances, and then use that information in some purposeful manner. Such a four-step cycle can be found in Figure 5.

Let us look more closely at how teachers can develop a range of assessments linked to learning aims. Before becoming more interested in new assessment practices, Ms. Aranda used to plan her lessons around instructional activities that she felt would help her students learn most effectively. She carefully allotted time for each activity in the class schedule and hoped for the best. While understanding that what students do in the classroom is certainly important, Ms. Aranda has come to realize that it is also useful to focus on whJ students are engaging in those activities and to determine whether in fact learning is taking place.

Productive skills: Speaking and writing

Speaking and writing are often called productive skills because they require students to produce language and, in doing so, to create meaning. Unlike the receptive skills, language output is an observable behavior, at least in terms of student products such as spoken responses or pieces of writing, and so lends itself to being assessed through direct measures, particularly at more advanced levels of language proficiency. Additional attention is also often paid to the processes inherent in producing these outputs, and like the receptive skills, these processes require more indirect methods of assessment. Figure 9 sets out sample language performances in speaking and writingalong with selected tasks for assessing students' proficiency in using those skills. (See chapters by Bohlke, Frodesen, Goodwin, Lazaraton, Olshtain, and Weigle, this volume, for in-depth discussions of speaking and writing skills.)

Once students move away from more controlled language production and begin generating extended texts either in spoken or written performances, teachers are faced with the problem of how to capture and make sense of the language that students are generating. In addition to the assessment task itself-for example, producing a paragraph or engaging in a debate-a consistent means of scoring student performances is needed.

Scoring guides are generally used in assessing the language that students produce. They provide consistency in scoring as well as a clear picture of the criteria that will be used in judging a language performance. In this way, teachers and students can develop a shared understanding of learning aims embodied in the criteria found in the guides and identify what will count as a satisfactory performance. Following are several commonly used types of scoring guides. As with all assessments, there are advantages and shortcomings to each one. Checklists are one type of assessment tool used in documenting speaking and writing performances. As the name suggests, checklists are made up of lists of features of a language performance with a space for noting whether or not that fea•ture ·is present in a specific performance.

Checklists are simple to use and can be easily adapted to observations of language production during class activities. However, they provide no information about the quality of a performance. A frequently used scoring guide is a rating scale, in which the performance is scored or rated according to a list of features. A frequently used scoring guide is a rating scale, in which the performance is scored or rated according to a list of features. Some rating scales include only numbers and a brief statement of what the rater should focus

on. Ones designed for

younger learners may display a range of graphic "faces" (e.g., from faces with smiles to ones with frowns) that can be circled. Table 2 is an example of a rating scale for assessing the quality of oral participation in a discussion task. Rating scales offer more scoring choices than checklists as well as the opportunity to give more points to some features than others, but the lack of detailed descriptions for each scoring point can lead to differences in scoring the same language performance.

Two additional types of scoring guides are holistic and analytic rubrics. Unlike the previous scoring guides, both types of rubrics include specific criteria related to various qualities of language proficiency that are aligned with a scale or range of levels. Each score is tied to a set of descriptors. Because of these descriptors, such tools are particularly useful in assessing complex performances such as extended writing or speaking. They also help to ensure more consistency in scoring across performances and across raters by focusing attention on specific aspects of a performance.

Holistic scoring draws on a rater's response to an entire performance produced by a language user. Holistic rubrics generate a single score for a performance. An example of a holistic writing rubric can be found in Figure 10. It was designed to gather information about writing skills in a low•intermediate English as a second language (ESL) class at the secondary level. Holistic tools are useful for quick scoring of a language performance and are used extensively, for example, when assessing numerous writing samples at the end of a marking

period or during a placement procedure. They donot, however, provide specific information about individual components or subskills. Analytic scales rate the various components of a language performance and provide scores for each one. An example of an analytic writing rubric can be found in the Appendix. It was designed to provide feedback to students in an adult low•intermediate ESL class about their developing skill in paragraph writing.

Analytic tools provide specific information about each component of a language performance since each component receives its own score. While it takes more time to use an analytic tool than a holistic one, analytic tools provide information that is useful for discerning a learner's strengths and pinpointing areas for continued efforts. For learning purposes, they provide the kind of formative feedback discussed earlier that can help students see where they are in developing their skills, what is expected from them, where they need to go, and the criteria that will

used to gauge the success of their efforts. As a way to lessen the process of scoring a performance, some teachers use selected segments of analytic tools (i.e., those related to current teaching aims) and then use others at other appropriate times during a unit.

Portfolios Whether focused on individual language skills or integrated language performances, portfolios capture a more complete picture of where students are in their learning process than any individual assessment can provide. A good deal has been written about portfolios in second language education (e.g., Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010; Genesee & Upshur, 1996; O'Malley & Valdez Pierce, 1996).

Genesee and Upshur (1996) define a portfolio as "a purposeful. collection of students' work that demonstrates to students and others their efforts, progress, and achievements in given areas" (p. 99). Such work can include samples of writing, including all drafts of a paper to demonstrate the development of students' writing skills during the writing process; reading logs; audio/video-recordings of oral performances; tests; key homework assignments; projects; and self- and peer assessments. In content areas or English for specific purposes classrooms, work products related to the focus of instruction _(e.g., lab reports or a business plan analysis) can also be included. To be a useful tool linking learning and assessment, portfolios must be more than a file folder of work products. The contents should reflect learning aims and engage students in the process of both selecting and reflecting on the individual items. Over time, portfolios provide a rich picture of the stages of student learning as they document achievement during the period under consideration.

CONCLUSION

Assessment has become an increasingly larger part of the daily practice of language classrooms. While much attention has been paid to the role of standardized tests in education, in particular for accountability uses, more recent interest has centered on how teachers can use classroom assessments to gather information about and support student learning. This chapter has articulated how these new approaches to language testing are congruent with current theories .of teaching and learning that focus on learning processes as well as products, on making meaning within social contexts, and on students' active role in classroom learning. The assessment literature provides numerous examples of

assessment tools that can be used to monitor and document students' use of language skills. Effective implementation of these tools, however, requires careful thought and planning to ensure that assessments align with instructional aims and pedagogical purposes. To this end, professional development that supports teachers in experimenting with and using new assessment ideas will play a critical role.

Lecture 12. Teaching Grammar

This unit includes:
1. **Teaching grammar**
   1.1. **What is the grammar?**
2. **Different Approaches to Teaching Grammar**
   2.1. **Non-explicit Approach**
   2.2. **Deductive Approach**
   2.3. **Advantages of a deductive approach**
   2.4. **Disadvantages of a deductive approach**
   2.5. **Inductive Approach**
   2.6. **The disadvantages of an inductive approach include**
3. **Techniques for Presenting Grammar**
4. **Teaching grammar to learners through games**
5. **Tips for using grammar games in class successfully.**

1.Teaching grammar
1.1.What is the grammar?

The body of rules which underlie a language is called its grammar. Grammar includes rules which govern the structure of words and rules which govern the structure of words to form clauses and sentences that are acceptable to educated native speakers. Most teachers see grammar as a body of knowledge that they themselves need as professional linguists, knowledge they can use judiciously to help learners gain insights into the workings of the language. Some teachers see no need to teach and practice grammar at all. Some even regard structure practice and other forms of grammar teaching as harmful. Their view is that learners will pick up the regularities intuitively, provided they meet enough samples of natural language. The teacher's role, as they see it, is to provide a language- rich environment in which the learners meet comprehensible language as they engage in activities of various kinds.

The deductive method. The deductive method of teaching grammar is the academic and scholarly one which was devised in order to teach Latin and Greek. The approach is very simple. First, the teacher writes an example on the board or draws attention to example in the textbook. The underlying rule is explained, nearly always in the mother tongue and using the metalanguage of grammar. Finally, the students practice applying the rule, orally and in writing. Special attention is paid to areas of conflict between the grammar of the mother tongue and that of the target language. The whole approach is cognitive, with learners considering the rules and weighing their words before they speak or write. Little attention is paid to the value of the message. Those steps are used by teachers who follow a grammar- translation method and by those who are working with a textbook which has a traditional grammar syllabus rather than a structural one. Varieties of grammar — focused approaches still flourish in certain educational circles, and they are successful when used with selected and motivated students.

 We must also remember that language examinations are mainly written, with accuracy as the criterion of success, so many teachers make increasing use of the deductive approach as examinations loom closer. The inductive method. To induce means to bring about, to cause something to happen. Teachers following the inductive approach induce the learners to realize grammar rules without any form of prior explanation. These teachers believe that the rules will become evident if learners are given enough appropriate examples. When teaching a grammar point, their first step is to demonstrate the meaning to the class. For example, they will hold up a book, saying This is abook. They will do the same showing other objects. Then they will hold up several books and say These are books. After giving several examples of the plural form they will contrast the two forms. Their next step is to get the students two produce the two grammatical forms, working with the same set of objects. The teacher says nothing through this stage except two correct if necessary. Other objects the students can name will then be brought into the practice. With luck they y'ill follow the models and produce grammatically correct utterances. The grammar point is shown on the board only after extensive practice. Explanation are not always made, though they may be elicited from the students themselves. In such cases, the mother tongue might well be used. The model is copied and the class may be required to write sample sentences from the model. The eclectic way. Both methods above

offer advantages. The deductive method is quick and easy for the teacher. Where a difficult grammar point has to be presented, and perhaps explained because the concept is not one that is in the mother tongue, this is probably the better way. Where time is short, it is useful, even for a simple grammar point. Many learners, especially older ones, prefer the deductive approach because they want to know how the language works.

The deductive method requires the students to identify the rule for themselves. It has the advantage of involving the students much more. The belief is that such learning will be more effective, though there is no certainty about this. This is probably the better approach for grammatical regularities which are easily perceived, understood, and applied. Eclectic teachers will use all three of these strategies at various times. This will make it easier to fit the lesson into the time available, as well as enabling them to suit the differing needs and learning styles of the students. Grammar points which do not appear very useful are best avoided. Just draw attention to their presence in the text and move on, having raised the students awareness of the

feature. If you do choose to teach a grammar point, use either the deductive or the inductive method, depending on the circumstances. When you yourself are talking, do not be afraid to use grammar forms that the students have not met. Provided the context makes the meaning clear, you are giving them valuable exposure and real life practice in decoding utterances which contain forms they do not know. Teachers need to know terminology in order to find helpful pages in reference book, but school children do not need to know words like auxiliary, preterit, reflexive pronoun and gerund in order to speak fluently. Teachers who use unnecessary terminology will appear pedantic, and most of it will be utter nonsense to the students anyway.

What is Grammar?
 • Language user's subconscious internal system
 • Linguists' attempt to codify or describe that system
•Sounds of language
• Phonology • Structure and form of words
• Morphology
• Arrangement of words into larger units
• Syntax
• Meanings of language • Semantics
• Functions of language & its use in context
 • Pragmatics • "Grammar is the business of taking a language to pieces, to see how it works." (David Crystal)

Grammar is the system of a language. People sometimes describe grammar as the "rules" of a language; but in fact no language has rules. If we use the word "rules", we suggest that somebody created the rules first and then spoke the language, like a new game. But languages did not start like that. Languages started by people making sounds which evolved into words, phrases and sentences. No commonly-spoken language is fixed. All languages change over time. What we call "grammar" is simply a reflection of a language at a particular time.

Grammar is the mental system of rules and categories that allows humans to form and interpret the words and sentences of their language.

- grammar adds meanings that are not easily inferable from the immediate context. The kinds of meanings realised by grammar are principally:
 - representational - that is, grammar enables us to use language to describe the world in terms of how, when and where things happen e.g. The sun set at 7.30. The children are playing in the garden.
 - interpersonal - that is, grammar facilitates the way we interact with other people when, for example, we need to get things done using language. e.g. There is a difference between: Tickets! Tickets, please. Can you show me your tickets? May see your tickets? Would you mind if I had a look at your tickets.

Grammar is used to fine-tune the meanings we wish to express.

Why should we teach grammar? There are many arguments for putting grammar in the foreground in second language teaching. Here are seven of them:

1) The sentence-machine argument Part of the process of language learning must be what is sometimes called item-learning — that is the memorisation of individual items such as words and phrases. However, there is a limit to the number of items a person can both retain and retrieve. Even travellers' phrase books have limited usefulness — good for a three-week holiday, but there comes a point where we need to learn some patterns or rules to enable us to generate new sentences. That is to say, grammar. Grammar, after all, is a description of the regularities in a language, and knowledge of these regularities provides the learner with the means to generate a potentially enormous number of original sentences. The number of possible new sentences is constrained only by the vocabulary at the learner's command and his or her creativity.

Grammar is a kind of 'sentence-making machine'. It follows that the teaching of grammar offers the learner the means for potentially limitless linguistic creativity.

2) The fine-tuning argument. The purpose of grammar seems to be to allow for greater subtlety of meaning than a merely lexical system can cater for. While it is possible to get a lot of communicative mileage out of simply stringing words and phrases together, there comes a point where 'Me Tarzan, you Jane'-type language fails to deliver, both in terms of intelligibility and in terms of appropriacy. This is particularly the case for written language, which generally needs to be more explicit than spoken language. For example, the following errors are likely to confuse the reader: Last Monday night I was boring in my house. After speaking a lot time with him I thought that him attracted me. We took a wrong plane and when I saw it was very later because the plane took up. Five years ago I would want to go to India but in that time anybody of my friends didn't want to go. The teaching of grammar, it is argued, serves as a corrective against the kind of ambiguity represented in these examples.

3) The fossilisation argument It is possible for highly motivated learners with a particular aptitude for languages to achieve amazing levels of proficiency without any formal study. But more often 'pick it up as you go along' learners reach a language plateau beyond which it is very difficult to progress. To put it technically, their linguistic competence fossilises. Research suggests that learners who receive no instruction seem to be at risk of fossilising sooner than those who do receive instruction.

4) The advance-organiser argument Grammar instruction might also have a delayed effect. The researcher Richard Schmidt kept a diary of his experience learning Portuguese in Brazil. Initially he had enrolled in formal language classes where there was a heavy emphasis on grammar. When he subsequently left these classes to travel in Brazil his Portuguese made good progress, a fact he attributed to the use he was making of it. However, as he interacted naturally with Brazilians he was aware that certain features of the talk — certain grammatical items — seemed to catch his attention. He noticed them. It so happened that these items were also items he had studied in his classes. What's more, being more noticeable, these items seemed to stick. Schmidt concluded that noticing is a prerequisite for acquisition. The grammar teaching he had received previously, while insufficient in itself to turn him into a fluent Portuguese speaker, had primed him to notice what might otherwise have gone unnoticed, and hence had indirectly influenced his learning. It had acted as a kind of advance organiser for his later acquisition of the language.

5) The discrete item argument Language seen from 'outside', can seem to be a gigantic, shapeless mass, presenting an insuperable challenge for the learner. Because grammar consists of an apparently finite set of rules, it can help to reduce the apparent enormity of the language learning task for both teachers and students. By tidying language up and organising it into neat categories (sometimes called discrete items), grammarians make language digestible. (A discrete item is any unit of the grammar system that is sufficiently narrowly defined to form the focus of a lesson or an exercise: e.g. the present continuous, the definite article, possessive pronouns).

6) The rule-of-law argument It follows from the discrete-item argument that, since grammar is a system of learnable rules, it lends itself to a view of teaching and learning known as transmission. A transmission view sees the role of education as the transfer of a body of knowledge (typically in the form of facts and rules) from those that have the knowledge to those that do not. Such a view is typically associated with the kind of institutionalised learning where rules, order, and discipline are highly valued. The need for rules, order and discipline is particularly acute in large classes of unruly and unmotivated teenagers - a situation that many teachers of English are confronted with daily. In this sort of situation grammar offers the teacher a structured system that can be taught and tested in methodical steps.

7) The learner expectations argument Regardless of the theoretical and ideological arguments for or against grammar teaching, many learners come to language classes with fairly fixed expectations as to what they will do there. These expectations may derive from previous classroom experience of language learning. They may also derive from experience of classrooms in general where (traditionally, at least) teaching is of the transmission kind mentioned above. On the other hand, their expectations that teaching will be grammar-focused may stem from frustration experienced at trying to pick up a second language in a non-classroom setting, such as through self-study, or through immersion in the target language culture. Such students may have enrolled in language classes specifically to ensure that the learning experience is made more efficient and systematic. The teacher who ignores this expectation by encouraging learners simply to experience language is likely to frustrate and alienate them.

2. Different Approaches to Teaching Grammar

As teachers, we've likely all been given grammar to teach students and have asked ourselves how we could possibly communicate the rules to our students. True, it is difficult to convey the complicated rules of grammar to students learning a language, and, as I've expressed countless times in this blog, simply

explaining the rules is not enough. When it comes to TEFL teaching, there are traditionally three different approaches to teaching grammar.

Before moving on, it's important for me to point out that the three strategies I discuss are meant to only take up the presentation phase of the lesson; the teacher should NOT make this the focus of the lesson. Teach the grammar, then make sure you have plenty of activities planned for the students to practice the grammar. That said, if the presentation phase of the lesson doesn't go well, the students won't be capable of practicing the new grammar. Read on for my explanation of the three approaches, and a discussion of the pros and cons of each of them.

2.1. Non-explicit Approach

When using the non-explicit approach, grammatical rules are not given to the students. The presentation of the grammar is mostly visual: through actions and pictures. The students then discover how to put together a sentence by copying the teacher. While the teacher may put up a sample sentence on the board, there is no direct discussion about how the grammar works.

For example, if a teacher were to teach about prepositions, the teacher could use a their hands or a block to express some prepositions (in, on, under, next to, etc.) then teach, using visuals, chair and table. After that the teacher could start speaking in full sentences, "The block is under the table" and having students do activities (e.g. moving the blocks) so that they discover what is being conveyed in the sentence. The students now have an idea of the form, and are able to move on to controlled practice of the language.

The advantage of this approach is that it completely engages the learner. The learner needs to stay focused, or they might miss out when called upon for an activity. Also, as the non-explicit approach uses only the language being taught, students are immersed in the language throughout the experience. Additionally, it's fun and exciting, which keeps students focused.

Many say that this is the best method for young learners, but that it isn't as effective with adults. True, adults aren't as ready to be taken out of their comfort zones as children, but it is my opinion that using this approach with low level adults can still be effective as long as the students are shown respect and are aware of why you are doing different things. For example, it may be fun for a child to put a stuffed animal on a chair, an adult who has just finished a long day may not be as open to this.

Another disadvantage to this approach is that for some students, it can be frustrating not to know the rule precisely. It can lead to confusion for some students, and it is harder to gage whether the concept has been mastered. Due to this, regular concept checks are important during a presentation of new grammar when using this method.

2.2. Deductive Approach

The deductive approach is the most traditional method of grammar teaching. Basically, the teacher explains the rule, usually in L1, and then has the students practice some examples. If a teacher was teaching comparatives using this method, adjectives would be given and translated into the students' first language. The teacher would explain how the adjectives change when comparing and show a few examples. The teacher would then have the students practice in pairs while checking that they understand.

The advantage, and disadvantage, of this is that it is easy and familiar. Many students are used to learning passively in this way. Also, students can be sure that they understand the rule as they were told it in their own language.

The reason that this can also be disadvantageous is that students aren't as focused on remembering what words mean or what the rule is because it is explicitly laid out for them. It's easier to forget, because the student didn't need to put the mental energy into memorizing it initially. Also, as it's not as engaging, it's easy for the students to lose focus and mentally drift off.

The most obvious disadvantage is that if the teacher doesn't speak the students' L1 fluently, they won't be able to explain the grammar. If the teacher does a long grammatical explanation that isn't in the students L1, there is a good chance that the students will get confused. Either way, this makes lengthy grammatical explanations a chancy enterprise.

2.3. Advantages of a deductive approach:

✓ It gets straight to the point, and can therefore be time-saving. Many rules — especially rules of form — can be more simply and quickly explained than elicited from examples. This will allow more time for practice and application.

✓ It respects the intelligence and maturity of many - especially adult -students, and acknowledges the role of cognitive processes in language acquisition.

✓ It confirms many students' expectations about classroom learning, particularly for those learners who have an analytical learning style.

✓ It allows the teacher to deal with language points as they come up, rather than having to anticipate them and

prepare for them in advance.

2.4. Disadvantages of a deductive approach:

✓ Starting the lesson with a grammar presentation may be off-putting for some students, especially younger ones. They may not have sufficient metalanguage (i.e. language used to talk about language such as grammar terminology). Or they may not be able to understand the concepts involved.

✓ Grammar explanation encourages a teacher-fronted, transmission-style classroom; teacher explanation is often at the expense of student involvement and interaction.

✓ Explanation is seldom as memorable as other forms of presentation, such as demonstration.

✓ Such an approach encourages the belief that learning a language is simply a case of knowing the rules.

What is a rule ? In the Longman Activity Dictionary "rule" is defined as:

-a principle or order which guides behaviour, says how things are to be done etc, (prescriptive rule)

-the usual way that something happens (descriptive rule). Descriptive rules are primarily concerned with generalisations about what speakers of the language actually do say than what they should do.

Pedagogic rules – they make sense to learners and provide them with the means and confidence to generate language with a reasonable chance of success. Pedagogic rules can be spit up into: 8 rules of form and rules of use. Examples of prescriptive rules: Do not use different to and never use different than. Always use different from. Never use the passive when you can use the active. Use shall for the first person and will for second and third persons. Examples of descriptive rules: You do not normally use the with proper nouns referring to people. We use used to with the infinitive (used to do, used to smoke etc.) to say that something regularly happened in the past but no longer happens. Example for rule of form: To form the past simple of regular verbs, add –ed to the infinitive. Example of a rule of use: The simple past tense is used to indicate past actions or states. Example: (from Walker and Elsworth Grammar practice for Intermediate Students, Longman, 1986) 9 Many of the pros and cons of a rule-driven approach hinge on the quality of the actual rule explanation. This in turn depends on how user-friendly the rule is.

What makes a rule a good rule? Michael Swan, author of teachers' and students' grammars, offers the following criteria: • Truth: Rules should be true. While truthfulness may need to be compromised in the interests of clarity and simplicity, the rule must bear some resemblance to the reality it is describing. It is surprising how many incorrect explanations you find in TEFL books. A good example is the distinction usually made between some and any, which goes something like: Use some+plural countable/uncountable noun in affirmative sentences. Use any+plural countable/uncountable noun in negative sentences and questions. It still fails to explain: Take any one you want. I didn't like some of his books. An explanation based on the difference in meaning between some and any might eliminate many of these problems.

 Limitation: Rules should show clearly what the limits are on the use of a given form. For example, to say simply that we use will to talk about the future is of little use to the learner since it doesn't show how will is different from other ways of talking about the future (e.g. going to).

➢ Clarity: Rules should be clear. Lack of clarity is often caused by ambiguity or obscure terminology. For example: 'Use will for spontaneous decisions; use going to for premeditated decisions.' To which a student responded, 'All my decisions are premeditated'.

➢ Simplicity: Rules should be simple. Lack of simplicity is caused by overburdening the rule with subcategories and sub-sub-categories in order to cover all possible instances and account for all possible exceptions. There is a limit to the amount of exceptions a learner can remember.

➢ Familiarity: An explanation should try to make use of concepts already familiar to the learner. Few learners have specialised knowledge of grammar, although they may well be familiar with some basic terminology used to describe the grammar of their own language (e.g. conditional, infinitive, gerund). Most learners have a concept of tense (past, present, future), but will be less at home with concepts such as deontic and epistemic modality, for example.

➢ Relevance: A rule should answer only those questions that the student needs answered. These questions may vary according to the mother tongue of the learner. For example, Arabic speakers, who do not have an equivalent to the present perfect, may need a different treatment of this form than, say, French speakers, who have a similar structure to the English present perfect, but who use it slightly differently. A lot depends on the teacher's presentation of the rule. An effective rule presentation will include the following features: it will be illustrated by an example It will be short Students' understanding will be checked Students will have an opportunity to personalize the rule.

2.5. Inductive Approach

There are a lot of similarities between the inductive approach and the non-explicit approach. For the inductive approach, rules are likewise discovered and not directly discussed. Instead, students learn the rules

through examples and testing them out.

If a teacher was trying to teach how to change regular verbs into the simple past, they could put six verbs on the board and show how they are changed from present to the past by writing sample sentences and getting the students to repeat. Once the teacher thinks the students get it, the teacher can ask students to try and change additional verbs into the past. While the student may not be 100% sure, they will probablysuccessfully add -ed at the end of the word and other grammatical features (e.g. 'y' to an 'i', doubling the final consonant when appropriate, etc.) as long as the teacher has given enough examples.

As a learner, this approach keeps your brain active as you try to figure out how the grammar works. When using this approach, the teacher will notice students asking questions, not necessarily directly, but by giving examples to test their theories. The teacher can then correct errors when appropriate or, if students don't ask questions to solidify the rule in their mind, the teacher can give examples of incorrect sentences and make sure to show why they are wrong.

As you may have guessed, the disadvantage of this approach is that it takes more time. It takes more time to prepare for, and it takes up more class time. That said, as you get used to using this method, the amount of time will decrease. In fact, if you've taught a specific grammar point a number of times before, it will likely come to you quite naturally.

If you'd like several examples of ways to use this approach, you can gain access to the resource by clicking on the button below.

Using the Inductive Approach . There is no right or wrong approach to use when it comes to teaching language. The truth is that different situations call for different approaches. It's important for you as a teacher to recognize these situations and use the right method. Keep your students on their toes, vary your methods, keep things fresh.

What are the advantages of encouraging learners to work rules out for themselves?

✓ Rules learners discover for themselves are more likely to fit their existing mental structures than rules they have been presented with. This in turn will make the rules more meaningful, memorable, and serviceable.

✓ The mental effort involved ensures a greater degree of cognitive depth which, again, ensures greater memorability.

✓ Students are more actively involved in the learning process, rather than being simply passive recipients: they are therefore likely to be more attentive and more motivated.

✓ It is an approach which favours pattern-recognition and problem-solving abilities which suggests that it is particularly suitable for learners who like this kind of challenge.

✓ If the problem-solving is done collaboratively, and in the target language, learners get the opportunity for extra language practice.

✓ Working things out for themselves prepares students for greater self-reliance and is therefore conducive to learner autonomy.

2.6. The disadvantages of an inductive approach include:

✓ The time and energy spent in working out rules may mislead students into believing that rules are the objective of language learning, rather than a means.

✓ The time taken to work out a rule may be at the expense of time spent in putting the rule to some sort of productive practice. o Students may hypothesise the wrong rule, or their version of the rule may be either too broad or too narrow in its application: this is especially a danger where there is no overt testing of their hypotheses, either through practice examples, or by eliciting an explicit statement of the rule.

✓ It can place heavy demands on teachers in planning a lesson. They need to select and organise the data carefully so as to guide learners to an accurate formulation of the rule, while also ensuring the data is intelligible.

✓ However carefully organised the data is, many language areas such as aspect and modality resist easy rule formulation.

✓ An inductive approach frustrates students who, by dint of their personal learning style or their past learning experience (or both), would prefer simply to be told the rule.

3. Techniques for Presenting Grammar

There is a variety of techniques for presenting new grammar items. Below is an overview of nine of those most commonly-used. Note that no one technique will necessarily prove better than another, so the general rule when it comes to presenting grammatical rules is to combine a variety of techniques.

1. Direct Explaining (Explicit Approach).

You can explain a grammar rule directly using the students' mother tongue. This has the advantage of allowing students to contrast an item of grammar in English with an item of grammar in the students' own language. For example, the two languages might use past tenses in different ways. On the other hand, some

teachers believe that it's more effective to present and explain the grammar directly by using English at all times. Certainly, in classes where the students already have learnt some English, it's usually possible to build on what they already know to introduce a new grammar point.

2. Discovering the Grammar (Implicit Approach).

Often, it's helpful to have students discover the grammar rather than telling them what it is. Do this by choosing a text which contains lots of examples of the target grammar. For example, if the text includes regular verbs in the past simple form (e.g. lived, travelled, moved, etc), ask the students to underline all the verbs in the text. Then ask them to say what they notice about the verbs – which will be that they all end in -ed.

3. Using Pictures or Drawings (Illustrating Grammar Points).

A quick sketch on the board can illustrate a grammar point very quickly. For example, a picture of a person dreaming of a future ambition can be used to introduce "be going to" to talk about future intentions.

4. Drawing Timelines (Teaching Tenses).

Timelines are useful for teaching grammar structures that refer to aspects of time. Timelines are a simple and visual way to clarify the actions and events described in a sentence. They are often used by teachers for presenting the meaning of verb tenses in English.

The basic form of a timeline shows a horizontal line with a point in the middle indicating NOW or the moment of speaking. Before that point is the past and after it is the future. Some teachers also write the words PAST and FUTURE along the line. You can indicate single actions with an X and periods of time with an arrow. Continuous actions are often indicated with a wavy line.

5. Asking Concept Questions (Checking Understanding).

Write a sentence on the board containing the grammar structure. For example, this sentence uses the past simple: He left university in 2008. Next, ask the students concept questions which check their understanding of when the action happened. So, the teacher/student conversation would sound like this:

T: Is he at university now?
SS: No.
T: Was the action in the past?
SS: Yes.

Note that concept questions should usually be designed to elicit the answer Yes or No from the students because the aim is only to check their understanding.

6. Using Tables (Showing the Form).

Tables are very useful for showing the form of the grammar on the board. For example, these tables show the affirmative and negative forms of a verb in the present simple tense. You can refer to the different features of the tense when introducing it, and the students can copy the table for future reference.

I/You/We/They live in England
He/She/It lives
I/You/We/They don't live in England.
He/She/It doesn't live in England.

7. Using Objects (Presenting the Meaning).

Sometimes using objects can work as quickly as anything to present the meaning. For example, if you want to present the comparative form (… is bigger than …), the simplest way is to find two objects and contrast them. Alternatively, ask two students to stand up and compare their height to produce a sentence like: Hany is taller than Tom. Write the sentence on the board and underline the comparative form so the students notice the construction. Similarly, if you teach prepositions (in, on, next to, etc), using a selection of objects in different positions from each other is a very effective starting point.

8. Contrasting Structures (Showing the Difference in Meaning).

With higher-level grammar, it's useful to ask students to contrast two grammar structures which are similar in certain ways, but which have an important difference in meaning. For example, these two sentences contrast two different meanings of the present perfect tense.

He has been to London.
He has gone to London.

A teacher could ask the students to compare these sentences and say what the difference in meaning is.

(Answer: A means: He went to London and returned back whereas B means: He went to London and he is still there).

9. Choosing the Correct Sentence (Correcting Common Grammatical Mistakes).

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

This is similar to the previous technique because you give students two sentences, but one sentence has a mistake related to grammar. You write them on the board and get students to say which they think has the mistake and why. For example:

I've lived here since three years.

I've lived here for three years.

Students discuss the sentences in pairs. Sentence A. is wrong because we use "since" to refer to a fixed point in time (e.g. March, 1989, etc.) whereas we use "for" to describe duration of time.

4.Teaching grammar to learners through games

Well, while some people may still teach grammar in this method, there is a movement towards teaching grammar with games. Just imagine your class when you announce that it's time for a grammar lesson and instead of moans ,teaching grammar with games will still be as effective, if not more effective, as just teaching them through repetitive writing and rewriting.. They say, «Games and problem-solving activities…have a purpose beyond the production of fluently speech, and are examples of the most preferable communicative activities." Additionally, games have the advantage of allowing the students to "practice and internalize vocabulary, grammar and structures extensively." They can do this through repeated exposure to the target grammar and because students or we can say learners are often motivated to play games than they are to do deskwork. In addition to this, during the game, the students are focused on the activity and end up absorbing the grammar subconsciously. While games are motivating for learners, probably the best reason according to their ideas, to use games is that "the use of such activities both increases the cooperation or competition in the classroom." Indeed games can be used to add excitement through competition or to create bonding between the students, and between the students and teacher. The theory of intrinsic motivation may also give some insight as to why teaching grammar by games actually works. Intrinsic motivation refers to the internal factors that encourage us to do something. Many parts of young learners will not internally decide that they want to learn grammar. They don't yet understand the concepts of why it's important to know proper grammar, so these external factors won't affect them much either. Instead, intrinsic motivation can encourage them playing games. If these games are god then they will be learning while they are playing. They explain 12 how this theory works. The theory of intrinsic motivation may also give some insight so to why teaching grammar through games actually works. Intrinsic motivation refers to the internal factors that encourage us to do something. Most young learners will not internally decide that they want to learn grammar. They don't yet understand the concepts of why it's important to know proper grammar, so these external factor won't affect them much either. Instead, intrinsic motivation can encourage them to play games. If these games are good then they will be learning while they are playing.

What kind of games are the best? Well, when you are looking for games to use in your lesson, don't just pick something to be a "time filler" that does not have any linguistic purpose. These games may entertain the students but when you don't have much time with them each day as it is , you want your game to do double duty to get the most out of the time you spend playing games. If the game is simply for fun and not linked to educational goals it may not be the best use of your time. It is possible to have a fun game that is educationally sound, however.

6. Tips for using grammar games in class successfully.

Organization. First thing you should do when start teaching a preschool or elementary school ESL class is to figure out how to organize your class. For the younger students you will want to change your activities every five to ten minutes because they have shorter attention spans. If you don't change your activities, they will soon start losing interest. As you get towards the higher elementary grades, you can expand the time you spend per activity. The best way to to gauge this is to pay attention to your class for the first few days to see what length of time works the best for them. Additionally, try to have everything ready to go before the students enter the classroom. That way you can go from activity to activity with minimal downtime. This is essential as you can lose control of the class if you do not keep them occupied.

Expectations. If you notice that your class is getting noisy or rambunctious, it's time to change activities. Kids of this age like to be active; in order to balance out the energy levels in the class room, alternate between active activities and quiet activities. Be careful how you use activities that require fine motor skills-or more importantly pay attention to your expectation for activities that require fine motor skills. Children in preschool and early elementary are just learning to write in their on languages. This is not the best time to expect them to write in a foreign language as well.

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Lecture 13. Assessing Grammar

O B J E C T I V E S :
After reading this chapter, you will be able to
• state a rationale for treating form-focused assessment (of grammar and vocabulary) as a criterion that differs in purpose and context from assessing one or several of the four skills

• discern, through the backdrop of the nature o f grammar, the purposes and contexts for assessing grammatical knowledge
• analyze the components of lexical ability and apply them to the assessment of vocabulary knowledge
• develop assessments that focus on specifically identified forms of language
• design assessments that target one or several of the modes of performance, ranging from perceptive recognition of forms to extensive reading

You have now had ample opportunities to examine many different assessment techniques in each of the four skills o f listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Before that, we surveyed some o f the so-called alternatives in assessment that are com• monly used in language programs. Your head may be spinning with all the options that are possible to bring to bear to your language classroom. From intensive focus on the "bits and pieces" o f language to extensive skills like listening to speeches and reading books, and from portfolios to self-assessment, the possibilities are limitless. There is one more dominant "hot topic" in this field that we now turn to: assessing grammar and vocabulary, more technically known as form -focu sed assessm ent. One could argue that w e've already discussed syntactic and lexical forms in the process o f covering the four skills. After all, almost all of the microskills that you've been reading about in the previous four chapters are abilities that require a learner to focus on form. In assessing speaking, for example, you might be interested in a student's production of phonemes, stress patterns, or verb tenses. In our discussion o f assessing writing, we called your attention to spelling, gram• matical transformations, and vocabulary. All o f this is form-focused assessment, and such a focus comprises important and legitimate criteria for language assessment, in the same way that form-focused instruction is also an integral aspect o f commu• nicative language-teaching methodology.

Now we know that the language-teaching field has been consumed— over per• haps centuries—with language forms, especially grammar and vocabulary. Across the globe, standardized tests typically manifest a strong emphasis on form, all of course in perfect harmony with classes and textbooks that continue to teach and test formal aspects of language. We know, too, that language learners worldwide are famous—or infamous—for spending months or even years acquiring knowledge abouta language, in the form of its grammar rules, but gaining pitiful communica• tive ability to usethe language. However, this "book-learned" knowledge o f formal rules and paradigms is not to be confused with an informed approach to offering in our classrooms a reasonable intermingling o f focus on form and focus on meaning (that is, communication for real-world pragmatic uses).
So within a paradigm o f communicative methodology, what does it mean to "know" the grammar, vocabulary, phonology, and discourse rules o f a language?

How does that knowledge—whether explicit or implicit—influence the developing abilities o f a learner to use language in the real world? These are questions that underlie our attention in this chapter to the place o f form-focused assessment in all of the other aspects o f language assessment that have already been considered in this book. How does one assess grammar? Is it appropriate to propose to test one's ability to comprehend or produce vocabulary? How can a teacher assess a student's implicit knowledge o f forms? Must such knowledge be assessed through explicit focus on form? We now take a careful look at this often-misunderstood domain of language teaching and testing.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

DESIGNING ASSESSMENT TASKS: SELECTED RESPONSE

With this brief summary o f what grammar knowledge is, we can now more clearly examine different types o f tests that can be used to measure this knowledge.

The input for selected response tasks can be language (or nonlanguage as in a gesture or picture) o f any length from one word to several sentences o f discourse. The test-taker is expected to select the correct response, which is meant to measure . the knowledge o f grammatical form and/or meaning. These responses are often scored dichotomously (0 or 1) although sometimes, depending on how the ability or construct is defined, partial credit scoring (e.g., 0, 1, or 2) may be used. Scoring is discussed in more detail in Chapter 12.

Multiple-Choice Tasks

The most common selected response task presents a blank or underlined word/words in a sentence and the test-taker must choose the correct response from options that are given. The advantages o f the multiple-choice tasks are that they are easy to administer and score, and the disadvantages are that they are difficult to create, can promote guessing from test-takers, and are sometimes viewed as not being authentic language use. However, theses tasks are very popular, especially in standardized testing environments. Let's look at some examples o f multiple-choice tasks for grammatical form and grammatical meaning:

Discrimintion Tasks

Discrimination tasks are another type o f selected response task that ask the test-taker to attend to input that can be either language or nonlanguage and to respond in the form o f a choice between or among contrasts or opposites, such as true/false, right/wrong, same/different, etc. Discrimination items are used to measure the dip ference between two similar areas o f grammatical knowledge such as pronouns in subject and object position. In the following example, to test recognition o f gender pronouns, the test-taker must be able to discriminate between two pictures, cor• rectly choosing the picture that corresponds to the stimulus sentence. An alterna• tive format could present one picture with two sentences, one o f which correctly matches the picture.

Noticing Tasks or Consciousness-Raising Tasks

These tasks contain a wide range o f input in the form o f language or nonlanguage and are considered particularly helpful for learners. By attending consciously to form and/or meaning, learners becom e aware of the existence o f specific language features in English (Ellis, 1997). In these types o f tasks, test-takers are asked to indi• cate (underline or circle) that they have identified a specific feature in the language sample. In the following example, test-takers must distinguish between the two types o f the modal would:

DESIGNING ASSESSMENT TASKS: LIMITED PRODUCTION

In limited production tasks, the input in the item is language (or nonlanguage) infor• mation. Like selected response tasks, the input could be a single sentence or a longer stretch of discourse. However, unlike selected response tasks, the test-taker's response represents only a limited amount of language production. This response can vary from a single word to a sentence depending on the grammatical ability or construct that is defined. Sometimes the range of possible correct answers for the response can be large. Scoring of these responses can be either dichotomous or partial credit. Dichotom ous scoring means that there is only one criterion for correctness (form or meaning), and test-takers get it either right or wrong. Partial credit scoring, on the other hand, can be used with multiple criteria for correctness (form and meaning) and allows for adding up the scores for the item in terms o f full (2), partial (1), or no credit (0). Limited responses can also be scored holistically or analytically. Among the most common lim• ited production tasks are gap-fill, short-answer, and dialogue-completion tasks.

Gap-Filling Tasks

The language is presented in the form of a sentence, dialogue, or passage in which a number o f words are deleted. The deletions are made to test one or more areas of grammatical knowledge, such as vocabulary knowledge and grammatical ability. Test-takers must choose the appropriate response for the deletion or gap based on

the context in which the language is presented.

Short-Answer Tasks

In some assessment tasks, the input is presented in the form o f a question or ques•tions following a reading passage or oral/visual stimulus. The expected test-taker response can vary from a single word to a sentence or two. These short answers can be scored dichotomously (right or wrong) for a single criterion for correctness or with partial credit for multiple criteria for correctness.

DESIGNING ASSESSMENT TASKS: EXTENDED PRODUCTION

The input for extended tasks is usually presented in the form o f a prompt. The input can vary in length and can be either language or nonlanguage (gesture or picture) information. The purpose o f extended production is to obtain larger amounts o f lan•guage from the test-taker and to allow for more creative construction; therefore these tasks are likely to elicit instances o f authentic language use. On the other hand, because the responses o f test-takers are usually open-ended with a number of possible correct options, these extended production tasks are often scored using rating scales. When constructing the rating scale, the test designer needs to first define the grammatical ability that will be assessed and the levels o f ability, both of which must be able to be explicitly described in the scoring rubric. The following is a scoring rubric on a five-point scale for assessing the knowledge o f syntax adapted from Bachman and Palmer (1996).

Iformation Gap Tasks

This task, more commonly known as the info-gap task, presents the input in terms of incomplete information. That is, one test-taker is given half—or some—o f the information and another test taker is given complementary information. Both test-takers then have to question each other to get all the information. The need for nego•tiation makes this type o f task suitable for measuring a test-taker's grammatical knowledge to communicate functional meanings. The task can also be used to mea•sure pragmatic knowledge because the reciprocal nature of the performance requires the language o f the test-takers to display politeness, formality, appropriateness, and other conversational conventions. The following is an example o f an info-gap task adapted from Purpura (2004). The task aims to measure test-takers' knowl-edge o f question formation, other interactional form, and meaning and use such as request for clarification and repair. Each test-taker receives his or her own informa•tion along with a card with blanks for filling in information solicited from a partner.

Lecture 14. Teaching vocabulary.

1. The lexical approach

Teaching Lexis in school and using dictionaries to facilitate learning is strongly connected to the idea of the Lexical Approach. This approach "argues that language consists of chunks which, when combined, produce continuous coherent text" (Lewis 1997, 7). How a dictionary is engaged in this context will be explained later in this chapter. The Lexical Approach is central for this term paper because teaching Lexis efficiently seems to be related to teaching not only single words but words and their collocations and, most important, their often context-depended several meanings. This approach sees teaching vocabulary, respectively Lexis, as teaching the ability to communicate successfully in the second language on the basis of its words. Thornbury suggests that knowing the meaning of a word "means knowing the word commonly associated with it (its collocations) as well as its connotations, including its register and its cultural accretions" (2002, 14). Michael Lewis, additionally, accentuates the pedagogic value of collocations:

Firstly, words are not normally used alone and it makes sense to learn them in a strong, frequent, or otherwise typical pattern of actual use. Secondly, it is more efficient to learn the whole and break it into parts, than to learn the parts and have to learn the whole as an extra arbitrary item" (1997, 32).

Consequently, teaching Lexis favours instruction methods which are based on the communicative importance of 'chunked' expressions and multi-word objects (e.g. im going to = "recalled from the mental lexicon as a single chunk, as if it was a one-word future auxiliary"; Swan 2005, 34). It is obvious now that 'chunks' and expressions, not single words without contextual meaning, should be promoted in classroom teaching and learning.

Students of a second language already have a mental lexicon because of their native language; therefore, it is necessary to find the best way of how to build up a new independent mental lexicon. Research suggests that 'chunks' which are taught with active involvement of the learner are learned much better than single words. The actual meaning and personal relevance (active involvement) of a lexical item is essential for remembering and recognizing it. Thus, lexical teaching needs to be smartly filled with activities and exercises which develop proficient learning strategies that improve awareness for chunks, collocations and expressions and their memorization. Supportively, Tricia Hedge means that: "the teacher's ultimate role may be to build independence in learners by teaching them good strategies for vocabulary learning" (2000, 126). How a dictionary can possibly help to advance learning strategies and what kinds of dictionaries are available to the learner is explicated in the next part of the chapter.

1.1 Dictionary

Types of dictionaries

Firstly, the dictionary has come more into focus during the last decade. It is now seen as a "learning aid" (Thornbury 2002, 65) and "with increasing interest in effective learning strategies and learner independence,[…] as an important classroom and personal resource" (Hedge 2000, 127). A dictionary used to be seen only as a 'translator' for unknown words and it was not totally identified as a useful help for acquiring communicative ability. Nowadays, good learner dictionaries and particularly modern English/English dictionaries are accepted as superior sources of learning and teaching. As a result, it is noteworthy to view at the different types of dictionaries and later on to discuss which particular one seems to

be useful in the language classroom. According to McCarthy, you can typically find the following types: alphabetical, thesaurus, monolingual, bilingual, dictionaries of synonyms, dictionaries of false friends and CD-ROM and online dictionaries (2002, 10). These are the most common linguistic dictionaries that exist but there are also e.g. collocation and synonym dictionaries, encyclopaedias (non-linguistic) and special dictionaries which only refer to specific 'topics' (e.g. Business-English).

Alphabetical dictionaries where words are arranged in alphabetical order, monolingual dictionaries, with explanations in the target language (in one language only) and bilingual dictionaries which give translations in the mother tongue are the most frequent ones used in school. What might be more efficient for learning, bilingual or monolingual is discussed in the following part of this chapter. Previously to that, it is constructive to take a look at what kind of information a good dictionary should include: word, spelling, pronunciation, meaning, senses, grammar and word class, collocations, register, connotations and cultural information, related words and examples (McCarthy 2002, 11). In addition, it might be useful to incorporate compound information (e.g. house – housework, housekeeper etc.). Dictionaries can also vary in size, number of languages included, purpose and target group. In this case, the purpose is acquiring a second language and the target group obviously is represented by teachers and learners.

2. 13 Ways to Present Lexis

The American athlete, Hank Stram's philosophy of "Simplicity plus variety" is certainly one that could be applied to introducing new lexical items to students. Some traditional ways of presenting lexis are still very useful, after all, do we really need to reinvent the wheel? Here we have a selection of new as well as old methods for introducing new lexis

- **Pictures**. Visuals shown either on flashcards, using a tablet or projected/ drawn onto the board are an invaluable way of conveying meaning, especially of concrete nouns eg modes of

    transport. *Make sure it is 100% clear what the pictures is conveying!*
- **Context.** If language is introduced in a context it is often more memorable. This could be through a listening or reading text.
- **Definition.** Students match items to their definitions or teachers give students 3 definitions for a

    lexical item and students should work out/ guess which one is the correct definition.
- **Realia.** Again for concrete nouns, the teacher brings real items to class.
- **Matching synonyms/ antonyms.** Matching opposites can work well for adjectives and appeals to more kinesthetic learners.
- **Mime.** Teacher uses mime or gesture to clarify meaning. Works well for teaching actions.
- **Grouping or classifying.** Eg by giving students food and drink words, they can categorise them into fruit/ vegetables/ meat/ drinks.
- **Ordering.** This can also involve physically moving things about or ordering items on a line eg always, usually, sometimes, never.

- **Cuisenaire rods.** These were designed for the maths classroom but can be useful in the EFL classroom too eg for teaching prepositions of place.
- **Graphs.** Useful for teaching verbs or adverbs to describe trends eg to increase, to sky rocket, to slump
- **Word families.** Students can extend their knowledge by learning not only the noun but also the verb, adjectives and adverbs connected to a word. This is more useful at higher levels and especially for those students preparing for a Cambridge exam as this is tested. For example to produce (vb), produce (n), production (n), producer (n), product (n). productive (adj) unproductive (neg adj), counterproductive (neg adj).

- **Anecdotes.** The teacher tells an anecdote, possibly personalised to make it more interesting.   .
- Dictogloss. This is based on numbers 2 & 12 with a twist.

        Finally some tips when it comes to presenting lexis:
        ➤ Focus on the meaning first before dealing with form or phonology so students understand

the words.
- ➢ Teach language in chunks.

- ➢ Teach students how to record and review newly introduced lexical items

3. Issues in teaching lexis

Why do we need to plan how we teach lexis?
- **It doesn't happen automatically:**

Focus on lexis is needed for learners to remember and be able to use lexis effectively. When acquiring L1, exposure – massive exposure – may suffice but in a classroom context, the exposure available is not sufficient for lexis to be acquired efficiently without focus and careful planning.

- **It's a big task!**

To understand an unknown item in a text, one needs to be able to understand 95% of the co-text. Fortunately, 2000 words accounts for about 80% of what you hear or read. Unfortunately, there is a law of diminishing returns at work thereafter: 3000 words would that figure up to about 82%, and so on. Calculating vocabulary size is complex because it depends on whether we count lexemes only or each word of a family. (NB: **Lexeme** = *a basic root word with no inflections*)

- **It's a vital task!**

"Without grammar, little can be conveyed, without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed." – Wilkins, 1972.

How do we choose what lexis to teach? What criteria can we use for selection?

There are several criteria we can choose to apply to selection of lexis:

- frequency
- coverage
- learners' needs and interests
- learnability
- opportunism

Frequency

We could teach learners the most frequently used words. We have frequency lists that would enable us to do this. However, there are limitations to this approach.

- The top 50 most frequent words are mostly grammar words e.g. "and".
- Frequency can clash with "teaching convenience" e.g. days of the week have different frequencies.
- Words may have great interactional value but little referential value. E.g. "just" is very commonly used as a softener but has little meaning on its own.
- Written vs. spoken: "though" is in the top 300 but it is used very differently in spoken discourse from how it is used in written discourse. Compare "Though it wasn't a very good film, it was quite funny." and S1: "It wasn't a very good film." S2: "It was quite funny though."
- Frequency lists include single words rather than collocations whereas many collocations would feature more than individual words if lists allowed it.
- It raises the questions of whose frequency. British English frequency? American English frequency? Frequency in language used by pilots?

Coverage

We could teach learners words with broader coverage first. E.g. Teaching "go" before "walk" or "drive"; "book" before "notebook" or "textbook", in terms of word specificity, and teaching words that appear in a greater number of different kinds of texts before those that are very specific to a particular text type. As with frequency, there are limitations to this approach:

- Context and learner needs may mean that more specific vocabulary is required from the outset.

Learners' needs and interests

These may be more apparent in an ESP or EAP class than in a general English class. If you are teaching in a very specific context, then this will influence your vocabulary selection more than other criteria will.

Learnability

There are a lot of factors that influence the learnability of a piece of lexis.

- **Tangibility**. Is it abstract or concrete? Concrete lexis is easier to learn and remember. e.g. apple vs. distraction
- **Grammatical behaviour**. How does it behave grammatically? E.g. accuse -> accuse somebody of doing something; suggest -> suggest that; depend -> depend on; responsible -> responsible for.
- **L1 aid/interference:** Is it a cognate or a false friend? False friends mean meaning is easily confused.
- **Confusability:** similarity of words e.g. raise (transitive) /rise (intransitive), similarity of root word e.g. take over/take after.
- **Cultural distance:** How familiar is the concept? E.g. "moor" or "sleet" in North Africa…

Opportunism

What about language that emerges in class? Do we ignore "Dogme moments" because it is a low frequency item or an item with low coverage etc.? Or do we take advantage of learners' desire to know something?

Going beyond words

There are many collocations that we use frequently: many would feature more than individual words if they were allowed in frequency lists.

"Language is grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar." – Michael Lewis (1993)

When we produce language, we go to lexis first and then use grammar to control it.

- **Delexical verbs and their collocations:** e.g. have a bath; make a cake; have a word; do a runner; get lost; get drunk. These verbs are meaning-light (light lexical content) but commonly used in combination. Some combinations are more common than others. They are a common source of error. E.g. doing a Masters ("native") vs. studying a Masters ("learner")
- **Verb and adjective collocations of content nouns:** e.g. teach "set the table" rather than just "table". In order to be able to use nouns, we need to know the verb and adjective collocations that we can use them with.
- **Exploit metaphorical links:** e.g. money commonly collocates with spend; make; waste; save; invest; spare – and so does time!"Bet" – the metaphorical meaning is more common than the literal meaning – "I bet you're right."

"See" – used more commonly to mean "understand" than for its literal meaning.

"far more general utility in the recombination of known elements than in the addition of less easily useable items" (Sinclair and Renauf, 1988)

– do we need to rethink our priorities? It could be better to teach learners to use what they already know in a wider range of uses.

e.g. instead of just "enjoy" – enjoy, enjoyable, enjoyment, enjoy a reputation (different word types and different combinations)

Processes in lexis building

Here are a range of processes we can engage learners in, as we help them to learn lexis:

- **recognise** – do they know it when they see it?
- **identify** – do they know it when they see it within a text?
- **match** – can they put it together with its definition? with common collocates? with synonyms? with antonyms?
- **categorise** – can they link it with the correct word type? topic? metaphorical v literal? etc.
- **retrieve** – can they remember it without a visual or aural stimulus?
- **contextualise** – can they use it in a sentence or as part of discourse?
- **activate** – can they use it without prompting?
- **extend** – can they use it in a variety of ways?
- **manipulate** – can they convert it into a different word type? can they use it in combination with other words?
- **rank** – can they compare it with other lexis?
- **deduce** – can they guess what it means when in an unfamiliar combination?

Depth of processing

This refers to the number of times the brain touches the word: identify and rank = two processes. The more processes used, the greater the depth of processing becomes. The greater the depth of processing used, the greater the chances of retention. It is important for learners to use a variety of processes when learning lexis.

There are two main approaches to vocabulary teaching: "Front door" and "Back door"

"Front door" teaching means identifying a group of words and teaching them. This can be done in two ways.

- **"verbal"**: by eliciting, explaining or defining, using a matching activity (NB: this must be carefully graded to be of any use!), translating, getting learners to deduce the meaning from context (NB: learners must be able to understand a lot of the co-text)
- **"non-verbal"** : using pictures/images (e.g. photos, from the internet, flashcards), symbols, actions (mime, gesture, facial expression), realia, drawings, sound effects.

"Back door" teaching means using a text-based approach, in which you highlight/draw attention to words/chunks within a text.

Elicitation

Elicitation is a commonly used technique in the language classroom. It is when we get learners to provide information rather than simply telling them something. Like many techniques, it has benefits and limitations. This means we need to keep certain things in mind when we want to use elicitation.

Benefits:
- It can be engaging for learners.

Limitations:
- You can't elicit what learners don't know.
- Can be time-consuming

To remember:
- You must be precise.
- You must ensure that the language you use to elicit is well graded.
- You cannot use terms that are more difficult than the concept itself when defining/explaining it.
- Once you have explained or elicited something, you must check that a learner has understood.

4. How to Teach ESL vocabulary

Vocabulary is crucial to a student's language development and communication skills. After all, without adequate words, it's difficult to relate thoughts, ideas, and feelings about who we are and how we interpret the world around us. But how do we achieve this goal without making students memorize lists of ESL vocabulary that will be forgotten after the next pop quiz? Learn some of the teaching strategies we share in BridgeTEFL certification courses and others for introducing new vocabulary, practicing it in a relevant and engaging way, and making available for recall in your student's minds.

What is the best way to teach vocabulary?

Create a context around words you teach

It's a good idea to think about how students will recall a word when sitting for an exam and use this as your starting point to determine how you want your students to remember what you have taught them. In other words, don't teach new words in a vacuum. You want to create a contextual experience (an interesting story, a series of images, a dialogue) that leaves a deep impression so when the time comes for your class to recall a particular list of words, they'll be able to access these words with little trouble.

4.1.   **Teach relevant vocabulary**

Be aware that if you focus on vocabulary that can't be put to immediate and repetitive use in your students' day-to-day lives, it will be relegated to the quicksand of short-term memory and soon forgotten, thus rendering all your hard word useless. Choose vocabulary that is connected to your students' lives and can be easily applied to their world outside of the classroom.

4.2.   **Consider your students' age**

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

If you are **teaching children,** remember that they are innately curious and love to learn about things that surround them.

Teens, on the other hand, need vocabulary to help them understand the books they read, music they listen to, or the shows they watch, as well as words that can help them express their feelings.

Adults need the appropriate TEFL vocabulary to help them relate on both a personal and business level, and they rely on you to give them the best and most common words and phrases that will help them improve their communication skills.

5.   **Key Strategies in Teaching Vocabulary**

Some of the key strategies to unfold the information and meaning of a new word to a class are as follows:

Definitions

Definitions in the target language may be very handy if they are expressed in terms that are better known or more easily guessed than the word that is defined. In this direction teachers and students can refer to authentic and reliable dictionaries.

Self-defining Context

The context makes the situation clear, and this in turn illuminates the meaning of the new word. This practice saves time and develops an intensive reading habit and better understanding.

Antonyms

When one member of a pair of opposites is understood, the meaning of the other can be easily comprehended. This helps the student to understand the different shades of meanings of a word.

Synonyms

A synonym may be used to help the student to understand the different shades of meaning if the synonym is better known than the word being taught. Synonyms help to enrich a student's vocabulary bank and provide alternative words instantly.

Dramatization

This method can be practiced at ease. It can win the favour of the students as learners like dramatizations and can easily learn through them. Many situations can be dramatized or demonstrated.
Examples

- Sing [Sing a song]

- Open [Open a book]

- Close [Close the book]

Pictures and Drawings

Pictures of many types and colours can be used successfully to show the meaning of words and sentence. Handmade pictures can also be used as there is no need to be very artistic.
Examples

- into [Raj goes into the circle.]

- in [Rahman is in the circle.]

Drawings can be used to explain the meaning of things, actions, qualities, and relations. A line drawing of a head, for example, provides many useful nouns and verbs.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Realia

Real objects or models of real objects are very effective and meaningful in showing meanings but in handling of real objects, a teacher must be practical and should not be superfluous.

Series, Scales, Systems

The meaning of words such as the months of the year, the days of the week, the parts of the day, seasons of the year, ordinal numbers, cardinal numbers, etc. that form part of well-known series can be made clear by placing them in their natural order in the series.

Parts of Words

The parts of complex and compound words may be more common than the words themselves. Separating such words into their component parts generally elaborates the meaning.

Illustrative Sentences

Most words have a variety of restrictions on their use. Systematic descriptions of these restrictions and idiomatic uses would be laborious and not very effective in teaching. It is better to give appropriate examples that elucidate the range and variation of usage.

Practice from Meaning to Expression

This is controlled practice in which the class does not create new uses or new contexts but simply recalls the ones presented. There are many types of practices for this purpose. Pictures, realia, context, and dramatization can be used. Series and systems can also be used.

Reading the Word

Reading words aloud is also very beneficial. It makes a learner familiar with the word and also improves pronunciations of the learners.

Writing the Word

It will enable the class to write the new word while the auditory memory is fresh, even if the objective is only to read. Writing or copying the word from the blackboard will give the student a chance to understand the grammatical aspect of the word such as noun, verb, adverb, adjective etc.

Shift of Attention

Under this practice, the teacher provides a context by description or through reading which elicits the use of the word. The learners should be asked to pay attention to and develop an attitude or a point of view which he defends or attacks.

Strategy for Special Types of Words

Specific techniques or special combinations of the above techniques may be applicable for particular groups of words.

Words That Are Easy to Learn

It has been seen that the words that are similar in form and meaning to the first language are easy to understand and comprehend. They should be taught for listening and reading rather than for speaking and writing.

Words of Normal Difficulty

Words of normal difficulty are best taught in contextual realms, such as food, clothing, sports, work, and so on. There are advantages to using a connected context illustrating the words that are to be taught. Additional words can be taught as alternatives to those chosen in the connected context. Practice can be controlled in varying situations by changing a key word or phrase.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Difficult Words

Some words and sets of words are especially difficult to understand. They have to be taught as special problems with the strategy determined by the particular problem in each case.

An efficient language teacher can use selected vocabulary activities or can use integrated activities. All this depends upon ability and level of understanding and interest of the learners. There is no sure fire remedy or method to enhance vocabulary in a day or two. A student's vocabulary bank can be enriched on a gradual basis and one should always show keen interest and enthusiasm in finding, learning and understanding new words.

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Lecture 15 Assessing Vocabulary.

When we describe the nature o f vocabulary we immediately think o f words." Sowhat are words, and how do we define them for testing purposes? Consider the fol•lowing paragraph adapted from a recent Newsweekmagazine:

There are big lies. And little lies. And somewhere in between there are the lies we tell our doctors.

Even the most famous doctor of all, Hippocrates, knew thatthose pesky Greek patients might tell a

fib or two. To find out if they were stretching the truth, Hippocrates measured their pulse rates.

First o f all, we can identify words as tokens and types. Tokens are all the wordsin the paragraph,

which in this case totals 53- Types, 'on the other hand, do not count words that are repeated, only

words that are of different forms. So in the

above paragraph, the word "lies" occurs three times but is counted only once. Both"doctor" and

"doctors" appear, but they get counted as two types, even though theyare in the same word fam

ily.Most vocabulary tests would not test two derivatives o f the same family; otherwise one is

most likely testing grammatical knowledge (e.g., "doctor" and its plural counterpart, "doctors").

Another set o f categories that we need to consider when we talk about knowl•edge o f words is the difference between fu n ction w o r d s and co n te n t w ords.

Function words—prepositions, articles, conjunctions, and other "little" words—are seen as belonging more to the grammar o f the language than vocabulary. In isolation, function words mostly show the association among content words in sen•tences. Content words are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Generally then, it's content words that we focus on in vocabulary tests.

Some vocabulary tests might focus on larger lexical items such as p h ra sa l

v erbs ("put up with," "run into"), co m p o u n d n ou n s ("personal computer," "fish tank"), or idiom s ("a pretty penny," "against the clock," "actions speak louder than words"), which have meaning only as a whole unit.

Research (Moon, 1997; Nattinger & DeCarrico 1992; Pawley & Synder, 1983) has also identified p refab ricated language that language users have at their disposal for communication. The prefabricated language or lexical phrases, as

Nattinger and DeCarrico called them, are groups o f words that seem to have a grammatical structure but operate as a single unit and have a particular function in communication. The authors identified four types o f lexical phrases:

1. P o ly w ords are short fixed phrases that perform a variety o f functions such as qualifying, marking fluency, disagreement, etc. For example: f o r the mostpart, so to speak,and wait a minute.

2. Institutio n aliz e d e x p re ssio n s are longer utterances that are fixed in form such as proverbs and formulas for social interaction. For example: p o t callingthe kettle black, nice to m eet you, how 's it going, see y ou later, etc.

3. P h ra s a l con stra in ts are medium-length phrases that have basic structure

with one or two slots that can be filled by various words or phrases. For

example: yours truly/sincerely, as fa r as I know /can tell/am aware, etc.

4. Sentence b u ild ers are phrases that provide the framework for a complete

sentence with one or two slots where whole ideas can be expressed. For

example: that rem inds m e o fX , on the other h a n d X, and not only X but

also X, etc. (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992, pp. 38 -4 7).

In vocabulary testing, these larger lexical items have received less attention

than single words, partly because traditional vocabulary tests have been discrete-

type tests that lend themselves more easily to single-word test items. Single words

are also easier to identify (from word lists and texts) as well as to score. In contrast, because larger lexical phrases can vary in grammatical form and have particular functions in spoken and written discourse, they are more open-ended, which makes them more difficult to identify and evaluate. However, larger lexical items can be used in vocabulary testing, especially when they are part o f "embedded, comprehe D efining L exical Know ledge

So what does it mean to "know" a vocabulary item? One way to answer this question is to try to clarify everything a learner has to do to acquire a vocabulary item. Richards (1976, p. 83) outlined a series o f assumptions about vocabulary ability that developed out o f linguistic theory:nsive and context-dependent vocabulary measures" (Read, 2000, p. 24).

Nation (1990) took Richards's (1976) approach further by specifying the scope o f the learner's task to include the distinction between receptiveand productivevocabulary knowledge. We may be able to recognize a word when we see or hear it. But are we able to use it in our speech or writing? The production o f a word requires a different (and perhaps more complex) set of abilities from those needed for reception of a word, so both modes o f performance need to be taken into account in assessment.

To better understand the construct o f vocabulary ability, let's go back to our discussion o f communicative language testing in Chapter 1 (p. XX). Following Canale and Swain's (1980) model o f communicative com petence, Bachman (1990) and later Bachman and Palmer (1996) included not only language knowledge (grammatical and sociolinguistic com petence) but also strategic com petence, a set of "metacognitive strategies that provide language users with the ability to, or capacity to create or interpret discourse" (p. 67) as part o f their model of communicative competence. Thus Bachman and Palmer's definition o f language ability included both knowledge of language and the ability to put language to use in context. Other researchers (Chapelle, 1994) accounted for both the explicit knowledge o f vocabu•lary and the ability (more implicitly) to put vocabulary knowledge to use in a given context. Three components make up Chapelle's definition of vocabulary ability:

1. the context o f vocabulary use

2. vocabulary knowledge and fundamental processes

3. metacognitive strategies for vocabulary use

1. Vocabulary in context. Traditionally in testing, we view context as the sen•tence or environment in which the target word occurs. However, from a commu•nicative language use position, context is more than just the linguistic environment in which a word occurs; it also includes different types o f pragmatic knowledge. That is, the meaning o f the target word has to be viewed within the social and cultural environment as well.

So when teenagers talk about a "babe" or describe an event as "da bomb," the context o f the conversation should signal that the first case is not "a small baby" but rather a nice-looking girl and the second a description roughly equivalent to "awesome" or "great." Or consider Read's (2000) example o f a British-American English confusion over the word "to table." In British English, the term to tablemeans

"todiscuss now " (the issue is brought to the table), whereas in American English it means "to defer" (the issue is left on the table). In important business meetings, that difference could lead to some frustrating misunderstandings.The context o f vocabulary use may vary across generations, formal and informal language, and varieties and dialects o f language as well as between non-specialized, everyday vocabulary and specialized or technical vocabulary. To under•stand context in a more social framework we should look at the type o f activity the language user is engaged in, the social status of the participants in that activity, and finally the channel—whether written or spoken communication—in which the lan•guage will be used.

2. F un d am en tal processes o f vocabulary acquisition. Another feature o f vocabulary ability is the learner's knowledge o f word characteristics, perceiving different forms o f words, recognizing linguistic roots to decipher meaning, using context for guessing meaning, and even simply knowing the parts o f speech to which words belong.Related to vocabulary knowledge is how words or lexical items are organized in the brain of the learner and also how they gain access to their knowledge of vocabulary. Both o f these are measurable. To understand lexical organization, researchers have looked at word-association or lexical network tasks, and for processes they have considered automaticity o f word recognition.

3. M etacognitive strategies. The third component o f Chapelle's (1994) definition of vocabulary ability is metacognitive strategies that all language users employ to manage communication. As Read (2000, p. 33) points out, we use a set o f strategies in trying to read illegible handwriting, other strategies when we need to convey a sad message, and still others when we might be talking with a nonnative speaker o f our language. Second language learners often use metacognitive strategies to overcome their lack o f vocabulary knowledge when they are communicating. Most often they practice avoidance, such as using a lexical item because they don't know it or aren't sure o f the correct pronunciation or grammatical form. Other times second language learners will paraphrase a word, fall back on their first language, use a superordinate term such as "musical instrument" for "trombone," or even appeal to authority when they are unsure o f their knowledge o f vocabulary.

These strategies are part o f a learner's ability to use words, and although the strategies themselves are rarely assessed in a formal test, they figure largely into a student's level o f success on a vocabulary test. At the very least, teachers can help students both to "remember" words as well as to produce them by using appropriate metacognitive strategies.Perhaps you can now see that to "know" a word is not an easy matter to define. The prospect o f assessing lexical ability becom es a little more complex than just asking students to choose a correct definition (out o f maybe four or five) or to fill in a blank in a cloze test. Next, w e'll take a closer look at how you can design tests to measure lexical ability.

SOME CONSIDERATIONS IN DESIGNING ASSESSMENT TASKS

We advocate for assessing the various linguistic forms of grammar and vocabulary within the different skill areas, and therefore in general, for pedagogical purposes, integrated tests are appropriate for classroom assessment. However, as we have defined vocabulary knowledge as a separate ability in this chapter, our design of vocabulary tests, per se, will be more discrete than embedded tests that contribute to assessing a larger construct or ability than just vocabulary. Let's look at some steps you can take to design a vocabulary7 test.

1. Clarify y o u r purpose. You are already aware that the first order of business in designing tests is to clarify the purpose o f the test so that we can evaluate the results in relation to the intended use o f the test. For example, a test o f vocabulary can be used to assess how many high-frequency words a learner already knows before he or she begins a course o f study; during the course of study a teacher can use vocabulary tests to assess learner progress or identify vocabulary that need further attention; and at the end o f a course o f study, the vocabulary test can provide information about the knowledge o f lexical items a learner has studied.

2. D efine y o u r construct. Once we have clarified the intended purpose o f the test we must next define the construct or the ability w e're about to measure. The

construct definition o f vocabulary knowledge can be either syllabus-based or theory- based. For many of us as teachers, the syllabus-based approach to defining the con-struct is more appropriate because "the lexical items and the vocabulary skills to be assessed can be specified in relation to the learning objectives o f the

course" (Read, 2000, p. 153). The theory-based construct definition is applicable for research and for assessing vocabulary proficiency. So, for example, the previous discussion on Chapelle's (1994) model o f vocabulary ability is one framework that can be used to define the construct a vocabulary test.

3. Select y o u r target words. Next, in designing a vocabulary test it's important to consider the selection o f target words. Consider the following categories for making your choices. Nation (1990) suggested that teaching and testing o f vocabulary should be based on these high -freq u en cy w o rd s (more often occurring) because these words are the basis for all proficient language users. Thus high-frequency words are generally the most useful in assessing the vocabulary ability o f a learner. Low -frequency w ord s (less often occurring) are much less valuable, and often learners pick them up based on how widely they read, their personal interests, their educational background, the society they live in, and the communication they engage in. In the case o f low-frequency words, researchers focus more on how learn•ers effectively use strategies to cope with these lexical items when they come across them in language use. Another category is speciali2ed v ocab u lary (e.g., m em •brane, m olecule, cytoplasm from biology), which figures more prominently in con•tent-area instruction, and the assessment o f these lexical items are more often found in subject-matter tests than in general language tests. The last category is subtech-n ical w o rd s (e.g., cell, energy, structure), which occur across registers or subjectareas and thus can be used to assess different meanings and definitions. Academic word lists often contain subtechnical vocabulary.

4. Determine mode o f p erform ance. In designing vocabulary tests we must keep in mind two important features—receptive and productive vocabulary, a distinction presented earlier in our discussion of defining vocabulary ability. To have a better understanding o f testing receptive and productive vocabulary, we need to clarify these terms further. We can receive and produce vocabulary in two ways. One is recognition or comprehension, whereby a learners are presented with a word and asked to show they know the meaning o f that word. The following is a classic example o f recognition:

DESIGNING ASSESSMENT TASKS: RECEPTIVE VOCABULARY

Teachers often design vocabulary tests both to assess progress in vocabulary learning and to give learners feedback and encouragement to continue studying vocabulary.

With classroom tests, practicality can be a significant concern, especially ease of construction and scoring. Thus many vocabulary tests are limited to single sentences. Let's begin by looking at vocabulary in the context o f a single sentence.First o f all it is important to consider what role the context plays in the test item. One function o f the context is to indicate a specific meaning o f a high- frequency word. Second, the learner must be able to recognize the word based on the given context. Read (2000, p. 163) illustrates in the following item:

Vocabulary in a one-sentence context: **High-frequency word**

M y grandfather is a very <u>independent</u> person.

A. never w illin g to give help

B. hard-w orking

C. not relying on other people

D. good at repairing things

In this example, the test-taker must be able to show understanding o f the underlined adjective in the sentence. The options are all attributes o f a person, and thus knowledge o f the meaning o f the word itself is needed to get the item correct.In the case of low-frequency words, even a limited context can provide infor•mation that will enable the test-taker to recognize and infer the meaning o f the lex•ical item. Items need to contain some amount o f contextual information for the test-taker to get the item correct, as in the following:

Vocabulary in a one-sentence context: Low-frequency word

The <u>hazardous</u> road conditions were the cause o f many fatal accidents over

the weekend.

A. d iffic u lt

B. problem atic

C. dangerous

D. com plicated

Although all the above responses could be substituted for the underlined word, the information about the accidents being fatal implies the more serious state of being "dangerous."Another type o f receptive vocabulary assessment task is the well-known and widely used matching exercise. This type of recognition task requires test-takers to match the target word with its meaning or definition. Look at the example on the next page adapted from Read (2000, p. 172

In addition to assessing progress and giving feedback, teachers can also give vocabulary tests for proficiency purposes. In this case the most common approach is to investigate a learner's vocabulary size. One frequently used test to assess a learner's vocabulary size is word association. The procedure involves presenting the target word as a stimulus to test-takers and asking them to say the first word that comes to their mind. In recent years this methodology has seldom been used for second language learners because researchers (Meara, 1983, 1984; Read, 2000) found that second language learners produced varying word associations that were not helpful in determining their vocabulary size. So instead, the test method was changed from asking test-takers to supply the word to asking them to select a word.

Here is an example taken from Read (2000, p. 181):

DESIGNING ASSESSMENT TASKS: PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY

In the same way that context plays an important role in receptive vocabulary tasks, productive tasks, which involve recall and use, are also better performed within a context or situation. A common vocabulary test type is sentence completion, where the target vocabulary item is deleted from a sentence and the test-taker must understand the context in which the word occurs in order to produce the missing word. This methodology involves recall in that the test-taker must provide a lexical item from memory.

It was noted at the beginning o f this chapter that assessing grammar and vocabulary needs to be carefully understood in classroom contexts, especially within communicative methodology. In both teaching and assessment, focus on form has an important role to play in helping students "zoom in" on the bits and pieces o f the language they are learning. Of course, these zoom lenses should not be overly utilized at the expense o f appropriate, authentic wide-angle views o f language as a tool for communicating meaning in the real world. So this chapter is best seen in the perspective o f providing you with a further set o f tools for assessment, those designed to examine the building blocks o f language, which complement the tools that you use for assessing any or all o f the four skills.

The topics for the 2-smestr

Lecture 1. Traditional and innovative models of teaching.

Methodological Framework According to versatility in EFL, the programs provide differentiated content according to the profile, the development of professionally directed skills within a certain area of knowledge, and the introduction of integrated courses. Integrated character of EFL contents facilitate the implementation of interdisciplinary coordination, integration of knowledge about the actual problems of interaction between society and nature, which allows to create not only the ability to synthesize and summarize the knowledge, but also to the process of communication.

Traditional Teaching Methods: Community Based Method

The American psychologist Charles Curran (1972) developed the "Community-method / Advisor method", which is based on a humanistic approach to learning and the psychological theory of Adviser. The essence of theory lies in the fact that people need help from psychologist counselor, and consultation and participation are desired in any form of social human activity, in education as well. The following features are the basic characteristics of "Community" method:

• Students should play the leading role in the organization and the course design according to the humanistic approach; students determine the content of teaching and choosing their own pace and mode of operation.

• The teacher should be the "Adviser," who prompts students to the phrase they need to communicate in a foreign language. In this role "Adviser" he/she should not claim to be the leader or the head of the educational process; should not force students to take part in the process of communication/interaction. The teacher must be the native speaker or possessing the excellent command in the foreign language, as in the process of communication the students are entitled to request any relevant information.

• The training program doesn't design specifically as the learning process is developed in such a way that the students spontaneously choose the topic of interest and language tools.

• The main technique of learning is the translation from the mother language into a foreign language.

• The learning process is constructed as follow: students work-group as they sit around the table facing each other and discuss the topic in their native language. Then begins the dialogue in a foreign language. Teacher is sitting on the sidelines and watching the discussion, and offering foreign language equivalents from time to time. Students repeat the phrase several times, and then record it on a tape recorder to listen to, if necessary.

Proponents of the "community" method specify of truly humanistic character, focus on the individual student and the lack of stress in the process of studying. Using this method requires especially highly trained teachers, as schools and university teachers of foreign language are not psychologists, and can not use the appropriate psychological techniques. Lack of programs and plans, specific objectives, and learning objectives of the course are also not conducive to the wide dissemination of this method, especially in the mass of high school.

Traditional Teaching Methods: Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia is a teaching method developed by the Bulgarian psychotherapist Georgi Lozanov (1978). It is used mostly to learn foreign languages. The theory applied positive suggestion in teaching when it was developed in the 1970s. Suggestopedia gets its name from the term "suggestologiya" - the science of the suggestion and "suggestopeadiya" - suggestology section devoted to the theory and practice of suggestion in teaching. A distinctive feature of this method is the disclosure of memory reserves, raising the intellectual activity, the use of suggestion, relaxation. This method is based on the activation of a person's reserve capacity that is not used in pedagogy and methods of teaching a foreign language, but can significantly increase the amount of memory and contribute to memorize more material per unit of time. The basic means

for activating human reserve capabilities by G. Lozanov (1978), are as follows:

• **Authority.** Teacher's personality plays a leading role in the learning process. Certain qualities that a teacher must possess (self-confidence, the ability to conduct a lesson in accordance with the method, appearance, enthusiasm, etc.), enhance his/her authority and help to win the students' favor, which is necessary for successful learning.

• *Infantilization.* It is defined as "the creation of the environment as the rationally organized team, with the result that students are in a favorable for learning conditions of mutual trust are exempted from the stress and harshness." The use of role-playing games, music, and a comfortable environment allow students to gain a sense of self-confidence, provide opportunities for learning/studying.

• *Double-Planedness.* This means that the teacher or the student uses gestures, facial expressions, intonation, and a certain manner of behavior patterns in order to influence the interlocutor, to win over others. This duality, or the second "I" contributes to credibility, as well as in helping the emancipation, relaxation.

• *Intonation, rhythm, and concert pseudo-passiveness.* According Suggestopedia, the hearing should be organized in a specific way. Certain requirements for the intonation and rhythm. Text material "marks" a teacher in a certain rhythm, accompanied by specially selected music. Music, as well as intonation, rhythm must have clear frequency, and promote relaxation and meditation, which lead students in a state of so-called "concert pseudopassiveness" when they better perceive and remember the material

Alternative Teaching Methods: The Silent Way

The method of "silent" training (The silent way) is based on the structural approach in linguistics and humanist trend in psychology. The author of this method is K. Gatteno (1963), who stimulated his experience in creating programs to teach math and reading in their native language on the methodology of teaching foreign languages.

The method's name reflects the idea that the initiative in the classroom should come from students, whose speech occupies most of the training time, and the teacher has to speak in the classroom as little as possible. Education in silence, is opposed to the teacher's repetition and reproduction, it is an approach, which promotes mental activity and students' concentration in the quest. Application of the "quiet" training has its limitations, as it implies a high degree of students' interest and the availability of internal motivation, which is not always feasible in a secondary school. A positive feature is to stimulate students' independence and the use of the learning process a variety of visual aids.

Alternative Teaching Methods: Total Physical Response Method of support on physical activities
is designed by psychologist J.J. Asher (1969), and is based on structural linguistics, behaviorism, and humanistic orientation in education, as well as the attitude of the psychology of speech, coordination, and physical activities that accompany it. The method develops the ideas of natural method. Its essence lies in the fact that when learning a foreign language is necessary to simulate the process of mastering the mother tongue, which is mastered in parallel with the implementation of appropriate physical activities. Perception of structures is getting easier if it is accompanied by acts performed by teacher and students.

Alternative Teaching Methods: Computer Assisted Language Learning

Learning a foreign language using a computer is based on behaviorist theory and student-centered approach to teaching. Computer training is widespread in foreign language teaching methodology due to the development of an individual approach to learning achievements in the field of programmed learning and computational linguistics, machine translation research opportunities. The widespread dissemination of the computers in modern life, as well as the teachers' proficiency; allow speaking about using the computer in teaching as a direction in methodology of teaching foreign languages.

The first computer programs that appeared in 1960-70 years were grammatical and lexical exercises. In 70 years, developers have begun to pay more attention to the content of these programs. Research in the field of artificial intelligence has allowed improving the program significantly, and directing it to the students' communicative abilities formation. However, the problem of the communicative focus is still important. Currently, the following software groups are:

• training programs for individual work at home or in the computer labs, focused on the grammatical forms acquisition, lexical units, speech patterns, as 3814 A. R. NURUTDINOVA ET AL well as programs for learning to read and write that involve the use of a text editor;

• text of the program for individual, pair and group work, allowing to modify the text: to place punctuation, regroup, proposals, edit text, etc .;

• gaming software, built on the problematic situations and promote the students' motivation. Many methodists and researchers believe that the computer programs are wonderful, interesting, increase motivation, contribute to the competence development, but they are not intended for the communicative competence formation in all its diversity and won't be able to replace the teacher in the classroo

Alternative Teaching Methods: Consciousness – Raising Approach

Consciously oriented approach is based on an awareness of the linguistic forms phenomena - lexical and grammatical - and is based on contrastive linguistics data and an inductive method of language acquisition. The approach was developed for teaching grammar: to master the grammatical skills was seen as a gradual realization. The approach has much in common with the conscious and comparative method, which is based on the fact that the process thinking in all languages is the same, only different in the forms of expression provided by different linguistic means. Proponents of this approach are trying to reconcile the two trends in education: traditional and "non-traditional."

In the process of language acquisition the student must make their way from the current understanding of linguistic phenomena to the unconscious and to the total control of unconsciousness at the stage of perfection, if he continues to study a foreign language after school and is committed to a level close to the level of ownership of a native speaker. The apparent advantage of this approach is the focus on unconscious language acquisition; focus on the use of the studied phenomena in the process of communication and the use of authentic materials. However, some negative aspects should be pointed out: the role of linguistic knowledge exaggeration, comparison, and analysis. The rigid connection of exercises with the text and underestimation of decisive formation of speech skills in the expressive forms of speech activity has a negative impact on language acquisition.

Alternative Teaching Methods: Task – Based Learning

The method of communication tasks - is the solution to a number of communication problems proposed by teacher, deciding which students perform verbal and non-verbal actions, come in contact with each other, or group of students or the teacher, trying to find the right solutions to communicative tasks; not only verbal, but physical actions, gestures, facial expressions, etc are often used. Training programs that are designed in accordance with this method, are the set of communicative tasks and don't involve the selection and organization of linguistic material. The question of how necessary and in what form the students' learning activities can be managed while using the method of communicative tasks, is controversial. It is assumed that the competence formation in a foreign language doesn't require studied systematization of linguistic phenomena, but creating the conditions in which the trainees are involved in order to solve communication problems.

Alternative Teaching Methods: Neuro – Linguistic Programming

Neuro-Linguistic Programming - is, on one hand, the art and science of improving individual study on leadership skills, and on the other, the methods of teaching a foreign language, which allow expanding and strengthening the persons' reserve abilities in the process of immersion in a foreign language and verbal environment. Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP), and affects the way of thinking, on which our achievements as a whole depend. "Modeling the process of thinking, the emergence and development of feelings and beliefs, NLP considers all components of the human experience, above all NLP engaged in the process of communication - human interaction with himself and with others." NLP has appeared more than 20 years ago in the United States, Santa Cruz. John Grinder founded it, while the assistant of Department of Linguistics, and R. Bandler - a student of the psychological and mathematical faculties, fond of psychotherapy. G. Grinder and R. Bandler tried to "imitate" the activities of the three internationally recognized therapists.

Chet tili oʻqitish metodikasi.

NLP's creators claim a connection between the neurological processes (neuro), language (linguistic) and behavioral patterns learned through experience (programming), and that these can be changed to achieve specific goals in life (Bandler and Grinder, 1981). The goal for G. Grinder and R. Bandler (1981), was to reproduce the model of communication used by these eminent scientists in order to then reuse it in their work. The result of this phase of the research was a set of techniques used to improve the efficiency of communication, optimization of learning process, and personal improvement training. Gregory Bateson, the British anthropologist, worked in the fields of psychotherapy, cybernetics, and biology, made the next significant contribution to the development of NLP. NLP is developing rapidly, offering a variety of schemes to achieve success and excellence in various fields, including education.

Alternative Teaching Methods: The Multiple Intelligence Theory

Theory was first published in H. Gardner's book (1984), Frames Of Mind, one of the most renowned scientists in the field of education in the United 3816 A. R. NURUTDINOVA ET AL States, author of monographs and more than a hundred scientific papers on cognitive development and neuropsychology. His book "The boundaries of thought: the theory of multiple intelligences", published more than in ten languages, G. Gardner (2002) made one of the most influential representatives of educational theory and practice, and has won him international fame.

G. Gardner (2002) identified eight relatively autonomous intellectual capacities: linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, musical, bodily kinesthetic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal and natural - testing. The latter allows you to identify, categorize, and use the properties of the environment. Mr. Gardner (2002) also notes that new intellectual abilities can be identified, if they meet the criteria. This theory is applied at all levels of education - from pre-school to adult education; in teaching academic subjects, in the course of training, in the classroom - for normal and gifted students and children who have problems in the study of various disciplines. This theory confirms what teachers face every day: people think and learn in diverse ways. This theory also defines the conceptual framework for the institute and reflection in the process of curriculum development, evaluation of the effectiveness of education and teaching practice. In turn, such reflection allows many teachers to develop new approaches that can meet students' educational needs effectively

Discussions and Conclusions
Despite that the traditional methods of teaching have been more or less similar around the world, the adaptation of teaching strategies and styles to different social, economical and educational contexts has been always an issue for consideration. The growth of technology and computer applications affected almost every aspect of everyday life, worldwide. This is also the case in the field of education; the latter has changed dramatically by endorsing applications that help students improve their written and verbal abilities as well as help them develop new skills that broaden their potentials. The literature review presented in this paper shows that the process of learning in a virtual environment has contributed significantly towards a social change in higher education; this is achieved through the provision of new media allowing access to new knowledge, promoting dialogue among teachers and students and also, among students themselves (Zane & Muilenburg, 2000).

Lecture 2. Classroom Management in Foreign Language Contexts by using modern pedagogical technologies

We hope you are able to use this Classroom Management Strategies Resource Guide to meet your specific needs and the needs of your organization. It is a training requirement if you are implementing a Youth Prevention Education program that you attend our classroom-based Foundations of Youth Prevention Education training. Schools, classrooms, and students are constantly changing and we realize for providers spending time facilitating either a standardsbased or model programs, classroom management is frequently a struggle. If you have attended Prevention First's Foundations of Youth Prevention Education training, information included in this resource guide will build upon the classroom management techniques introduced in the training. This Classroom Management Strategies Resource Guide will also provide you with some general information, guidance, and websites that can be used as resources as you create, implement, and fine tune your classroom management plan and strategies. Prevention First is a nonprofit resource center committed to building and supporting healthy, drug-free communities through public education, professional training, and providing effective tools for those working to prevent drug use and related issues such as violence, teen pregnancy, and academic failure. Since 1980, Professional Development Services Department at Prevention First has provided training, consultation, and information services in the prevention of public health problems, specializing in those associated with alcohol, tobacco, and other drug abuse. Its mission is to provide leadership and develop leaders in the prevention of substance abuse and related issues.

Students cannot learn in chaos. Classroom management includes elements of classroom discipline, but focuses more on creating a peaceful learning environment that is comfortable, organized, engaging, and respectful for both the teacher and the students. Teaching Youth Prevention Education places us directly in a classroom in the teaching or facilitating role. While we are guests in the classroom and it is the role of the classroom teacher to provide the necessary discipline needed, our classroom management strategies can help set the tone for positive interactions, cooperative learning, and to provide a plan ensuring the lesson runs smoothly regardless of any disrupting behaviors by students.

Having effective classroom management strategies should be the goal of everyone implementing a Youth Prevention Education program. It almost goes without saying, but it is an important reminder, that in the end kids will be kids. If we are not taking the steps and putting in the effort to actively engage students in the lessons we are facilitating, they will actively engage in something else…and that's what we all want to avoid. Below you will find information on several topics that will help you develop or strengthen your classroom management strategies. A little thought and effort up front spent on developing classroom management strategies can save providers a lot of time and effort in the long run if problems or issues arise in the classroom.

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND CURRICULUM FIDELITY Classroom management strategies need to be planned, be thoughtful, and in line with curriculum fidelity. It is important to prioritize curriculum fidelity when selecting classroom management strategies. While some classroom management strategies focus more on setting clear rules and some focus more on transitions, the strategies should not change how the lesson is taught. Classroom management strategies should add organization for the students and classroom, but not change the content of the lessons or the fidelity of the curriculum. It is important for all providers to deliver the curriculum with the highest degree of fidelity as possible.

Some important points to keep in mind when creating a classroom management plan or classroom management contract with students:

• Involve students in all aspects of creating the classroom management plan.

• Create no more than five rules or class norms – Keep things as simple as possible. If you create too many rules students will feel overwhelmed by the classroom management plan. Look for rules that cover behaviors that could interfere with the learning and engagement of your students. Creating a classroom management plan should be a short, rather quick activity meant to set the tone for the rest of your time together. Always state rules or classroom norms positively and be as brief and to the point as possible.

Rules that work well in most situations would be:

1. Respect yourself, your classmates, and your teachers.
2. Raise your hand before speaking or leaving your seat.
3. Keep your hands, feet, and materials to yourself.
4. Listen, follow directions, and ask questions when needed.

5. Be positive.

    • Work with the classroom teacher ahead of time to know what some appropriate consequences might be if a student breaks a rule. You don't want to create a rule that isn't enforceable or doesn't match the teacher's classroom management plan. Students often times come up with very harsh consequences, so having the conversation with the classroom teacher ahead of time might give you some ideas to suggest to students if needed. The classroom teacher may have some very valuable insight into what might help keep students on track or what is currently working well in the classroom. Our goal is to work with students to create consequences that can be carried out and offer.

Block off a portion of the flip chart paper so students can sign on the sheet that includes the rules/classroom norms and consequences. Take the flip chart paper down after every lesson and post it up at the beginning of every lesson and in a brief overview at the beginning of each lesson review the rules.

• Remember to include both the class rules or class norms and the consequences. Neither listing the rules alone or the consequences alone does much to change the classroom environment. Students need to know what the rules are and be aware of what will happen when a rule is broken. By including the consequences on the flip chart it allows students to know what will happen if a rule is broken, and that the consequences are the same for everyone. It makes the rules predictable and your responses predictable, which can help establish trust in the classroom. Students don't have to wonder what will happen, they know what will happen and that it will be the same for all students, every day.

    Whether implementing class-wide or individualized classroom management strategies the provider sets the stage by being on-time, prepared, organized, and able to move the lesson along at an appropriate pace.

Class-wide Strategies: • Create a classroom management plan - Although creating a classroom management plan is a short activity it is crucial in establishing how the classroom with function. As mentioned above, the classroom management plan should be posted during every lesson, reviewed often, and referred to when challenging behaviors arise.

• **Understand the power of day 1** – Day 1 is the first day you are in the classroom with the students. Day 1 is the most important day you will spend with students because you set the tone for the classroom and the rules and class norms are established. Work to create a classroom that is warm, inviting, and inclusive. Show enthusiasm for the lessons you are teaching and show students you are excited about being able to spend time with them. We want students to leave the classroom after Day 1 and look forward to the next lesson and the time they will spend in the classroom while you are facilitating.

• **Access a seating chart ahead of time** – Young people want to be addressed by name. If at all possible access a seating chart ahead of time so you can make name tents for each student to grab on their way into class and take to their desks or arrange with the classroom teacher a time before your lesson starts for students to create their own name tents on a piece of paper. These name tents should be used each time you have class and will not only assist in you learning the students names, but will eliminate the need to reference a seating chart and take time and attention away from the students. The simple act of looking down at a seating chart and searching for a student's name is plenty of time for students to start to disengage.

• **Greet students as they enter the classroom** – Even in the beginning when you aren't certain of student's names, it is important for students to feel a sense of belonging and to know you are excited about being at school and are happy they are a part of the class. Simple phrases like, "I am glad you are here today" or "welcome to class" can help students feel connected and engaged. Also, to show students you enjoyed your time with them and look forward to seeing them again, always say good bye and reference when you will see them again for the next lesson.

• **Create an agenda for each day** – Start each lesson on time and quickly review what is listed on the agenda for the lesson. Check off agenda items as they are completed to build on a sense of accomplishment and to help students know what is coming up next. This helps students understand there is a routine followed during your class time and a predictability of what is coming up next.

• **Be genuine and sincere with praise –** While praise is very important and is often times a great prompt to the class acknowledging appropriate behavior, empty praise or praising for small tasks or less than adequate work can actually cause students to disengage and lose interest in your feedback. Be thoughtful in what you say to students and work to find ways to offer genuine praise and feedback. Always try to focus genuine praise on the work and behavior of a student and not the student themselves.

• **Balance teaching and facilitating** – While maintaining fidelity to the curriculum, look for ways to balance teaching and facilitating. Teaching is typically the class listening to the information being shared

by a teacher or facilitator, while facilitating involves sharing knowledge and including the audience in the lesson. Look for opportunities to have students actively respond and participate. Offer opportunitiesfor students to read aloud, write on the board/smart board, answer questions out loud, and assist you during the lesson. Depending on the student's learning style they may learn best when reading, listening, writing information down, or maybe even moving around the classroom a bit. While we can't accommodate each student's learning style each time, we can make an effort to allow students opportunities to actively respond.

• **Circulate the room** – Facilitators should circulate the room as a way to keep students engaged and attentive. Not only do students have to pay attention and follow where you are, but it allows you the opportunity to check to make sure students are on-task.

• **Find a seating arrangement conducive to learning** – While during some lesson activities you may have students working in groups with desks connected, typically when student's desks are arranged in rows students tend to stay on-task, focus, listen, and complete more work. During activities promoting or encouraging student engagement a u-shape or circle might be effective, but overall other arrangements may help with managing disruptive behaviors. Check in with the classroom teacher ahead of time because the teacher may already have a seating assignment that works and has certain students in certain seats. As a rule of thumb it is best to avoid any seating arrangements which cause your back to be to the class or even part of the classroom for any length of time. If there is the need to write materials on the board it is a good idea to delegate different students to write on the board for you while your facilitate class instead of turning around and writing on the board.

• **Be effective when giving instructions** – It is important when giving instructions to provide information in a way that is clear and concise. Once we have gained the student's attention it is important to:

1. Wait until students are seated and not moving around the room.
2. Give one instruction at a time.
3. Use a clear firm voice and repeat each instruction.
4. Wait for student compliance.
5. Provide an opportunity for students to acknowledge understanding of the instruction given. This can be by done asking for thumbs up or thumbs down and answering questions or concerns of the students with their thumbs down. 6. If a class is struggling with following verbal directions you might want to write out ahead of time and post directions for an activity. Having a posted copy of the instructions allows students to refer to this information if they are confused or have questions or concerns.

• **Avoid answering too many questions and stalling the lesson** – Always have a way students can get questions answered, even when there isn't time in class. You can provide a "parking lot" flip chart sheet that is posted in a certain location in the classroom during each lesson and post-it sheets with pens near the paper and students

can write questions and post them to the sheet to be answered next class period. Also a question box can be located in the classroom each class period and have index cards and pens so students can write and submit questions. Finally, as a way to minimize interruptions and keep students and lessons on track, you can decrease pause time between student responses and move on to the next question or task.

• **Handle disagreements with respect** – Let students know throughout your lessons information may be presented that a student might disagree with. Create a classroom atmosphere were students know it is ok to disagree, but disagreements are always to be respectful.

• **Integrate students' interests when appropriate** – During activities, such as role plays, try to use language youth can connect with and names they connect with as part of their culture. It is important to remember the goals and messages of the role play must remain unchanged and prioritize curriculum fidelity.

• **Be willing to give a little to get a lot** – Some days students enter the classroom and you can tell the energy level is high and it is going to be an enormous challenge to keep students focused and on-task. Whether it's the weather, a school holiday or break is coming up, or a student has a birthday, offering a small incentive might be just the key to get students to tune in and be alert. Incentives don't have to cost money, but can offer students an opportunity to interact with each other and relax. You can tell students if they work hard, stay focused and on-task for the 45 minute lesson they can have the last 2-3 minutes of class to talk to each other, stand up, and use up some of their energy. While we don't want to give up our facilitation time, many times offering an incentive can help your facilitation time go smoothly and instead of dealing with constant disruptions, you can focus on the lesson and make the most of your time in the classroom.

• Use proximity to stop disruptive behavior – Place yourself in close proximity to the student and conduct a few minutes of the lesson standing by them. You don't need to be overly obvious about moving toward the student, but many times having you near will subdue the disruptive behavior. • Stop and wait – On occasion you might need to simply stop the lesson, pause, make eye contact with the student and wait for the student to quiet down and focus. This can also cue the classroom teacher in on which student is being disruptive or that their assistance may be needed. • Location, location, location – While many teachers have created elaborate seating charts to keep certain students away from each other or in the front of the room, if where the student is seated is causing some of the disruptive behavior, it might be worth consulting the classroom teacher about having the student moved to another seat. Often behaviors are not as disruptive to you or the class if the student can be seated in the back of the classroom and close to the classroom teacher. If you have an extremely disruptive student you might want to consider putting them in a seat closest to the classroom teacher's desk.

• **Use your voice** – Students often match the volume of the teacher's voice in the classroom. If you want to gain a student's attention or the attention of the class, instead of increasing the volume of your voice try decreasing your volume. It's not productive and effective to try and talk over a student or the side conversations of students. Silence can be very effective and sometimes it is very appropriate so students have to focus and really listen to hear you.

• **Stay cool** – Remember to stay calm and keep your composure when presented with challenging behaviors. You don't need to accept or tolerate the behavior, but you will lose credibility if you lower yourself to his/her level. It is important to stay professional at all times and even when students are disruptive it is important to reach out to the classroom teacher for assistance, but to refrain from sharing frustrations, venting, and complaining. If you encounter a student who was consistently disruptive during class you can use the following steps to try and work with the student to correct behavior:

1. Speak with the student after class. Never try to engage in a conversation about behavior during class or while other students are able to hear the conversation. Be as private as you can with the conversation, but have the discussion out in the open where other people are around, but not included in your conversation.

2. Speak only for yourself and don't speak for the classroom teacher or the other students in the class. Make the conversation very centered on just you and the student.

3. Try to understand and see things from the student's point of view.

4. Help the student understand your point of view, but understand many adolescents are not able to see beyond that moment or understand how their behavior can affect others

COMMUNICATING WITH SCHOOLS AND KEY STAKEHOLDERS It is important to prioritize proactive communication with the school and classroom teacher to clarify expectations. A formal linkage agreement or memo of understanding (MOU) plays a key role in clarifying expectations, but consider other ways and opportunities to check-in and discuss successes and challenges as often as possible. Schools and teachers are partners in implementing Youth Prevention Education programs and as a way to get them fully invested in the success of the program we need to stay in constant communication with them.

Lecture 3. Project methods and task based teaching English

A framework for task-based language teaching Introduction and overview In the first section of this chapter, I introduce a framework for task-based language teaching. The framework defines and exemplifies the key elements in the model that underlies this book including real-world/target tasks, pedagogical tasks and enabling skills. The next section outlines a procedure for creating an integrated syllabus around the concept of the pedagogic task. The section that follows is devoted to materials design considerations. It provides a procedure that can be used for planning lessons, materials and units of work. In the final section, the principles underlying the procedures described in the body of the chapter are laid out.

A task framework,
the point of departure for task-based language teaching is real-world or target tasks. These are the hundred and one things we do with language in everyday life, from writing a poem to confirming an airline reservation to exchanging personal information with a new acquaintance. These three examples, by the way, illustrate Michael Halliday's three macrofunctions of language. Halliday argues that at a very general level, we do three things with language: we use it to exchange goods and services (this is the transactional or service macrofunction), we use it to socialize with others (this is the interpersonal or social macrofunction), and we use it for enjoyment (this is the aesthetic macrofunction).

Typically, in everyday interactions, the macrofunctions are interwoven, as in the following (invented) example:

A: Nice day.
B: That it is. What can I do for you?
A: I'd like a round-trip ticket to the airport, please. In order to create learning opportunities in the classroom, we must transform these real-world tasks into pedagogical tasks. Such tasks can be placed on a continuum from rehearsal tasks to activation tasks

Pedagogical task: rehearsal rationale
Write your resumé and exchange it with a partner. Study the positions available advertisements in the newspaper and find three that would be suitable for your partner. Then compare your choices with the actual choice made by your partner. This task has a rehearsal rationale. If someone were to visit my classroom and ask why the students were doing this task, my reply would be something along the lines of, 'Well, I'm getting them, in the security of the classroom, to rehearse something they're going to need to do outside the classroom.'

Notice that the task has been transformed. It is not identical to the process of actually applying for a job in the world outside the classroom. In addition to the work with a partner, the students will be able to get feedback and advice from me, the teacher, as well as drawing on other resources.

Not all pedagogical tasks have such a clear and obvious relationship to the real world. Many role plays, simulations, problem-solving tasks and information exchange tasks have what I call an activation rationale. The task is designed not to provide learners with an opportunity to rehearse some out-of-class performance but to activate their emerging language skills. In performing such tasks, learners begin to move from reproductive language use – in which they are reproducing and manipulating language models provided by the teacher, the textbook or the tape – to creative language use in which they are recombining familiar words, structures and expressions in novel ways. I believe that it is when users begin to use language creatively that they are maximally engaged in language acquisition because they are required to draw on their emerging language skills and resources in an integrated way.

Here is an example of an activation task. It is one I observed a group of students carrying out in a secondary school classroom. It formed the basis of an extremely engaging lesson to which all students actively and animatedly contributed.

Pedagogical task: activation rationale Work with three other students. You are on a ship that is sinking. You have to swim to a nearby island. You have a waterproof container, but
can only carry 20 kilos of items in it. Decide which of the following items you will take. (Remember, you can't take more than 20 kilos with you.)
• **Axe (8 kilos) • Box of novels and magazines(3 kilos)**
• **Cans of food (500 grams • Packets of sugar, flour,each) rice,powdered milk, coffee,tea (each packet weighs 500grams)**
• **Bottles of water (1.5 kilos • Medical kit (2 kilos)each)**
• **Short-wave radio (12 kilos) • Portable CD player and CDs(4 kilos)**
• **Firelighting kits (500 grams • Rope (6 kilos)each)**

• Notebook computer (3.5 • Waterproof sheets of fabrickilos) (3 kilos each)

This task, which worked very well, does not have a rehearsal rationale in that the teacher was not expecting the students to be shipwrecked in the foreseeable future. The aim of the task was to encourage students to activate a range of language functions and structures including making suggestions, agreeing, disagreeing, talking about quantity, how much/ how many, wh-questions, etc. (It is worth noting, however, that learners are not constrained to using a particular set of lexical and grammatical resources. They are free to use any linguistic means at their disposal to complete the task.)

One interpretation of TBLT is that communicative involvement in pedagogical tasks of the kind described and illustrated above is the necessary and sufficient condition of successful second language acquisition. This 'strong' interpretation has it that language acquisition is a subconscious process in which the conscious teaching of grammar is unnecessary: 'Language is best taught when it is being used to transmit messages, not when it is explicitly taught for conscious learning' (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 55).

The argument by proponents of a 'strong' interpretation of TBLT isthat the classroom should attempt to simulate natural processes of acquisition, and that form-focused exercises are unnecessary. Elsewhere,Krashen (see, for example, Krashen 1981, 1982) argues that there is a role for grammar, but that this role is to provide affective support to the learner – in other words it makes them feel better because, for most learners, a focus on form is what language learning is all about, but it does not fuel the acquisition process. In fact, Krashen and Terrell argue that even speaking is unnecessary for acquisition: 'We acquire from what we hear (or read), not from what we say.' (p. 56). The role of a focus on form remains controversial, as we shall see in Chapter 5.

My own view is that language classrooms are unnatural by design, and that they exist precisely to provide for learners the kinds of practice opportunities that do not exist outside the classroom. Learners, particularly those in the early stages of the learning process, can benefit from a focus on form (Doughty and Williams 1998; Long 1985; Long and Robinson 1998), and learners should not be expected to generate language that has not been made accessible to them in some way. In fact, what is needed is a pedagogy that reveals to learners systematic interrelationships between form, meaning and use (Larsen-Freeman 2001).

In the TBLT framework presented here, form-focused work is presented in the form of enabling skills, so called because they are designed to develop skills and knowledge that will ultimately facilitate the process of authentic communication. In the framework, enabling skills are of two kinds: language exercises and communicative activities. (See Kumaravadivelu 1991, 1993 for elaboration.) Language exercises come in many shapes and forms and can focus on lexical, phonological or grammatical systems. Here are examples of lexically and grammatically focused language exercises:

Language exercise: lexical focus

A Complete the word map with jobs from the list.

architect, receptionist, company director, flight attendant, supervisor, engineer, salesperson, secretary, professor, sales manager, security guard, word processor

Professionals
architect
. . . .
. . . .
. . . .
. . . .

Service occupations
flight attendant
. . . .
. . . .
. . . .
. . . .

JOBS

Management positions
company director
. . . .
. . . .
. . . .
. . . .

Office work
receptionist
. . . .
. . . .
. . . .
. . . .

B Add two jobs to each category. Then compare with a partner.

(Richards 1997: 8)

Language exercise: grammatical focus

A Complete the conversation. Then practise with a partner.

A. What . . . . you . . . .?
B. I'm a student. I study business.
A. And . . . . do you . . . . to school?
B. I . . . . to Jefferson College.
A. . . . . do you like your classes?
B. I . . . . them a lot.

(Richards 1997: 8)

Language exercise: grammatical focus
A Complete the conversation. Then practise with a partner.
A. What ………… you .... ?
B. I'm a student. I study business.
A. And ………… do you .... to school?
B. I .... to Jefferson College.
A .... do you like your classes?
B. I .... them a lot.

The essential difference between these practice opportunities and those afforded by pedagogical tasks has to do with outcomes. In each case above, success will be determined in linguistic terms: 'Did the learners get the language right?' In pedagogical tasks, however, there is an outcome that transcends language: 'Did the learners select the correct article of clothing according to the weather forecast?' 'Did they manage to get from the hotel to the bank?' 'Did they select food and drink items for a class party that were appropriate and within their budget?'

Communicative activities represent a kind of 'half-way house' between language exercises and pedagogical tasks. They are similar to language exercises in that they provide manipulative practice of a restricted set of language items. They resemble pedagogical tasks in that they have an element of meaningful communication. In the example that follows, students are manipulating the forms 'Have you ever..... ?', 'Yes, I have' and 'No, I haven't.' However, there is also an element of authentic communication because, presumably, they can not be absolutely sure of how their interlocutors are going to respond.
Communicative activity Look at the survey chart and add three more items to the list. Now, go around the class and collect as many names as you can

Find someone who has . . .	Name
. . . driven a racing car	
. . . been to a Grand Prix race	
. . . played squash	
. . . run a marathon	
. . . had music lessons	
. . . ridden a motorcycle	
. . . flown an airplane	
. . . been to a bullfight	
. . . been scuba diving	
. . . played tennis	

(Nunan 1995: 96)

Seven principles for task-based language teaching
In this final section of the chapter, I will summarize the underlying principles that were drawn on in developing the instructional sequence outlined above.
Principle 1: Scaffolding
• Lessons and materials should provide supporting frameworks within which the learning takes place. At the beginning of the learning process, learners should not be expected to produce language that has not been introduced either explicitly or implicitly.
A basic role for an educator is to provide a supporting framework within which the learning can take place. This is particularly important in the case of analytical approaches such as TBLT in which the learners will

encounter holistic 'chunks' of language that will often be beyond their current processing capacity. The 'art' of TBLT is knowing when to remove the scaffolding. If the scaffolding is removed prematurely, the learning process will 'collapse'. If it is maintained too long, the learners will not develop the independence required for autonomous language use.

Principle 2: Task dependency

• Within a lesson, one task should grow out of, and build upon, the ones that have gone before. The task dependency principle is illustrated in the instructional sequence above which shows how each task exploits and builds on the one that has gone before.

Principle 3: Recycling

• Recycling language maximizes opportunities for learning and activates the 'organic' learning principle. An analytical approach to pedagogy is based on the assumption that learning is not an all-or-nothing process, that mastery learning is a misconception, and that learning is piecemeal and inherently unstable. If it is accepted that learners will not achieve one hundred per cent mastery the first time they encounter a particular linguistic item, then it follows that they need to be reintroduced to that item over a period of time

Principle 4: Active learning

• Learners learn best by actively using the language they are learning. In Chapter 1, I gave a brief introduction to the concept of experiential learning. A key principle behind this concept is that learners learn best through doing – through actively constructing their own knowledge rather than having it transmitted to them by the teacher. When applied to language teaching, this suggests that most class time should be devoted to opportunities for learners to use the language.

Principle 5: Integration

• Learners should be taught in ways that make clear the relationships between linguistic form, communicative function and semantic meaning. Until fairly recently, most approaches to language teaching

were based on a synthetic approach in which the linguistic elements – the grammatical, lexical and phonological components – were taught separately. This approach was challenged in the 1980s by proponents of early versions of communicative language teaching who argued that a focus on form was unnecessary, and that all learners needed in order to acquire a language were opportunities to communicate in the language.

Principle 6: Reproduction to creation

• Learners should be encouraged to move from reproductive to creative language use. In reproductive tasks, learners reproduce language models provided by the teacher, the textbook or the tape. These tasks are designed to give learners mastery of form, meaning and function, and are intended to provide a basis for creative tasks. In creative tasks, learners are recombining familiar elements in novel ways. This principle can be deployed not only with students who are at intermediate levels and above but also with beginners if the instructional process is carefully sequenced.

Principle 7: Reflection

• Learners should be given opportunities to reflect on what they have learned and how well they are doing. Becoming a reflective learner is part of learner training where the focus shifts from language content to learning processes. Strictly speaking, learning-how-to-learn does not have a more privileged place in one particular approach to pedagogy than in any other. However, I feel this reflective element has a particular affinity with task-based language teaching. TBLT introduces learners to a broad array of pedagogical undertakings, each of which is underpinned by at least one strategy. Research suggests that learners who are aware of the strategies driving their learning will be better learners. Additionally, for learners who have done most of their learning in 'traditional' classrooms, TBLT can be mystifying and even alienating, leading them to ask, 'Why are we doing this?' Adding a reflective element to teaching can help learners see the rationale for the new approach.

Conclusion The main aim of this chapter has been to develop a framework for transforming target or real-world tasks into pedagogical tasks. I devoted the first part of the chapter to a description and exemplification of the various elements that go in to a curriculum in which the task is the basic organizing principle. This was followed by a section that sets out a procedure for integrating other elements including functions and structures. I then provided a detailed example of how an instructional sequence, integrating all of these elements, can be put together. The chapter concluded with a summary of the principles underlying the instructional sequence. In the next chapter, we will look at the core components that go to make up a task, including goals, input data, procedures, teacher and learner roles and task settings.

Theme 4 General characteristics of a good teacher. What makes a good language teacher?

Before focusing on the characteristics of an ideal language teacher, let's shed some light on the definitions of the terms such as effective, effective learner and effective teacher in some degree. The concept of "effective" is perceived and interpreted differently by various researchers in different fields such as education, medicine, science and law. In spite of different perceptions on effectiveness, what these fields agree is the dictionary definition of effective which means being successful in producing a desired or intended result (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2006). Therefore, an effective learner is closely related with successful learner who sets and accomplishes his own goals (Karen, 2001). As it is difficult to define the concept "effective", it is also hard to reply the question what means an effective teacher in one sense as there are lots of definitions which totally or partially are true from their own perspectives (e.g. Cruickshank, Bainer and Metcalf, 1999; Koutsoulis, 2003; Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher and James, 2002; Witcher, Onwuegbuzie and Minor, 2001). Every definition on the effectiveness of teacher only looks at the bigger picture from one of hundreds of windows. The definitions of the terms indispensably include the personal, experiential, socioeconomic, cultural and field based aspects of the person who defines them. Considering these diversities in definitions, it is almost difficult to find a common definition which suits all worldwide teaching contexts such as primary school, high school, university. In addition, as the effectiveness is an elusive concept, instead of giving an exact definition, most studies focus on the characteristics of effective teachers by working on learners from different educational contexts such high school students (e.g. Follman, 1995), prospective students (e.g. Walls, Nardi, Minden and Hoffman, 2002), graduate students (e.g. Xiaojun Shi, 2005). However, in general, focusing on the out-put of teaching and education, the effective teacher can be described as someone who should lead higher student achievement and long-lasting learning. (Cruickshank and Haefele, 2001). When it comes to the concept of effective English langauage teacher, it is natural for theteacher to possess unique characteristics of the field as well as the general features of an effective teacher (Steinberg and Horvath, 1995). Uniqueness of the subject is not supposed to define and determine the attributes of the English language teacher. There is still no consensus on the determinants; therefore,an effective English language teacher has numerous definitions and determinants in terms of different perspectives such as affective factors, classroom management, and field knowledge. On this issue, the studies of Arıkan, Taşer and Saraç-Süzer (2008), Brosh (1996), Brown (1978), Sanderson (1983), Wei, den Brok and Zhou (2009) can be given as examples.

While Brown (1978) draws attention to an effective language teacher in terms of affective factors, and suggests that a good language teacher is someone who empathizes with his students, insures the presence of meaningful communicative contexts in classroom and encourages students' self-esteem, Sanderson (1993) focuses just on pedagogic and field knowledge of the teacher; and delineates a good language teacher who uses the target language predominantly, has clear and good pronunciation, stress and intonation, gets students involved in activities and is flexible with regard to objectives.

 By contributing to this diversity, Brosh (1996) determines the attributes considering the viewpoint of communication and says that as students' accomplishment of their educational aims are correlated with the effectiveness of the communication, language teacher as a communicator should have clear ideas and concepts about his subject matter knowledge not to block the student-teacher relationship. In their study on the discrepancy between preferred and actual English language teacher from a theoretical framework investigating perceived interpersonal teacher behaviors, Wei at al. (2009) reached the conclusion that the tolerant-authoritative profile is the most common interpersonal teacher profile in Chinese context. The results of the study revealed that tolerant-authoritative English language teacher supports student responsibility and freedom, frequently organizes their lessons around small group work activities and develops closer relationships with their students.

Four Main Characteristics of an Effective English Language Teacher

In this section, mostly cited four main features related to an effective English language teacher will be mentioned namely; socio-affective, pedagogical knowledge, subject-matter knowledge and personality characteristics.

Socio-Affective Skills As in all other fields, it is crucial that teachers have some basic socio-affective skills to interact with their students and maintain the educational process effectively. These skills include a wide range of items such as motivating students, sparing time for students when they ask for help, being enthusiastic for teaching, having positive attitudes towards students, responding to students' needs and

providing a stress-free classroom atmosphere (Cheung, 2006; Shishavan and Sadeghi, 2009). In addition to these aspects, Foote, Vermette, Wisniewski, Agnello, and Pegano (2000, cited in Wichadee, 2010) also state that the relationship between teachers and students is one of the most striking features. In their study, Arikan, Taşer and Saraç-Süzer (2008) also highlight the importance of establishing and maintaining positive relationships with students. Besides, when trying to find similarities and differences between his study and the existing literature, Borg (2006) maintains the significance of the relationship between the members of the process. According to his study, the socio-affective skills enable teachers to establish good rapport with their students as well as maintaining th process of education more effectively and successfully. Another crucial point is what students experience, how they feel and how to approach their related problems in the process of teaching and learning.

Feelings such as anxiety and fear, and other negative emotions are natural and expected parts of this process. Therefore, what is important for teachers is to create an environment in which their students can concentrate on learning in both cognitive and emotional levels. Moreover, socio-affective skills provide teachers with the opportunity to deal with what their students feel and experience in their learning process (Aydın, Bayram, Canıdar, Çetin, Ergünay, Özdem and Tunç, 2009). In other words, in order to be effective, teachers should combine their behavior with both their minds and emotions.

Pedagogical Knowledge

In order to conduct any kind of job properly, one should have the knowledge of how to do it. S/he should be aware of the procedures and the strategies to follow in the process, which is pedagogical knowledge. In his study, Vélez-Rendón (2002, as cited in Aydın et al., 2009) defines pedagogical knowledge as what teachers know about teaching their subjects. He also claims that without pedagogical knowledge teachers cannot convey what they know to their learners. The results of the study conducted by Aydın et al. (2009) show that students prefer their teacher to have the knowledge of how to teach in order to deal with the affective

domain. To deliver the content in the best way, an effective teacher needs both field specific knowledge and knowledge of how to present it (Brophy, 1991, cited in Aydın et al., 2009). Furthermore, Clark and Walsh (2004) emphasize the significance of pedagogical knowledge by claiming that it is a sophisticated form of knowledge hard to obtain, and not available to everyone that seeks it. Different studies refer to numerous dimensions of pedagogical knowledge such as providing students with an environment in which they can be relaxed in order to learn and produce well, guiding students, having the ability to organize, explain and clarify, as well as arousing and sustaining interest, motivating students, giving positive reinforcement, allocating more time to preparation and delivery, and teaching with effective classroom materials by integrating technology

Subject-Matter Knowledge

Another main area that attracts attention is the subject-matter knowledge which teachers should possess regarding their specific field. To make a general definition of this notion, Vélez-Rendón (2002, cited in Aydın et al, 2009) regards the subject matter knowledge as what teachers know about what they teach. Another study pointing out the significance of this knowledge type (Buchman 1984, cited in Aydın et al, in 2009) suggests the use of subject matter knowledge in different phases of the educational process such as using target language effectively in class, integrating lessons based on students' backgrounds and preparing effective lesson plans. In addition to these items, different studies contribute to the notion of the subject matter knowledge from different perspectives ranging from having knowledge of the target language knowledge concerning fluency, accuracy, lexicon and pronunciation to being knowledgeable on target culture (Borg, 2006; Park and Lee, 2006; Werbinska, 2009).

Personality Characteristics

People who work in any profession indispensably bring their personal characteristics in the working environment. This is also valid for teachers who not only are human beings but also deal with human. Therefore, in addition to the subject-matter knowledge or the pedagogical knowledge, teachers are also supposed to have some essential personal characteristics to teach effectively and to be successful in their profession. Malikow (2006) lists the personality characteristics most often cited by the studies conducted on what personal qualities an effective teacher should have as follows: being challenging and having reasonably high expectations, having sense of humor, being enthusiastic and creative. To this list, other studieshave added being tolerant, patient, kind, sensible and open-minded, flexible, optimistic, enthusiastic, having positive attitudes toward new ideas, and caring for students as characteristics necessary for being an effective teacher (Cheung, 2006; Shishavan and Sadeghi, 2009; Werbinska, 2009). Clark and Walsh (2004) suggest that when teachers combine all of these expected characteristics in the profession, they can end up with a trusting relationship with their students.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Theme 5. Second Language Listening

2. INTRODUCTION Nunan (1997) calls the listening skill as the 'Cinderella Skill' which is overlooked by its elder sister speaking in language learning. Listening received little attention in language teaching and learning, because teaching methods emphasized productive skills and listening was characterized as passive activity (Richards&Renandya, 2010). However, researchers have revealed that listening is not a passive skill but an active process of constructing meaning from a stream of sounds. Listening can be considered the fundamental skill to speaking, because without understanding the input at the right level, any learning cannot begin. Some various definitions of listening are presented below to highlight its different aspects. Listening is the process of receiving, constructing meaning from and responding to spoken and/or non-verbal messages (Brownell, 2002).

Listening is an active, purposeful process of making sense of what we hear (Helgesen, 2003). Listening comprehension is a highly complex problem-solving activity that can be broken down into a set of distinct sub-skills (Byrnes, 1984). Listening is an active and interactional process in which a listener receives speech sounds and tries to attach meaning to the spoken words.

The listener tries to understand the intended message of the oral text to respond effectively to oral communication. Listening and hearing are considered different process. While hearing is considered as physical, passive and natural process, listening is physical & mental, active and learnt process and is defined as a skill. Although listeners can understand messages presented at a rate of 380 words per minute, an average person speaks at a rate of about 150 words per minute. The following table shows the percentage of the use of language skills with formal years of training in daily life.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE More than a century ago, as a dominant method of language teaching, grammar translation gave no importance to listening skill, because the aim was to read and translate scientific texts from target language (mostly Latin) to native language. Then, there was a paradigm shift from written language to oral skills with the emerge of the Direct Method. In the second half of the 20th century, Audio Lingual Method emphasized the importance of listening skill and gave priority to oral proficiency. There were abundant use of language laboratories, tapes and cassettes to achieve nativelike pronunciation.

During 70s, alternative methods were proposed by various researchers, listening skill was given prominence as the common characteristics of these methods. According to Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985), learners could learn best by exposure to comprehensible input which was slightly beyond their current level competence. Krashen (1985) pointed out that second language learning was similar to first language acquisition, thus listening was the first step on the way to language proficiency. Similarly, in his Total Physical Response, Asher (1977) stated that oral language was primary to written language and listening comprehension should precede speech production. He also emphasized that learners were supposed to listen and obey the orders given by the instructor through actions.

In Communicative Language Teaching, language teaching was based on a view of language as communication and listening was the most prevailing part of daily life communication. In communicative context, four language skills were taught in an integrated way, supporting one after another. Listening was primarily used as a prompter or a first step before productive skills. In content-based instruction, listening and speaking were practiced in an integrated way such as viewing and discussion of a film and performing an interview. As from task-based language teaching, tasks provide both the oral and written input and output processing for language acquisition. In the light of this shift, now listening plays an important role in language classroom. The current developments in both visual and audio technology enrich the varieties of listening materials and help to draw particularly young learners' attention and motivate them better to reach the learning objectives.

WHAT MAKES A GOOD LISTENING TEXT? Listening comprehension is an extremely important part of a language learning phenomenon. Second language acquisition (SLA) studies have illustrated that comprehensible output and input are crucial for the acquisition of a language (Swain, 1995). Therefore, we need to question the properties of a good listening text for language learning classes. There are various factors affecting a listening text's quality but, in common, we can divide the quality of a text into two categories: "content" and "delivery". As from "content", the listening text should, firstly, be interesting for audiences.

It is important to know your target students' profiles because what interests one group of learners may seem dull for another group. In a listening class, pre-task activities actually serve the aim of arousing interest in students before the main activity. Apart from this, cultural accessibility is a crucial factor too. Learning about

a new culture is beneficial for improving inter-cultural competence (Wilson, 2008) but if the aim is to understand a listening text, then any possible culturally based meanings in the text should be understandable for the target group.

Density of the listening text also influences the listening text quality. If the text includes repetition of key terms, words and phrases, it will be less demanding for listeners. In addition, the more complex grammatical structures the text includes, the more demanding it will be for listeners. In addition to content, how you present the material is equally important. In terms of "delivery", important factors include length, quality of the material, accent and the method of delivery. The listening text should be delivered in a non-distractive manner that is suitable for the target group of learners (Wilson, 2008).

AUTHENTIC VERSUS NON-AUTHENTIC LISTENING MATERIALS
In the selection of the right listening material for language classrooms, the distinction between authentic and pedagogic materials should be highlighted. They both have advantages and disadvantages depending on your target group and the aim of the activity. Authentic materials can be texts which are prepared by native speakers and are not originally intended as language learning materials (Bacon, 1992; Joiner, 1991; Joiner et al., 1989; Scarcella& Oxford, 1992). Authentic materials can often include more unfamiliar use of language, and mostly, it can be difficult for learners to cope with. If the teacher wants to use authentic material, he/she should write a lesson plan based on the material and find appropriate supporting materials. Richards (2006) also states three advantages of integrating authentic materials in a classroom environment: (i) the culture of the target language is introduced, (ii) the use of real language is shown, and (iii) a more creative way of teaching is achieved.

LISTENING SOURCES Comparing listening in one's native language, listening in a foreign language is a more challenging task: "How well L2 listeners cope with these limitations will depend on their ability to

make use of all the available resources to interpret what they hear" (Vandergrift, 2007, p. 193). Therefore, in a listening phenomenon, the use of appropriate listening sources has a crucial effect in comprehension. Various listening sources can be used in a language classroom.

These are *teacher talk, student talk, guest speakers, textbook recordings, TV, video, DVD, radio, songs and the internet (Wilson,2008).* Teacher talk is valuable input for learners of a foreign language. The teacher can regulate the pace of speaking according to the students' level and interest, repeat important parts and change the input as desired. Teacher talk can also be evaluated in terms of its quality. It should be clear, coherent and interesting for listeners.

Teacher talk should be interactive in a way that students can ask questions and get an answer, which facilitates and supports student talk. Another way of exposing students to an authentic conversation is inviting guest speakers to the classroom, which provides learners a chance to interact in a more authentic way. Technological improvements have increased the types of listening resources in recent years. Both teachers and students can access listening materials easily via the internet.

The computer and interactive technologies allow teachers to select materials of all kinds, support them as learners' needs dictate, and use the visual options of screen presentation or the interactive capabilities of computer controls to help students develop good listening techniques (Garrett, 1991, p. 95).

. MACRO AND MICRO LISTENING SKILLS In most language classrooms, the listening process is skipped at the expense of listening outcome (Rezaei & Fatimah Hashim, 2013). Macro and micro listening skills can help to achieve listening awareness. Vandergrift &Tafaghodtari (2010) state that metalinguistic awareness and explicit teaching are crucial parts of listening comprehension tasks. Brown (2007) offers a simplified list of micro-skills and macro-skills for conversational listening, The macro-skills isolate those skills that relate to the discourse level of organization, while those that remain at sentence level continue to be called microskills.

Brown's (2007) listening comprehension micro-skills for conversational discourse are as follows.
1. Retain chunks of language of different lengths in short-term memory.
2. Discriminate among the distinctive sounds of English.
3. Recognize English stress patterns, words in stressed and unstressed positions. rhythmic structure, intonational contours, and their role in signaling information.
4. Recognize reduced forms of words.
5. Distinguish word boundaries, recognize a core of words, and interpret word order patterns and their significance.
6. Process speech containing pauses, errors, corrections, and other performance variables.
7. Process speech at different rates of delivery.
8. Recognize grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.), systems (e.g., tense, agreement, pluralization), patterns, rules, and elliptical forms.

9. Detect sentence constituents and distinguish between major and minor constituents.

10. Recognize that a particular meaning may be expressed in different grammatical forms" (p. 308).

Brown's (2007) macro-skills for conversational discourse are:

1. "Recognize cohesive devices in spoken discourse.

2. Recognize the communicative functions of utterances, according to situations, participants, goals.

3. Infer situations, participants, goals using real-world knowledge (pragmatic competence).

4. From events, ideas, etc., describe, predict outcomes, infer links and connections between events, deduce causes and effects, and detect such relations such as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification.

5. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings.

6. Use facial, kinetic, body language, and other nonverbal cues to decipher meanings.

7. Develop and use a battery of listening strategies, such as detecting key words, guessing the meaning of words from context, appealing for help, and signaling comprehension or lack thereof" (p. 308).

LISTENING SUB-SKILLS

There are various types of listening sub-skills to help listeners make sense of the listening text. Most commonly used listening sub-skills in language classrooms are:

Listening for-gist: listening to get a general idea

Listening for specific information: listening just to get a specific piece of information

Listening in detail:

listening to every detail, and try to understand as much as possible

Listening to infer: listening to understand how listeners feel

Listening to questions and responding: listening to answer questions

APPROACHES TO LISTENING: BOTTOM-UP AND TOP-DOWN The bottom-up and top-down concepts originated from computer science before being adopted by the field of linguistics. In computer science, bottom-up means "data-driven" and top-down means "knowledge-driven" (Field,1999). The cognitive process of listening and reading in the target language indicates bottom-up and top-down processes in SLA (Clement, 2007). If listeners use linguistic knowledge clues such as phonemes, syllables, words, phrases and sentences to understand, it means that they use a bottom-up strategy. However, if they use context and prior knowledge such as topic, genre, culture and other schema knowledge stored in longterm memory to decide the meaning, they use a top-down strategy. During a listening process, a combination of the two processes is used to make the text sensible for the listener. Thus, it is generally accepted that top-down and bottom-up processes are utilized together during the listening process (Vandergrift, 2007). Nevertheless, the aim of listening determines the priority. To illustrate the point, think about the two situations given below:

You are chatting with your friend, and she tells you a story about an exam that she failed. You listen to your friend to say something that will console her.

One evening, a friend of yours calls and invites you to her birthday party. You carefully take note of the address, time and day of the activity.

Other Top-down Listening Activities Wilson (2003) states that learners use top-down processing to make up for their insufficient knowledge when they listen to a text where they have no prior knowledge about the topic. For example, by showing some relevant pictures or giving some key words before the listening activity, teachers can stimulate top-down process. Thus, learners can use their prior knowledge to compensate the unknown vocabulary. Other examples of top-down listening activities, giving a series of pictures or a sequence of events, or predicting the relationship between the people in the listening text.

Other Bottom-up Listening Activities Paying attention to linguistic features and decoding each sound and word for semantic meaning requires the use of bottom-up listening process (Siegel, 2011). Clement (2007) explains in detail how a learner makes sense of a newly encountered word by giving the example of the word "founder". She states that the learners call to mind words that sound similar like "found, fan" at the time they hear the first letter of the word. As the next sounds are activated, some of the words that do not match are sifted out. As the word found and founder will be activated till the –er sound is realized, it will take some time to isolate the word "founder". Field (1999) asserts that this process takes no more than 25 seconds. As an example of bottom-up strategy, a dictogloss, which helps learners to notice the divisions between words, can be given. The teacher reads a few sentences and asks students to write down how many words there should be in the written form. The task may sound simple, but weak forms can be problematic for some learners: therefore, the teacher should speak in a natural way. Some example sentences are "She doesn't like it", "I'd better leave soon", "Let's go to cinema" etc

Theme 6. Comprehension: Process and Pedagogy Dimensions of Academic Listening

STAGES IN TEACHING LISTENING SKILLS Vandergrift (1999) states that listening sequences improve students' metacognitive abilities, especially in the first two years of language learning. These listening sequences may be divided into three stages as pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening and each of the three stages has its own specific purpose (Underwood, 1989).

While-listening activities are the main activities of the listening tasks. Learners listen to the input and make decisions about the strategy to use according to the requirements of the task. Finally, in post-listening activities, learners discuss and evaluate their strategy choices and their effectiveness. Feedback is provided by selfevaluation and also group discussions (Guan, 2015).

Pre-listening

Pre-listening activities help to hear and give some clues about the activity expectations mostly by activating schemata. Imagine that you enter the classroom a little bit late and you see that the teacher has already started lecturing. Most probably, it will be difficult for you to grasp the topic and understand what is going on. Why do you think this happens? As you do not know the context and you do not have any prior knowledge about the context, the context will initially be inaccessible. Consequently, pre-listening activities serve the goal of ensuring students know what they need to know before they listen. Listeners need to know things like the speaker's way of talking, the length of the text, the listener's role, information about the topic, specialized vocabulary, and the relationship between listener and speaker (Wilson, 2008). A study conducted by Zohrabi et al. (2015) states that learners who are exposed to pre-listening activities performed better than those who did not take pre-listening activities. They also assert that pre-listening tasks are effective for students in understanding authentic English movies.

Pre-listening activities activate the schemata and help students to predict what they will hear. Activating schemata means activating students' prior knowledge. Activities to activate learners' schemata might include brainstorming, visuals, realia, text and words, situations and opinions, ideas and facts. Brainstorming activities aim to produce ideas based on a topic or a problem. Brainstorming can be realized via a poster display in which students prepare a poster based on a given topic, brainwalking in which they walk around the classroom and enlarge the ideas collaboratively, boardwriting, in which they work in groups and they brainstorm about the same topic or a different one, and from one to many in which students work individually, take notes and then share the ideas with the group (Wilson, 2008).

Besides brainstorming activities, visuals are also effective for pre-listening activities. There is an axiom saying "a picture is worth a thousand words. For example, a picture can be shown to students and they can predict the ongoing. Alternatively, a sequence of pictures can be given to students and they can tell a story related to the picture sequence. Using realia is also helpful in activating schemata. For example a photo, a map, a brochure or any other object related to the listening text make students activate their prior knowledge and help them better understand the listening (Wilson, 2008).

Things to avoid during the pre-listening stage.

O A pre-listening task should not be too long. It should be precise and clear.

O The activity should not give too much information about the listening text. It should just introduce the topic.

O The teacher should not talk too much: he or she should let the students talk and share their ideas.

O A pre-listening activity topic should not be too general and unrelated to the listening text (Wilson, 2008).

While-Listening While-listening activities are directly related to the listening text and students perform the task either during the listening process or immediately after the listening. Therefore, the teacher needs to match the activities to the instructional goal, the listening purpose, and the students' proficiency level. Underwood (1989) explains the goal of while-listening tasks as being something that helps the learners understand the messages of the listening text. She also gives some specific examples of whilelistening activities: -*"making/checking items in pictures -Which picture? -storyline picture sets -putting pictures in order -true/false -form/chart completion -completing grids -predicting -carrying out actions -multiple choice completion" (p. 49-72)*.

Well-designed while-listening activities help students to understand the listening text, to give clues about how to respond, to provide a focus, to indicate the important parts while listening, to keep listeners alert and to permit them to understand the text's structure (Wilson, 2008). An example to while-listening activity is "bingo". This activity is especially enjoyable for young learners. In this task the teacher writes a list of words on the board, which are included in the listening text. The students individually select and write seven words on a piece of paper. Then, they listen to the passage and put a tick on that specific word when

the word is heard. When all the words are ticked, they shout "bingo". It is a good activity for selective listening even if it hinders listening extensively (Wilson, 2008).

Post-Listening

In the post-listening stage, students work in detail applying both top-down and bottomup strategies to link up the classroom activities and their real lives (Wilson,2008). Underwood (1989) describes the post-listening task as an activity that is realized after the listening, merging all the work performed. Post-listening tasks may be directly related to the pre- and while-listening activities or they can just be loosely related to these activities. She also asserts that post-listening tasks require more time than the other tasks because students deal with thinking, discussing, reflecting and writing processes. It can be named as the more reflective part of the lesson.

"Checking and summarizing" is one activity type that can be performed as postlistening task. In this activity, first the teacher puts students into small groups to lower individual speaking anxiety. The teacher's role, here, is to monitor students and to stimulate them by attracting their attention to the related and interesting points. Then, they share their ideas as a class and then students can summarize the important parts. Other types of post-listening activities are discussions, creative responses, critical responses, information exchanges, problem solving, deconstructing the listening text and reconstructing the listening text (Wilson, 2008).

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Theme: 7 Assessing listening skills.

DESIGNING ASSESSMENT TASKS: INTENSIVE LISTENING
Once you have determined objectives, your next step is to design the tasks, including making decisions about how you will elicit performance and how you will expect the test-taker to respond. We will look at tasks that range from intensive lis•tening performance, such as minimal phonemic pair recognition, to extensive com•prehension of language in communicative contexts. The focus in this section is on the microskills o f intensive listening.

Recognizing P honological and Morphological Elements
A typical form o f intensive listening at this level is the assessment o f recognition of phonological and morphological elements o f language. A classic test task gives a spoken stimulus and asks test-takers to identify the stimulus from two or more choices, as in the following two examples:

Phonemic pair; consonants [L, R]
Test-takers hear: He's from California.
Test-takers read: A. He's from California.
B. She's from California.

Phonemic pair, vowels [L, R]
Test-takers hear: Is he living?
Test-takers read: A. Is he leaving?
B. Is he living?

In both cases above, minimal phonemic distinctions are the target. If you are testing recognition o f morphology, you can use the same format:

Morphological pair, -ed ending [L, R]
Test-takers hear: I missed you very much.
Test-takers read: A. I missed you very much.
B. I miss you very much.

Hearing the past-tense morpheme in this sentence challenges even advanced learners, especially if no context is provided. Stressed and unstressed words may also be tested with the same rubric. In the following example, the reduced form (contraction) o f cannotis tested:

Stress pattern in can't [L, R]
Test-takers hear: My girlfriend can't go to the party.
Test-takers read: A. My girlfriend can't go to the party.
B. My girlfriend can go to the party.

Because they are decontextualized, these kinds of tasks leave something to be desired in their authenticity. But they are a step better than items that simply pro•vide a one-word stimulus:

One-word stimulus [L, R]
Test-takers hear: vine
Test-takers read: A. vine
B. wine

Paraphrase Recognition
The next step up on the scale of listening comprehension microskills is words, phrases, and sentences, which are frequently assessed by providing a stimulus sentence and asking the test-taker to choose the correct paraphrase from a number of choices:

Sentence paraphrase [L, R]
Test-takers hear: Hello, my name's Keiko. I come from Japan. f
Test-takers read: A. Keiko is comfortable in Japan.
B. Keiko wants to come to Japan.
C. Keiko is Japanese.
D. Keiko likes Japan.

In the above item, the idiomatic come fro m is the phrase being tested. To add a little context, a conversation can be the stimulus task to which test-takers must respond with the correct paraphrase:

Dialogue paraphrase [L, R]
Test-takers hear: Man: Hi, Maria, my name's George.

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Woman: Nice to meet you, George. Are you American?
Man: No, I'm Canadian.
Test-takers read: A. George lives in the United States.
B. George is American.
C. George comes from Canada.
D. Maria is Canadian.

DESIGNING ASSESSMENT TASKS: RESPONSIVE LISTENING

A question-and-answer format can provide some interactivity in these lower-end listening tasks. The test-taker's response is the appropriate answer to a question:

Appropriate response to a question [L, R]
Test-takers hear: How much time did you take to do your homework?
Test-takers read: A. In about an hour.
B. About an hour.
C. About $10.
D. Yes, I did.

The objective of this item is recognition of the wh-question "how much?" and
its appropriate response. Distractors are chosen to represent common learner errors: in distractor A, responding to "how much" versus "how much longer"; in distractor C, confusing "how much" in reference to time versus the more frequent reference to money; and in distractor D, confusing a wh-question with a yes/no question. None o f the tasks so far discussed have to be framed in a multiple-choice format. They can be offered in a more open-ended framework in which test-takers write or speak the response. The above item would then look like this

Open-ended response to a question [L, S, W]
Test-takers hear: How much time did you take to do your homework?
Test-takers write or speak: _____

If open-ended response formats gain a small amount o f authenticity and creativity, they o f course suffer some in their practicality, as teachers must then read students' responses and judge their appropriateness, which takes time.

DESIGNING ASSESSMENT TASKS: SELECTIVE LISTENING

A third type o f listening performance is selectiv e listening, in which the test-taker listens to a limited quantity of aural input and must discern within it some specific information. A number of techniques have been used that require selective listening.

Listening Cloze

Listening clo ze tasks (sometimes called cloze d ictatio n s or p a rtia l d ictatio n s)require the test-taker to listen to a story, monologue, or conversation and simul•taneously read the written text in which selected words or phrases have been deleted. Cloze procedure is most commonly associated with reading only
In its generic form, the test consists o f a passage in which every nth word (typically every seventh word) is deleted and the test-taker is asked to supply an appropriate word. In a listening cloze task, test-takers see a transcript o f the passage they are listening to and fill in the blanks with the words or phrases that they hear.

One potential weakness o f listening cloze techniques is that they may simply becom e reading comprehension tasks. Test-takers who are asked to listen to a story with periodic deletions in the written version may not need to listen at all yet may still be able to respond with the appropriate word or phrase. You can guard against this eventuality if the blanks are items with high information load that cannot be easily predicted simply by reading the passage. In the example below (adapted from Bailey, 1998, p. 16), such a shortcoming was avoided by focusing only on the criterion o f numbers. Test-takers hear an announcement from an airline agent and see the transcript with the underlined words deleted:

Listening cloze [L, R, W]
Test-takers hear:
Ladies and gentlemen, I now have some connecting gate information for those of you
making connections to other flights out of San Francisco.
Test-takers read the sentences and write the missing words or phrases in the blanks.
Flight seven-oh-six to Portland will depart from gate seventy-three at nine-thirty p . m.
Flight ten-forty-five to Reno will depart at nine-fifty p . m. from gate seventeen.
Flight four-forty to Monterey will depart at nine-thirty-five p . m. from gate sixty.
And flight sixteen-oh-three to Sacramento will depart from gate nineteen at
ten-fifteen p . m

Information Transfer

Selective listening can also be assessed through an in fo rm atio n tra n sfe r tech•nique in which aurally processed information must be transferred to a visual representation, such as labeling a diagram, identifying an element in a picture, completing a form, or showing routes on a map.

At the lower end o f the scale o f linguistic complexity, simple pictu re-cu editem s are sometimes efficient rubrics for assessing certain selected information.

Consider the following item:

Information transfer: multiple-picture-cued selection [L]

Test-takers hear:

Choose the correct picture. In my backyard i have a bird feeder. Yesterday, there were two birds and a squirrel fighting for the last few seeds in the bird feeder. The squirrel was on top of the bird feeder while the larger bird sat at the bottom of the feeder screeching at the squirrel. The smaller bird was flying around the squirrel, trying to scare it away.

Test-takers see:
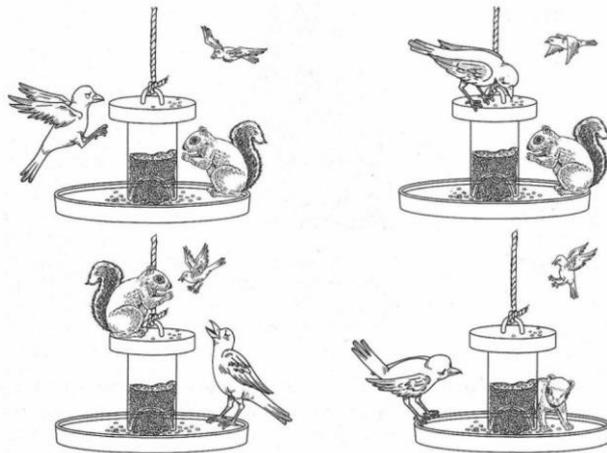
The preceding example illustrates the need for test-takers to focus on just the relevant information. The objective o f this task is to test prepositions and prepositional phrases o f location ("at the bottom," "on top of," "around," along with "larger," "smaller"), so other words and phrases such as "backyard," "yesterday," "last few seeds", and "scare away" are supplied only as context and need not be tested. (The task also presupposes, of course, that test-takers are able to identify the difference between a bird and a squirrel!)

In another genre o f picture-cued tasks, a number o f people and/or actions are presented in one picture, such as a group of people at a party. Assuming that all the items, people, and actions are clearly depicted and understood by the test-taker, assessment may take the form of

• *questions: "Is the tall man near the door talking to a short woman?"*

• *true/false: "The woman wearing a red skirt is watching TV"*

• *identification: "Point to the person who is standing behind the lamp." "Draw a circle around the person to the left of the couch.*

  Information transfer tasks may reflect greater authenticity by using charts, maps, grids, timetables, and other artifacts o f daily life. In the example on the next page, test-takers hear a student's daily schedule, and the task is to fill in the partially completed weekly calendar.

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Theme 8-9 Second Language Teaching Speaking skills.Assessing speaking skills

8 - Teaching speaking

Content:

1. **Teaching Speaking: General background**
   1.1.Suggestions for teachers in teaching speaking
   1.2.Important Considerations for Teaching ESL Students

2. **Strategies for Getting ESL Students to Speak**

3. **13 Ideas for ESL Speaking Activities**

4. **Assessing speaking**

5. **Speaking Assessment Criteria and Level Descriptors**

1. **Teaching Speaking: General background**

Speaking is "the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts" (Chaney, 1998, p. 13). Speaking is a crucial part of second language learning and teaching. Despite its importance, for many years, teaching speaking has been undervalued and English language teachers have continued to teach speaking just as a repetition of drills or memorization of dialogues. However, today's world requires that the goal of teaching speaking should improve students' communicative skills, because, only in that way, students can express themselves and learn how to follow the social and cultural rules appropriate in each communicative circumstance. In order to teach second language learners how to speak in the best way possible, some speaking activities are provided below, that can be applied to ESL and EFL classroom settings, together with suggestions for teachers who teach oral language.

What is meant by "teaching speaking" is to teach ESL learners to:

- Produce the English speech sounds and sound patterns
- Use word and sentence stress, intonation patterns and the rhythm of the second language.
- Select appropriate words and sentences according to the proper social setting, audience, situation and subject matter.
- Organize their thoughts in a meaningful and logical sequence.
- Use language as a means of expressing values and judgments.
- Use the language quickly and confidently with few unnatural pauses, which is called as fluency. (Nunan, 2003)

Now many linguistics and ESL teachers agree on that students learn to speak in the second language by "interacting". Communicative language teaching and collaborative learning serve best for this aim. Communicative language teaching is based on real-life situations that require communication. By using this method in ESL classes, students will have the opportunity of communicating with each other in the target language. In brief, ESL teachers should create a classroom environment where students have real-life communication, authentic activities, and meaningful tasks that promote oral language. This can occur when students collaborate in groups to achieve a goal or to complete a task.

1.1. Suggestions for teachers in teaching speaking

Here are some suggestions for English language teachers while teaching oral language:

- Provide maximum opportunity to students to speak the target language by providing a rich environment that contains collaborative work, authentic materials and tasks, and shared knowledge.

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- Try to involve each student in every speaking activity; for this aim, practice different ways of student participation.
- Reduce teacher speaking time in class while increasing student speaking time. Step back and observe students.
- Indicate positive signs when commenting on a student's response.
- Ask eliciting questions such as "What do you mean? How did you reach that conclusion?" in order to prompt students to speak more.
- Provide written feedback like "Your presentation was really great. It was a good job. I really appreciated your efforts in preparing the materials and efficient use of your voice…"
- Do not correct students' pronunciation mistakes very often while they are speaking. Correction should not distract student from his or her speech.
- Involve speaking activities not only in class but also out of class; contact parents and other people who can help.
- Circulate around classroom to ensure that students are on the right track and see whether they need your help while they work in groups or pairs.
- Provide the vocabulary beforehand that students need in speaking activities.
- Diagnose problems faced by students who have difficulty in expressing themselves in the target language and provide more opportunities to practice the spoken language.

Teaching speaking is a very important part of second language learning. The ability to communicate in a second language clearly and efficiently contributes to the success of the learner in school and success later in every phase of life. Therefore, it is essential that language teachers pay great attention to teaching speaking. Rather than leading students to pure memorization, providing a rich environment where meaningful communication takes place is desired. With this aim, various speaking activities such as those listed above can contribute a great deal to students in developing basic interactive skills necessary for life. These activities make students more active in the learning process and at the same time make their learning more meaningful and fun for them.

1.2. Important Considerations for Teaching ESL Students

If you're teaching a class overseas (rather than a class with mixed nationalities in your home country), you need to be aware of local sensitivities, especially to appropriateness in mixed gender situations.

- While your school may have considered it acceptable to have men and women learning in the same room, you should notice if students have a strong tendency to sit separately based on gender. When you indiscriminately ask them to pair off, you may observe signs of discomfort or even distress in some students.
- Sometimes you may notice that the class is silent and attentive when a male student is talking, but students fidget and become talkative when a female student takes her turn at the front.

What can you do about it?

- If they have sufficient language skills, you could open up a class discussion about it.
- Be flexible when arranging the class, without necessarily letting them become lazy and work with their same favorite partners every time.

There are a few other things to consider about teaching ESL to adult students:

- Just because they're of a mature age doesn't mean that they necessarily have advanced language skills.
- If they're struggling, it may mean that they've forgotten language lessons from earlier school days—we refer to students who have studied English before and later forgotten "false beginners."
- Try not to always link reading skills too closely to speaking skills, because they may be having difficulties with the reading.
- They may actually be illiterate (especially if they're refugees).
- They may be literate in a different script but are struggling with English script.
- They may have a difficulty such as dyslexia.

No matter the unique challenges facing each adult ESL student, with the right motivation, encouragement

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and direction they can still learn to improve their English speaking skills.

2.   **Strategies for Getting ESL Students to Speak**

Students need to speak out loud by themselves and not just follow along in their heads while someone else speaks. It isn't good enough for them to only mumble along with the crowd as in a drilling exercise.

Here are some possible **speaking opportunities** that you can provide your students:
- Stand up in front of the class and **speak**. (This is good practice for the speaking part of exams such as IELTS, TOEFL or TOEIC.)
  - Stand up in front of the class with a **partner** and present something together.
- Be part of a group presenting a **drama** or role-play in front of the class.
- Take part in a whole class discussion or **debate.** (Make sure everyone participates. Often the quieter students will sit back and not participate in this.)
- Be involved in **pair work** where every student must talk with a partner.
- Be involved in **small group** discussions where individual students are less likely to get left out.

It's also important to **lay the groundwork** outside of dedicated speaking activities. While young students are often comfortable diving straight into new tasks, adults may want to see it done first and mentally prepare.

3. 13 Ideas for ESL Speaking Activities

1. Short Talks

Create a stack of topic cards for your students, so that each student will have their own card. Each student draws their card, and then you assign them a time limit—this limit may be one minute initially, or maybe three minutes when they have had practice. This is the amount of time that they'll have to speak about their given topic.

Now give the students a good chunk of time to gather their thoughts. You may want to give them anywhere from 5 minutes to half an hour for this preparation stage. You can let them write down three to five sentences on a flashcard to remind them of the direction they'll take in the course of their talk.

To keep listening students focused you could create an instant "Bingo" game. The class is told the topic and asked to write down five words which they might expect to hear (other than common words such as articles, conjunctions and auxiliary verbs). They listen for those words, crossing them off as they hear them and politely raising a hand if they hear all five.

2. Show and Tell

Students can be asked to bring to school an object to show and tell about. This is lots of fun because students will often bring in something that's meaningful to them or which gives them pride. That means they'll have plenty to talk about! Encourage students to ask questions about each other's objects.

Instead of having students bring their own objects, you could provide an object of your own and ask them to try to explain what they think it is and what its purpose is. Another option is to bring in pictures for them to talk about. This could be discussed with a partner or in a group, before presenting ideas in front of the whole class.

Generate a stronger discussion and keep things flowing by asking students open-ended questions.

3. PechaKucha

If your students have laptops (or a computer lab they can use) and are reasonably familiar with presentation software (such as PowerPoint), then all that's left to acquire for this activity is access to an LCD projector.

Students can have a lot of fun speaking while giving a presentation to the class. Using projected images helps to distract some attention away from the speaker and can be helpful for shy students.

The ["PechaKucha" style of presentation](#)* can give added interest with each student being allowed to show 20 slides only for 20 seconds each (the timing being controlled by the software so that the slides change automatically) or whatever time limit you choose. You could make it 10 sides for 15 seconds each, for example.

You could also add rules such as "no more than 3 words on each slide" (or "no words") so that students must really talk and not just read the slides. They need to be given a good amount of time, either at home or in class, to prepare themselves and practice their timing. It can also be prepared and presented in pairs, with each partner speaking for half of the slides.

PechaKucha originated in Tokyo (in 2003). The name means "chitchat."
"Nowadays held in many cities around the world, PechaKucha Nights are informal and fun gatherings where creative people get together and share their ideas, works, thoughts, holiday snaps—just about anything, really."—the PechaKucha 20×20 format.

4. Bingo

Many people think of this game as a listening activity, but it can very quickly become a speaking activity.

There are a number of [ESL websites](#) that will allow you to quickly create a set of Bingo cards containing up to 25 words, phrases or even whole sentences. They'll allow you to make as many unique cards as you need to distribute a different card to each student in class. Each card can contain the same set of words arranged differently, or you can choose to have more or less than 25 items involved.

Rather than having students mark up their cards, you can give them markers (such as stones or sunflower seeds) to place on each square as they recognize it. This way the markers can be removed and the game can be repeated.

For the first round, the teacher should "call" the game. The first student to get five markers in a row in any direction shouts out "Bingo!" Then you should have this student read out every item in their winning row.

The winner is congratulated and then rewarded by becoming the next Caller. This is a great speaking opportunity. Everyone removes their markers and the game starts again. Every expression that's called tends to be repeated quietly by everyone in the room, and by the end of a session everyone can say all of the expressions on the card.

5. Two Texts

This challenging task is great for more capable students and it involves reading. Having texts in front of them can make adult students feel more supported.

Choose two short texts and print them out. Print enough of each text for half of the class. Create a list of simple questions for each text and print out the same quantity.

Divide the class into two groups and hand out the texts. Hang onto the question sheets for later. One group gets one text, the second group gets the other text. The texts can be about related topics (or not).

Group members then read their texts and are free to talk about them within their group, making sure they all understand everything. After 5 minutes or so, take the papers away.

- Each student is paired with someone from the other group. Each student must tell their partner everything

they learned from their text. Then they must listen to (and remember) what the other student tells them about their group's text.

- Students return to their original groups and are given a list of questions about their original text.
- Students are paired again, this time with a *different* person from the other group. Each student must test their partner using the questions about the text which their partner never read and was only told about, and likewise answer questions about the text they were told about.

Another day use two different texts and try this activity again. Students do remarkably better the second time!

6. Running Dictation

This useful activity requires students to use all four language skills—reading, writing, listening, and speaking—and if carefully planned and well-controlled can cause both great excitement and exceptional learning.

Pair students up. Choose who will run and who will write. (At a later stage they could swap tasks.)

Print out some short texts (related to what you're studying) and stick them on a wall away from the desks. You should stick them somewhere out of sight from where the students sit, such as out in the corridor.

There could be several numbered texts, and the students could be asked to collect two or three each. The texts could include blanks which they need to fill later, or they could be asked to put them in order. There are many possibilities here!

The running students run (or power-walk) to their assigned texts, read, remember as much as they can and then return to dictate the text to the writing student. Then they run again. The first pair to finish writing the complete, correct texts wins.

Be careful that you **do not:**
- Let students use their phone cameras to "remember" the text.
- Let "running" students write—they *can* spell words out and tell their partner when they're wrong.
- Let "writing" students go and look at the text (or let "running" students bring it to them).

7. Surveys and Interviews

Becoming competent at asking and answering questions is invaluable in language learning.

In the simplest form of classroom survey practice the teacher hands out ready-made questions—maybe 3 for each student—around a topic that is being studied.

For example, let's say the topic is food. Each student could be given the same questions, or there could be several different sets of questions such as questions about favorite foods, fast foods, breakfasts, restaurants, ethnic foods, home-style cooking, etc.

Then each student partners with several others (however many the teacher requires), one-by-one and asks them the questions on the paper. In each interaction, the student asking the questions will note down the responses from their peers.

At the end of the session students may be asked to stand up and summarize what they found out from their survey.

8. Taboo

In this game, one player has a card listing four words:

- The first word is the secret word. The aim of the game is to get another player to say this word. The student with the card will need to describe this word until another student figures out what the secret word is.
- The other three words are the most obvious words that you might use to explain the secret word. They are all "taboo" and cannot be used in the student's description of the secret word.

This game can be played between two teams. It can also be played between partners.

You can create your own sets of words based on what you've been studying, or you can find sets in your textbook and on the Internet.

9. Discuss and Debate

More mature students can discuss and debate issues with a partner. They can even be told which side of the argument they should each try to promote. This could be a precursor to a full-blown classroom debate. Working with a partner or small group first gives them an opportunity to develop and practice the necessary vocabulary to speak confidently in a larger forum.

10. I Like People

Adults do like to have fun, as long as they aren't made to feel or look stupid. This is a brilliant game for helping them think quickly and speak more fluent English (rather than trying to translate from their native tongue).

1. Students sit on chairs in a circle, leaving a space in the circle for the teacher to stand.

2. First, they're asked to listen to statements that the teacher makes and stand if it applies to them, such as: "I like people who are wearing black shoes," "I like people who have long hair," etc.

3. Next, the teacher asks standing students to change places with someone else who's standing.

4. Now it becomes a game. The teacher makes a statement, students referred to must stand and quickly swap places. When the students move around, the teacher quickly sits in someone's spot, forcing them to become the teacher.

5. The students quickly get into the swing of this game. Generally they'll quickly notice a "cheating" classmate who hasn't stood up when they should have, and they'll also eagerly encourage a shy student who finds himself standing in the gap with no ideas.

This game has no natural ending, so keep an eye on the mood of the students as they play. They may start to run out of ideas, making the game lag. Quickly stand and place yourself back into the teacher position and debrief (talk with them about how they felt about the game).

11. Sentence Auction

Create a list of sentences, some correct and some with errors.

- The errors should be related to a language topic you're teaching or reviewing (e.g. articles, tenses or pronouns).
- The number of sentences will depend on your students' abilities. 20 is a good number for intermediate students. If you have too few sentences then it will be harder to balance the correct and incorrect.
- The ratio of correct and incorrect is up to you, but it's a good idea to have more than 50% correct.

Next to the list of sentences draw three columns: Bid, win, lose.

You can set a limit for how much (imaginary) money they have to spend, or just let them have as much as they want.

They need to discuss (in English) and decide whether any sentence is 100% reliable, in which case they can bid 100 dollars (or whatever unit you choose). If they're totally sure that it's incorrect (and they rarely are) they can put a "0" bid. If they're unsure, they can bid 20, 30, 40, based on how likely it is to be correct. (Having a limit on their total bid will make them decide more carefully.)

- When all of their bids are written in, it's often a good idea to get pairs to swap their papers with other pairs for marking.
- Go through the sentences, discussing which are correct and why. Get individual students to explain what's right, what's wrong and why.
- For correct sentences, the bid amount is written in the "win" column. For incorrect sentences, it's written in the "lose" column.
- Both columns are totaled, and the "lose" total is subtracted from the "win" total.
- Papers are returned, and partners discuss (in English) how their bidding went.

This activity is most effective when the students work together as partners, reading and discussing the correctness of sentences. Students are encouraged to use English to discuss their strategies with their partner.

12. Alibi

This well-known ESL game is great speaking practice for adults. The teacher tells the class that a particular crime has been committed. For fun, make it locally specific. For example:

"Last Friday night, sometime between____and____, someone broke into the_____Bank on_____Street."

Depending on the size of your class, pick several students as "Suspects." The "Police" can work in groups of 2-4, and you need one Suspect for each police group. So, for example, in a class of 20 you could choose 4 Suspects and then have 4 groups of 4 Police for questioning.

Tell the class: *"____,____,____and____were seen near the scene of the crime, and the police would like to question them."*
The Suspects go outside or to another room to prepare their story. They need to decide *all* of the details about where they were during the time of the crime. For example: If they were at a restaurant, what did they eat? What did it cost? Who arrived first?

1. The Police spend some time preparing their questions.

2. The Suspects are called back in and go individually to each police group. They're questioned for a few minutes, and then each one moves on to the next group.

3. The Police decide whether their answers match enough for them to have a reasonable Alibi. (Maybe up to 5 mistakes is reasonable.)

13. Typhoon

Explain to students that this game is named after the strong wind that blows everything away. It can be played with a class as small as 3, but it also works with large classes. It's great for reviewing speaking topics.

1. On the board draw a grid of boxes—a 6 x 6 grid works well and can take about 45 minutes to complete, but you may vary this once you've played a few times. You'll just want to choose the size depending on how much time you have. Mark one axis with numbers, the other with letters. (Or use vocabulary words like

adjectives on one and nouns on the other.)

2. On a piece of paper or in a notebook (out of sight) draw the same grid. On your grid, fill in scores in all of the boxes. Most of them should be numbers, and others will be letters. It doesn't matter which numbers you choose, but it's fun to have some small ones (1, 2, 3, etc.) and some very big ones (500, 1000, etc.). About one in four boxes should have the letter "T" for "Typhoon."

3. Put the students into teams—at least 3 teams—and mark a place on the board to record each team's score.

4. Ask questions or give speaking tasks to each team in turn. If they answer correctly, they then "choose a box" using the grid labels. The teacher checks the secret grid, and writes the score into the grid on the board. This score also goes into the team's score box.

5. If the chosen box contains a number, the scores simply add up. But if the box contains a "T," the team then chooses which other team's score they want to "blow away" back to zero.

Notes on Typhoon:
- If you run out of time but the game isn't finished, declare a "no questions, just choose" period to fill the rest of the grid and find out who wins.
- Students love this game, so you can spice it up by adding different symbols in some of the boxes. I use:
- **Swap:** They must swap their score with another team's score, even if they're winning.
- **S:** Steal. They can steal a score instead of just blowing it away.
- **D:** Double. They double their own score.
- After a couple of times playing this game, students can easily run it themselves. This provides even more opportunities to speak. One student (or a pair) could handle the grid, another could handle the score board, others can make or choose questions or tasks and someone can be Game Presenter.

After the Speaking Activity

If you run your speaking activity well, the students will often get really involved in it. They may well need to be "debriefed" afterwards before they leave the classroom. This helps them get out residual excitement and reinforce the lessons they learned.

Always allow a few minutes of class time to talk about the activity, what they liked about it (or hated), how it made them feel and what they think they've learned.

Of course, all of this involves more worthwhile speaking time!

It's got a huge collection of authentic English videos that people in the English-speaking world *actually watch* on the regular. There are tons of great choices there when you're looking for songs for in-class activities.

You'll find music videos, musical numbers from cinema and theater, kids' singalongs, commercial jingles and much, much more.

Theme 9 Assessing speaking skills

You have to determine the learners' needs before considering assessing speaking skills. You should stop and think about these questions Do all learners have the same needs? What should weight more? accuracy and fluency? How are students going to use what you teach to them? Do they need English for business meetings or for tourism?

Placement Test

A placement test should applied before starting any language course in which speaking is a priority. The test must aim to determine how well the learners are doing in this speaking skills. You could use some of these

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forms of assessment to obtain those results:

A short and informal chat

A description of an image

A series of questions about an specific topic.

Challenges When Assessing Speaking

Learning how to teach and assess speaking skills is probably one of the biggest challenges compared to the other three language skills because you have to pay attention to aspects such as:

Fluency: This means speaking easily, reasonably quickly and without having to stop and pause a lot.**Pronunciation:** The act or result of producing the sounds of speech, including articulation, stress, and intonation.**Vocabulary:** The body of words used in a particular language.**Accuracy:** This refers to how correct learners' use of the language system is, including their use of grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary.Interaction: This refers to the ability to interact with others during communicative tasks.**Communication**: This refers to the students' ability to transmit her/his ideas.

5 Type of Activities to Assess Speaking Skills

Now that you know the aspects that you have to pay attention to, it is time to cover some of the different types of speaking activities that you can use to evaluate speaking skills. There are five types of activities to assess speaking skills:

- Intensive Speaking
- Responsive Speaking
- Interactive Speaking
- Extensive Speaking
- Imitative Speaking Now we are going to explore a little bit about each one of them

#1 Intensive Speaking

A read aloud Task: Teacher listen to a recording and evaluate the students in a series of phonological factors and fluency. Some variations of this task are:

- reading a scripted dialogue with someone else
- reading sentences containing minimal pairs
- reading information from a table chart

Sentence/ dialogue completion task: Students read through the dialogue so he can think about proper lines to fill in. The teacher produces one part orally and the students responds Picture cued Tasks: The picture-cued requires a description from the test taker

#2 Responsive Speaking

Question and answer: Students respond questions that the test administrator asksGiving Instructions and Directions: The test-taker is asked to give directions or instructions**Paraphrasing:** The test-taker is asked to paraphrase in two or three sentences what he heard or read.

#3 Interactive Speaking

Interview: It is a face-to-face exchange between test administrator and test taker. The stages of an interview are

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

- Warm-up
- Level Check
- Probe
- Wind-down

Role play is a common pedagogical activities used in communicative English classesDiscusssions and Conversations: These two speaking tasks provide a level of authenticity and spontaneity that other assessment techniques may not provideGames are an informal assessment task but they are not commonly used.

#4 Extensive Speaking

Oral Presentations are the most common task for evaluating extensive speaking, these are evaluated based on content and delivery.Picture-cued story telling: Students describe a story based on series of pictures that they previously saw.Re-Telling a story, News Event: Students are asked to tell a story of a new of something they heard or read.

#5 Imitative speaking

Imitative speaking tasks are based on repetition. You just need to repeat a sentence you hear. Examples include directed response tasks, reading aloud, sentence and dialogue completion, limited picture-cued tasks

5. Speaking Assessment Criteria and Level Descriptors (from September 2018) (public version)

I. Linguistic Criteria

Band	Intelligibility	Fluency	Appropriateness of Language	Resources of Grammar and Expression
6	•Pronunciation is easily understood and prosodic features (stress, intonation, rhythm) are used effectively. •L1 accent has no effect on intelligibility.	•Completely fluent speech at normal speed. •Any hesitation is appropriate and not a sign of searching for words or structures.	•Entirely appropriate register, tone and lexis for the context. •No difficulty at all in explaining technical matters in lay terms.	•Rich and flexible. •Wide range of grammar and vocabulary used accurately and flexibly. •Confident use of idiomatic speech.
5	•Easily understood. •Communication is not impeded by a few pronunciation or prosodic errors and/or noticeable L1 accent. •Minimal strain for the listener.	•Fluent speech at normal speed, with only occasional repetition or selfcorrection. •Hesitation may occasionally indicate searching for words or structures, but is generally appropriate.	•Mostly appropriate register, tone and lexis for the context. •Occasional lapses are not intrusive.	•Wide range of grammar and vocabulary generally used accurately and flexibly. •Occasional errors in grammar or vocabulary are not intrusive.
4	•Easily understood most of the time. •Pronunciation or prosodic errors and/or L1 accent at times cause strain	•Uneven flow, with some repetition, especially in longer utterances. •Some evidence of searching for words,	•Generally appropriate register, tone and lexis for the context, but somewhat restricted	•Sufficient resources to maintain the interaction. • Inaccuracies in vocabulary and

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		which does not cause serious strain. •Delivery may be staccato or too fast/slow.	and lacking in complexity. •Lapses are noticeable and at times reflect limited resources of grammar and expression.	grammar, particularly in more complex sentences, are sometimes intrusive. •Meaning is generally clear.
3	•Produces some acceptable features of spoken English. •Difficult to understand because errors in pronunciation/stress/ intonation and/or L1 accent cause serious strain for the listener.	•Very uneven. •Frequent pauses and repetitions indicate searching for words or structures. •Excessive use of fillers and difficulty sustaining longer utterances cause serious strain for the listener.	•Some evidence of appropriate register, tone and lexis, but lapses are frequent and intrusive, reflecting inadequate resources of grammar and expression.	•Limited vocabulary and control of grammatical structures, except very simple sentences. •Persistent inaccuracies are intrusive.
2	•Often unintelligible. •Frequent errors in pronunciation/stress/ intonation and/or L1 accent cause severe strain for the listener.	•Extremely uneven. •Long pauses, numerous repetition and self-corrections make speech difficult to follow.	•Mostly inappropriate register, tone and lexis for the context.	•Very limited resources of vocabulary and grammar, even in simple sentences. •Numerous errors in word choice.
1	•Almost entirely unintelligible.	• Impossible to follow, consisting of isolated words and phrases and selfcorrections, separated by long pauses.	•Entirely inappropriate register, tone and lexis for the context.	•Limited in all respects.
0	• Candidate does not provide any response.			

Theme 10-11 Teaching writing skills Assessing writing skills

1. How to teach writing

One of the challnges that the teachers of English in EFL and ESL classrooms face is how to teach writing. It is one of the skills that require from the students not only to be equipped with the necessary skills but also to be motivated. For most people writing is a painful process. It necessitates a training and patience.

1.1. What is writing?

Before dealing with how to teach writing, let's first see what is meant by 'writing'. In thissection, writing is seen as :

"a purposeful human activity whereby the writer intends to communicate content – represented with conventional signs and symbols – to an audience (i.e. reader)."

In the above definition five elements are of paramount importance:

1. The writer (who)
2. The content (what)
3. The purpose (why)
4. The audience (for whom)
5. The medium (signs and symbols)

In addition to the above elements, writing involves many processes, including, the generation and organization of ideas, drafting, revising and editing.

1.2. Writing as a communicative skill

Writing is a skill that is highly required nowadays. Written communication, for example, is the most common form of business communication. Emails and formal letters fulfill conversational-like purposes that the students have to master if they were to integrate today's job market.

Writing serves not only communicative purposes in professional activities but also in social ones. In our every day lives, we write or reply to invitation letters, thank-you letters, text messages, etc. Even journals carry a social communicative load. Journal writers try to communicate their thoughts and feelings to themselves.

As a communicative skill, sometimes we initiate the need to write. Other times, we respond to someone else's initiation. When you write an invitation letter, you are the initiators of the conversation. Replying to the invitation, by accepting or declining it, is the response to the initiator.

1.3. Writing vs speaking

Compared to the speaking skill, writing is more regulated. First, speech is often spontaneous and generally unplanned. Speakers have support from interlocutors to convey the message. That is, while you speak, the immediate audiences contribute to the conversation by nodding, interrupting, questioning and commenting to keep the conversation going. Speech is also characterized by repetition, pauses, hesitations, para-language features (gestures, facial expressions,…), and fillers (uhuh, ummm..). By contrast, writing has more standard forms of grammar, syntax, and vocabulary. It is generally planned and can be subject to modification through editing and revision before an audience reads it. In addition to that, writing does not tolerate repetition and if there is a response to a written message, it is generally delayed. Last but not least, writers use a lot of cohesive devices (e.g. however, in addition, in conclusion, etc.) that contribute to the overall coherence of the text.

1.4. What we usually write?

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

If you list all the things you have written during the past week, you will probably end up with a list that may include:

- Shopping lists
- Names
- Phone numbers
- Emails
- Letters

- Text messages
- Notes
- Presentations
- Articles
- Reports
- Curriculum Vitae
- …

These forms of writing which we also call **genres**, serve to express different purposes.

1.5. Why do we write?

Different forms of writing serve different kinds of purposes. The above pieces of writing are all done with different intents in mind:

- **Lists as reminders:**
  We write lists to remind ourselves of important information.
  (shopping lists, names, phone numbers…)
- **Writing as a learning tool:**
  Sometimes we write to organize and facilitate learning:
  (note taking, copying…)
- **Conversational-like writing**
  Other times, the purpose of writing is to get or communicate a piece of information
  (emails, letters, text messages…)
- **Writing for introspection and self-development:**
  In some cases, writing is a means for introspection.
  (journals, diaries…)
- **Writing as a means of reasoning:**
  Writing can be also a means to proceed by reasoning, making a point, convincing, arguing…
  (discursive writing)
- …

2. Functional categories

When talking about the purpose of writing, we are in fact implying that writing has a functional role. This may include

- Sequencing
- Comparing and contrasting
- Talking about cause and effect
- Describing
- Defining
- Expressing an opinion
- Arguing
- Persuading
- …

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Knowing how to teach writing, entails making the learners aware of the different **modes** of writing, that is, the purpose of their written text and the functional role that it plays in the communicative act (e.g. arguing, persuading, describing,etc.)

How to teach writing in EFL and ESL classrooms

How to teach writing presupposes some prerequisites. Teachers of English should be aware of not only the theoretical underpinnings of the writing tasks but also the practical procedures that contribute to the success of the writing lesson. In the following section, we will have a look at:

- The basic knowledge that learners should develop in the writing lesson.
- The different types of writing activities.
- Writing as a tool for learning.
- Writing as a major syllabus component.
- Teaching writing as a product, as a process, and as a genre.

3. Levels of writing

Learners should be trained to develop different language subskills. The knowledge that they should develop range from handwriting skills and mechanics to the ability to produce a coherent writing. Other types of knowledge include vocabulary, grammar, and paragraph structure. The use of cohesive devices (e.g. however, nevertheless, but, etc.) are also of paramount importance for good writers.(Figure 2)

Levels of writing

- Hand writing and mechanics
- Grammar and vocabulary
- Paragraph organization
- Cohesion
- Coherence

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Figure 2

4. Writing exercises

Writing tasks can be represented in a continuum that ranges from controlled activities to freer ones.

How to teach writing (activities)

- Controlled writing

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Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

- Copying
- Filling the blanks   …
- Parallel writing
- Creative writing
- Free Writing

The writing task in the classroom can be also seen either as a learning tool (i.e. writing for learning) or as representing one of the main syllabus components (i.e. writing for writing) (Harmer, 2004).

4.1.   Writing for learning

Writing for learning concerns those activities that necessitate the involvement of the students in some form of writing:

- Grammar: providing examples of the target structures, gap filling, transformation exercises…
- Reading: answering the comprehension questions, summarizing…
- Speaking: preparing a conversation before an oral performance, jotting down ideas for subsequent discussion about a topic…
- …

All the above activities are not part of a self-contained writing lesson. Writing in these activities is just a by-product of the work on other language components.

4.2.   Writing for writing

Writing for writing refers to the writing lesson as a major syllabus strand. It is a self-contained writing lesson that aims at developing the writing skill.

There are three approaches to teaching writing:

1. Writing as a product.
2. Writing as a process.
3. Genre writing.

4.3.   Product writing

The product writing approach refers to a writing procedure with an end product in mind. In this approach, the students are encouraged to mimic a model text. Analysis of the model text focuses on the linguistic features (e.g. prepositions, tense, adverbs…). Attention is paid to the accuracy of the students' productions and the teacher is concerned with where the students end not how they get there.

Here are the main features of this approach:

- The teacher provides a model text.
- Analysis of the linguistic features of the model text.
- The students are encouraged to mimic the model text.
- The writing is done with an end product in mind.
- The teacher evaluates the students on the final product they have handed in.
- Focus is on form and accuracy

This approach is criticized for not paying attention to the processes involved in writing. The writing process involves far more than just producing an accurate piece of writing. Hence the development of a new approach that caters to the pitfalls of the product approach.

4.4.   Process writing

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

As its name implies, process writing focuses on the process a writer goes through before producing a piece of writing:

"...process writing in the classroom may be construed as a program of instruction which provides the students with a series of planned learning experiences to help them understand the nature of writing at every point."
Anthony Sewo, 2002, p.315

In this approach, the learners are encouraged to go through different stages before producing their final version. Generally speaking, four stages are identified in this process:

1. Planning
2. Drafting
3. Revising
4. Editing

Planning

At the pre-writing stage, the learners are encouraged to gather as much information about the topic as possible through activities such as:

- brainstorming
- quick write
- answers to questions
- discussions
- …

After generating enough ideas about the topic, the learners sort and organize them into an outline, preferably a visual diagram.

Drafting

Drafting is the first attempt at writing. When the learners have gathered enough ideas about the topic they start writing the first draft paying attention to the following points:

- At this stage, focus is on the fluency of writing;
- The learners should not be preoccupied too much with accuracy;
- While drafting, the audience should be taken into consideration because having the audience in mind gives direction to the writing.

There might be some kind of **response** to the students' drafts either from other peers or from the teacher. This can be in the form of quick oral or written initial reaction to the draft.

Revising

Revising is not merely checking for language errors. It is rather a look at the overall content and organization of ideas. Using the feedback from their peers or from the teacher, the learners check whether their writing communicates meaning effectively to the intended audience. For example, some ideas may be discarded while others may be improved. The structure of paragraphs might also be affected during revision and the overall organization may be refined to convey coherent content.

Editing

Once the learners have finished revising, they start tidying up their drafts. This can be done by the learners themselves (i.e. self-editing) or with the help of their peers (i.e. peer editing). The focus is on elements like:

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.
- diction (choice of words)
- grammar (tense, sentence structure, prepositions…)
- mechanics (punctuation, punctuation)

A checklist may be provided to this effect:

- *Is the choice of vocabulary items appropriate?*

- *Are the verbs in the correct tense?*
- *Are the verb correctly formed?*
- *Have you checked the subject-verb agreement?*
- *Have you used correct sentence structures?*
- *Are the prepositions correctly used?*
- *Have you checked the use of articles?*
- *…*

Figure 2 below, shows the different steps in process writing. As it can be seen, the process is not linear; it is rather recursive.

"…many good writers employ a recursive, non-linear approach – writing of a draft may be interrupted by more planning, and revision may lead to reformulation, with a great deal of recycling to earlier stages."

Krashen, 1984, p. 17. Cited in Anthony Sewo, 2002, p.315.
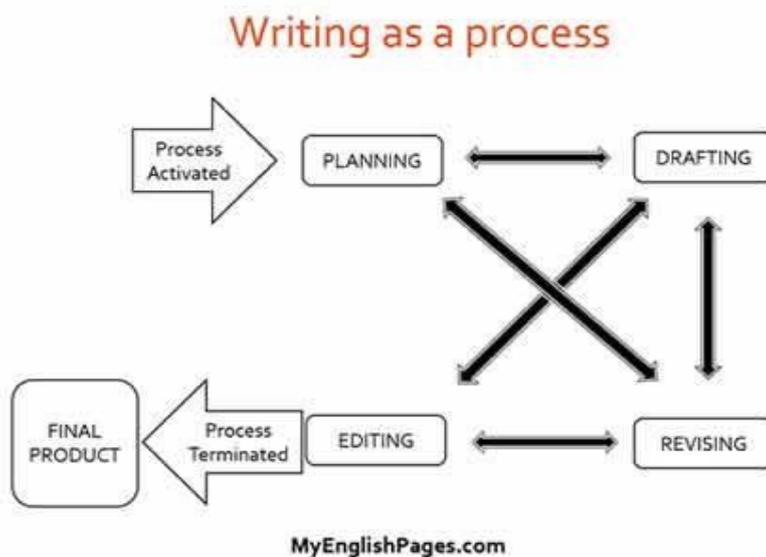
Figure 2.

4.5. Genre writing

Recent studies on the genres of writing have revived interest in some features of the product approach. Genre writing is similar to the product approach in the sense that it also considers writing from a linguistic standpoint. Nevertheless, there is a major difference between the genre and product approaches. The genre approach, unlike the product approach, focuses on the social context in which writing is produced. As mentioned above, texts can be classified into different genres and are normally written for different social purposes. Consequently, each genre (e.g. email, formal letters, storytelling, etc.) has its own common conventional features and the teachers' role is to raise the students' awareness of these features and help them learn how to produce texts with the same features.

The conventional features of genres include things like layout, diction, style, organization, and content. If

these are not analyzed and practiced by the students themselves in different examples, they will not be able to communicate their intents appropriately and their productions will undoubtedly break the expectations of the reader. Consequently, knowing how to teach writing presupposes that teachers should also focus on their students' awareness and analysis of different genres to help them avoid producing texts that will likely cause a negative reaction.

Texts are socially constructed and follow social conventions that the students have to respect. It helps to understand the rationale behind the form of a discourse through examining not only its language but also its social context and purpose. Wedding invitations, for example, share so many characteristics that when we see an example of them, it is immediately apparent from its layout and its language.

Practically, the genre approach draws on Vygotsky's social constructivism which considers language as a consequence of human interaction. The procedure is based on three major stages: awareness raising, appropriation, and autonomy. During the lesson, scaffolding is provided. That is, the teacher provides support for learners as they progress in their linguistic competence and become independent.

Awareness raising

The first stage consists of having the students look, for example, at text models of a specific genre. The aim is to make them aware of what constitutes that particular genre.

To that effect, different text models of the same genre are provided to the students for analysis and distinctive features should be identified.

Appropriation

At this stage, support is provided when needed while the learners practice the target genre distinctive features :

- the linguistic properties,
- layout
- organization
- …

Collaborative work may play an important role at this stage. A text may be jointly constructed by learners and teacher (Hammond, 1987).

Autonomy

At this stage, the learners are given enough time to independently construct their own texts. Guidance may be needed for students with limited control of language.

A process genre approach to teaching writing

It would be a good idea to mix the advantages of the three approaches described above. This would lead to the adoption of an approach that would undoubtedly benefit learning. Badger and White (2000) call such an approach "process genre approach to teaching writing". This approach recognizes:

- The importance of the linguistic features of texts as in product writing;
- The importance of the knowledge of the social context and purposes of texts as in genre writing;
- The importance of the skills needed in the process of writing.

The teaching procedure would include the provision of an input (i.e. model texts) that learners would study and analyze and the development of the learners' skills necessary in the process of writing. Here is a typical procedure:

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.
- Model texts that represent specific social situations are provided for study and analysis in terms of:
  – their linguistic features.
  – their social context, that is the relationship between the writer, the purpose of the text, and the audience.
- After raising the learners' awareness about the model texts distinctive features, some practice would be needed.
- A topic is provided to the students which replicates a similar social situation.
- Learners construct their own texts through:
  – planning
  – drafting
  – revising
  – editing
- The teacher provides support and scaffolding during the learners' progress towards autonomy.

5. Assessing Writing Performance – Level B2

Writing assessment by examiners in the Cambridge English: First, First for Schools and Business Vantage exams

Cambridge English writing scripts are marked by trained examiners in a secure online marking environment. The quality assurance of Writing Examiners (WEs) is managed by Team Leaders (TLs) who are, in turn, responsible to a Principal Examiner (PE). All of the examiners (PEs, TLs and WEs) must prove each year, through a certification process, that they are competent to assess. In addition, they are regularly monitored during live testing sessions.

The Writing Examiners award marks using a Writing Assessment Scale which was developed with explicit reference to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). It covers all the levels of the Cambridge English exams and is divided into four subscales:

• Content This focuses on how well the candidate has fulfilled the task, in other words, if they have done what they were asked to do.

• Communicative Achievement This focuses on how appropriate the writing is for the task, and whether the candidate has used the appropriate register.

• Organisation This focuses on the way the candidate puts together the piece of writing, in other words, if it is logical and ordered.

• Language This focuses on vocabulary and grammar. It includes the range of language as well as how accurate it is.

Examiners use the B2-level Assessment Scales to decide which marks to give candidates taking the Cambridge English: First, First for Schools and Business Vantage Writing tests. How can I use the Assessment Scales? Using the scales yourself while marking students' writing will help you to:

• analyse your students' strengths and weaknesses when they practise B2 writing tasks

• form an impression of how ready your students are to take the Writing part of the exam.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.
Theme 12 Teaching reading in English.

Pre-Reading Activities

1. **"Find The Word" Reading Aloud Activity (Pair Work)**
   Put students in pairs and provide them with one copy of a text. Have a secret list of words at the ready and call them out, at random, one at a time. Allow time for students to scan the text for the word they hear. The

   first person in the pair to point correctly at the word in the text gets a point. Make sure you set sound level rules, as well as clear guidance on how the class should be silent ready for the next round.
2. **"Reading Aloud" Task (Pair Work / Small Group Work)**
   Provide students with a 'chunky' text split into paragraphs. Advise that each student in the pair/group must read one paragraph aloud. If the person has an issue pronouncing a word, he/she must circle it and if they come across a word they don't understand, they must underline it. Allow students to discuss their problem areas in pairs and then in fours. Go around making a note of the common issues and write on the board with whole group choral work and discussion at the end.
3. **"Team Reading Aloud" – Pronunciation Reading (Whole Group)**
   Split the classroom in two and assign all students in each team a number and repeat (using the same numbers) with the other team. Provide students with a 'chunky' text for reading and set each team off with 20 points. The aim of the activity is to be the team to finish with the most points after the text has been read. Flip a coin to see which team begins. Randomly choose a number and that student must begin reading. If the other team spots a pronunciation error, as the student is reading, a member of the team must put their hand up. If all others in the team agree, everyone's hand must go up – this should keep everyone focused. If they spot a genuine pronunciation error, they can help the reader make the correction receive a point (provide support if their 'help' isn't quite accurate). However, if the whole team has made a mistake and picked a word that was correctly pronounced, they will lose a point and the other team will gain a point. Each time an error in pronunciation is correctly spotted, swap the reading team. Deduct points for talking or misbehaviour.
4. **"The Last Word" Reading Activity (Pair / Small Group Work)**
   As a group, the team chooses how many words each student should read. For example, 3 words. In addition, allow students to choose the order of reading. Once the students begin reading, the winner is the student who follows the rules and manages to be the person to read the last word.
5. **"Avoid The Line" – Reading Aloud Activity (Pair / Small Groups)** When you prepare a text, underline words at random. Students start with 5 points. Each student must read 5 words at a time, but must avoid actually saying any words that have been underlined. Should they read the underlined word by accident, they lose a point. Students with with the most points at the end of the reading activity win.
6. **"Bratwurst" Name" – Reading Out Aloud Activity (Small Groups)** One student begins and after a pre-determined number of words or sentences, they shout "Bratwurst / Pain au chocolat / Churros" (etc, depending on the language you teach) plus the name of someone in the group i.e. Bratwurst Laura. This person must then continue where the other reader left off. Award points at the beginning and if someone loses focus and doesn't know where the previous reader was, they lose a point.
7. **Teacher Names – Reading Activity Out Aloud (Whole Group)**
   Split the class in two and assign 5 points to each team. Then, model pronunciation of the text by reading it out aloud. At random intervals, instead of reading the next word, call out a student's name and that student must read the word that their name was replaced by. If the chosen student doesn't respond without being prompted within 5 seconds of stopping, the team loses a point. Perfect for getting students to focus on reading activities, as well as getting them to pronounce the words you think they might find tricky or could do with knowing. In addition, you could get students to create a list of vocabulary replaced by students names and translate/make sentences with, as a post-reading activity.
8. **Spontaneous Reading Activity (Whole Group)**
   One student starts reading at random and can read a maximum of one sentence. As soon as they end their sentence, another student must begin reading. If no-one starts within a second, or more than one person starts reading, the whole group must go back to the beginning. Starting with another student reading the first sentence. You can vary this by getting learners to translate the text as they read the sentence or change the person (thus the verbs and possessive adjectives etc). Keep going back to the beginning until the reading out aloud activity has been completed as per the rules.
9. **Find …. – Skim Reading Activity (Alone)**
   As soon as you give students a reading text, provide them with a list of words in L1 (native language) to find in L2 (language being learnt) in the text. This could be all masculine nouns, all verbs, all adjectives, all

words beginning with 'a'. They could either highlight the words in the text or underline the words.

10. **Find the Synonym – Skim Reading Activity (Individual)**
As with reading activity 10, give students a reading text and provide them with a list of words in L2. They must find and note down the synonyms they find in the text.

11. **Be A Presenter – Reading Aloud (Pairs)**
Have iPads or laptops available, enough for one between two. Have students paste a copy of your text into cue prompter with one student sitting with their back to the laptop and the other person reading aloud.

The presenter must read clearly with accurate pronunciation and the listener must fill in the gaps on their sheet as they are listening with the words they hear. They may not ask the presenter to spell any word. Instead, if they have gaps at the end, the presenter must re-read (the whole lot or just the sentence, depending on how you're feeling on the day).

12. **Guess The Rule Reading Aloud (Whole Group Game)**
The teacher begins by reading every other word from the text in order. Students must put their hands up to guess the rule. Allow individual students in the group to do the same by reading aloud. The rest of the group must try to guess the rule. Students can only start to put their hands up after the reader has read at least 1/3 or 1/2 of the text. Let the students be creative with their rules. The teacher could also re-read and do the same with adjectives, nouns, verbs etc to make the reading activity more grammar based. It's perfect to get reluctant and shy students reading.

13. **Running Dictation Speaking Reading Activity (Small Groups)**
This works better with shorter texts or splitting a whole text into paragraphs, which each team is responsible for. Put enough copies of the texts up outside the classroom with a number on each. Assign each team a number. Advise the aim is for students to be the first team to communicate the text from their corresponding paragraph outside the classroom, without cheating. Students must take it in turns to read a sentence in sequence from their paragraph, and be the first team to finish communicating and writing the paragraph down on a sheet of paper.
RULES: a) only one student can be out of their seat at a time, b) students must not run or shout, c) students must also take it in turns to write the sentences on the paper, d) learners are not allowed to spell any words, but they are allowed to go back as many times as they need to to re-read the sentence, e) the rest of the group must work as a team to ensure the words are spelled accurately and the grammar is also correct.

14. **Gap-Fill Transcript Dictation Reading Activity (Individual)**
Provide students with a copy of the text, with gaps. I suggest three forms, one with verbs missing, the second with nouns missing and the third with adjectives missing. Distribute the sheets so they have people around them who had the same sheet. The students must individually fill in the words as they listen. You could read again if necessary. Once finished, get learners to check they have spelled the words correctly by discussing (not showing!) with their neighbours.

15. **Wrong Words Reading Activity (Individual)**
The teacher provides students with a copy of the text with a selection of incorrect words. As they listen to the text being read, they must highlight the word they hear that is incorrect. Go through a second time, and this time, the students must write in the correct words. This will give the students an idea of the text before they do any comprehension activities.

16. **Key Word Bingo** – **Vocabulary Based Reading Activity (Individual)**
From the text, read 5-20 words (dependent on text length) at random in L2. Students must cross them off as they hear them**.**

1. How to Assess Reading Skills

Reading is a mental process. There are many definitions of reading. Reading is when someone looks into a written text and starts to absorb the information from the written linguistic message.

4.1. Genres of reading:

- Academic reading (textbooks, essays, papers
- Job-related reading (messages, letters, reports, financial documents)
- Personal reading (Newspaper, magazines, e-mails , greeting cards)

4.2. Types of Reading

If you want to learn how to assess reading skills, you should start by learning the existing types of reading.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

We can talk about four types of reading:

- Perceptive Reading
- Selective Reading
- Interactive Reading
- Extensive Reading

Learn more about each one of them and how to assess reading skills in every particular case:

Perceptive Reading

Perceptive reading tasks involve attending to the components of larger stretches of discourse: letters, words, punctuation, and other graphemic symbols. Bottom-up processing is implied.

At the beginning level of reading a second language, the fundamental tasks include recognition of:

- alphabetic symbols
- capitalized and lowercase letters
- punctuation
- words
- grapheme-phoneme correspondences.

They are referred to as "literacy" tasks, implying that the learner is in the early stages of becoming 'literate'. Items include

1) Reading aloud

2)Written response

3) Multiple-Choice

Selective Reading

a selective task is to ascertain one's reading recognition of lexical, grammatical, or discourse features of language within a very short stretch of language. Items such as picture-cued tasks, matching, true/false, multiple-choice, etc. Expected answers include sentences, brief paragraphs, simple charts and graphs, and brief responses as well. A combination of bottom-up and top-down processing may be both used to assess lexical and grammatical aspects of reading ability. Items include:

1) Multiple-Choice (form-focused criteria)

2) Matching Tasks

3) Editing tasks

4) Picture-cued tasks

5) Gap-filling tasks

4.3.   **Interactive Reading**

Reading is a process of negotiating meaning; the reader brings to the text a set of schemata for understanding it, and intake is the product of that interaction.

The focus of an interactive task is to identify relevant features (lexical, symbolic, grammatical, and discourse) within texts of moderately short length with the objective of retaining the information that is processed. Top-down processing is typical of such tasks with occasional use of bottom-up skills.Tasks at this level, like selective tasks, have a combination of form-focused and meaning-focused objectives but with more emphasis on meaning.

Texts are a little longer, from a paragraph to as many as a page or so in case of ordinary prose. Charts, graphs, and other graphics may be somewhat complex in their format. Tasks include: cloze tasks, multiple choices for reading comprehension, short-answer questions, editing tasks, scanning, ordering tasks, non-

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

verbal tasks for information transfer such as charts, maps, graphs, and diagrams.

4.4. <div align="center">**Extensive Reading**</div>

extensive reading applies to texts of more than one page up to and including professional articles, essays, technical reports, short stories, and books.

Global understanding is the goal for assessment. Top-down processing is assumed for most extensive tasks.

Skimming tasks are to get the main ideas; summarizing (a synopsis or overview of the text) and responding (personal opinion on the test as a whole). Note-taking and outlining are both used frequently for the higher-ordered learning.

But tasks like short-answers, editing, scanning, ordering, and information transfer tasks can also be used to assess extensive reading.

The table below contains a summary of the CEFR text on listening, reading and reception strategies

Aural reception (listening)	Visual reception (reading)	Reception strategies
The language user as listener receives and processes a spoken input produced by one or more speakers.	The language user as reader receives and processes as input written texts produced by one or more writers.	The language user identifies the context and knowledge of the world relevant to it, activating in the process what are thought to be relevant schemata.
Listening activities include • listening to public announcements (information, instructions, warnings, etc.); • listening to media (radio, TV, recordings, cinema); • listening as a member of a live audience (theatre, public meetings, public lectures, entertainments, etc.); • listening to overheard conversations, etc.	Examples of reading activities include: • reading for general orientation; • reading for information, e.g. using reference works; • reading and following instructions; • reading for pleasure.	Reception strategies include: . Planning: framing (selecting mental set, activating schemata, setting up expectations) . Execution: identifying cues and inferring from them. . Evaluation: hypothesis testing: matching cues to schemata . Repair: revising hypotheses
Reception strategies include: . Planning: framing (selecting mental set, activating schemata, setting up expectations) . Execution: identifying cues and inferring from them. . Evaluation: hypothesis testing: matching cues to schemata . Repair: revising hypotheses	The language user may read: • for gist; • for specific information; • for detailed understanding; • for implications, etc. Illustrative scales are provided for: • Overall reading comprehension; • Reading correspondence; • Reading for orientation; • Reading for information and argument; • Reading instructions.	One illustrative scale is provided: Identifying cues and inferring (spoken & written)

Theme 13 Assessing writing
skills.

TYPES OF WRITING PERFORMANCE

Four categories o f written performance that capture the range o f written production are considered here. Each category resembles the categories defined for the other three skills, but these categories, as always, reflect the uniqueness o f the skill area.

1. Imitative. To produce written language, the learner must attain skills in the fun• damental, basic tasks o f writing letters, words, punctuation, and very brief sentences. This category includes the ability to spell correctly and to perceive phoneme-grapheme correspondences in the English spelling system. It is a level at which learners are trying to master the mechanics of writing. At this stage, form is the primary if not exclusive focus, whereas context and meaning are of secondary concern.

2. Intensive (controlled). Beyond the fundamentals o f imitative writing are skills in producing appropriate vocabulary within a context, collocations and idioms, and correct grammatical features up to the length o f a sentence. Meaning and context are o f some importance in determining correctness and appropriateness, but most assessment tasks are more concerned with a focus on form and are rather strictly controlled by the test design.

3. Responsive. Here, assessment tasks require learners to perform at a limited discourse level, connecting sentences into a paragraph and creating a logically con•nected sequence o f two or three paragraphs. Tasks relate to pedagogical directives, lists o f criteria, outlines, and other guidelines. Genres o f writing include brief narratives and descriptions, short reports, lab reports, summaries, brief responses to reading, and interpretations o f charts or graphs. Under specified conditions, the writer begins to exercise some freedom of choice among alternative forms of expression of ideas. The writer has mastered the fundamentals o f sentence-level grammar and is10 Assessing W riting more focused on the discourse conventions that will achieve the objectives o f the written text. Form-focused attention is mostly at the discourse level, with a strong emphasis on context and meaning.

4 . Extensive. Extensive writing implies successful management o f all the processes and strategies o f writing for all purposes, up to the length o f an essay, a term paper, a major research project report, or even a thesis. Writers 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 p ro ce ss o f multiple drafts to achieve a final product. Focus on grammatical form is limited to occasional editing or proofreading o f a draft.

DESIGNING ASSESSMENT TASKS: RESPONSIVE AND EXTENSIVE WRITING

In this section we consider both responsive and extensive writing tasks. They are regarded here as a continuum of possibilities ranging from lower-end tasks whose complexity exceeds those in the previous category o f intensive or controlled writing to more open-ended tasks such as writing short reports, essays, summaries, and responses, to texts o f several pages or more.

Paraphrasin g [R, L, W]

One o f the more difficult concepts for second language learners to grasp is paraphrasing. The initial step in teaching paraphrasing is to ensure that learners understand the importance of paraphrasing: to say something in one's own words, to avoid plagiarizing, to offer some variety in expression. With those possible motiva• tions and purposes in mind, the test designer needs to elicit a paraphrase o f a sentence or paragraph, usually not more.

Scoring of the test-taker's response is a judgment call in which the criterion of conveying the same or similar message is primary, with secondary evaluations o f discourse, grammar, and vocabulary. Other components of analytic or holistic scales (see later discussion, pages 2 83-285) might be considered as criteria for an evaluation. Paraphrasing is more often a part o f informal and formative assessment than of formal, summative assessment, and therefore student responses should be viewed as opportunities for teachers and students to gain positive washback on the art of paraphrasing.

Guided Question and Answer

Another lower-order task in this type o f writing, which has the pedagogical benefit o f guiding a learner without dictating the form o f the output, is a guided question-and-answer format in which the test administrator poses a series o f questions that essentially serves as an outline o f the emergent written text. In the writing o f a nar• rative that the teacher has already covered in a class discussion, the following kinds

o f questions might be posed to stimulate a sequence of sentences.

Cuided writing stimuli [R, W]

1. W here d id this story take place? [setting]

2. W h o were the people in the story? [characters]

3. W hat happened first? and then? and then? [sequence o f events]

4.W hy d id_____d o_____? [reasons, causes]

5. W h a t d id_____th in k a b o u t_____?
[opinion]

6. W h a t happened at the end? [clim ax]

7. W h a t is the moral o f this story? [evaluation]

Guided writing texts, which may be as long as two or three paragraphs, may be scored on either an analytic or a holistic scale (discussed on pages 28 3 -2 8 5). Guided writing prompts such as these are less likely to

appear on a formal test and more likely to serve as a way to prompt initial drafts o f writing. This first draft can then undergo the editing and revising stages discussed in the next section of this chapter. A variation on using guided questions is to prompt the test-taker to write from an outline. The outline may be self-created from earlier reading and/or discussion or less desirable—be provided by the teacher or test administrator. The outline helps to guide the learner through a presumably logical development of ideas that have been given some forethought. Assessment o f the resulting text follows the same criteria listed below (item 3 in the next section, paragraph construction tasks).

Paragraph Con struction Tasks [R, W]

The participation o f reading performance is inevitable in writing effective paragraphs. To a great extent, writing is the art o f emulating what one reads. You read an effective paragraph; you analyze the ingredients o f its success; you emulate it. Assessment o f paragraph development takes on a number o f different forms:

1. Topic sentence writing. There is no cardinal rule that says every paragraph must have a topic sentence, but the stating o f a topic through the lead sentence (or a subsequent one) has remained as a tried-and-true technique for teaching the concept o f a paragraph. Assessment thereof consists of

• specifying the writing o f a topic sentence.

• scoring points for its presence or absence.

• scoring and/or commenting on its effectiveness in stating the topic.

2. Topic development within a paragraph. Because paragraphs are intended to

provide a reader with "clusters" o f meaningful, connected thoughts or ideas,

another stage of assessment is development o f an idea within a paragraph.

Four criteria are commonly applied to assess the quality o f a paragraph:

• the clarity o f expression o f ideas

• the logic of the sequence and connections

• the cohesiveness or unity o f the paragraph

• the overall effectiveness or impact of the paragraph as a whole 3

3. Development o f m ain and supporting ideas across paragraphs.As writers string two or more paragraphs together in a longer text (and as we move up the continuum from responsive to extensive writing), the writer attempts to articulate a thesis or m ain ideawith clearly stated supporting ideas.These elements can be considered in evaluating a multiparagraph essay:

• addressing the topic, main idea, or principal purpose

• organizing and developing supporting ideas

• using appropriate details to undergird supporting ideas

• showing facility and fluency in the use o f language

• demonstrating syntactic variety

Theme: 14 Teaching and assessing pronunciation.

Pronunciation refers to the way in which people make the sounds of words. To pronounce words, our bodies push air up through our lungs, through the throat and vocal cords and finally into the mouth and past our tongues and lips. The way we do this makes the different sounds.

English pronunciation can be tricky, especially for ESL (English as a Second Language) learners. Start by introducing how to pronounce English vowels and consonants. Some sounds rarely occur in other languages, so clearly explain how students should use their lips and tongues to form unfamiliar sounds. Since stress, rhythm, and intonation express nuanced meanings, offer plenty of examples of how these qualities function. Understanding native speakers' speech habits is a key skill, so you should also help your students recognize how words blend together, contractions, and slang.

Pronunciation involves far more than individual sounds. Word stress, sentence stress, intonation, and word linking all influence the sound of spoken English, not to mention the way we often slur words and phrases together in casual speech. 'What are you going to do?' becomes 'Whaddaya gonna do?' English pronunciation involves too many complexities for learners to strive for a complete elimination of accent, but improving pronunciation will boost self esteem, facilitate communication, and possibly lead to a better job or a least more respect in the workplace. Effective communication is of greatest importance, so choose first to work on problems that significantly hinder communication and let the rest go. Remember that your students also need to learn strategies for dealing with misunderstandings, since native pronunciation is for most an unrealistic goal.

A student's first language often interferes with English pronunciation. For example, /p/ is aspirated in English but not in Spanish, so when a Spanish speaker pronounces 'pig' without a puff of air on the /p/, an American may hear 'big' instead. Sometimes the students will be able to identify specific problem sounds and sometimes they won't. You can ask them for suggestions, but you will also need to observe them over time and make note of problem sounds. Another challenge resulting from differences in the first language is the inability to hear certain English sounds that the native language does not contain. Often these are vowels, as in 'ship' and 'sheep,' which many learners cannot distinguish. The Japanese are known for confusing /r/ and /l/, as their language contains neither of these but instead has one sound somewhere between the two. For problems such as these, listening is crucial because students can't produce a sound they can't hear. Descriptions of the sound and mouth position can help students increase their awareness of subtle sound differences.

1. Pronunciation features: Voicing , Aspiration , Mouth Position etc.

Voicing

Voiced sounds will make the throat vibrate. For example, /g/ is a voiced sound while /k/ is not, even though the mouth is in the same position for both sounds. Have your students touch their throats while pronouncing voiced and voiceless sounds. They should feel vibration with the voiced sounds only.

Aspiration

Aspiration refers to a puff of air when a sound is produced. Many languages have far fewer aspirated sounds than English, and students may have trouble hearing the aspiration. The English /p/, /t/, /k/, and /ch/ are some of the more commonly aspirated sounds. Although these are not always aspirated, at the beginning of a word they usually are. To illustrate aspiration, have your students hold up a piece of facial tissue a few inches away from their mouths and push it with a puff of air while pronouncing a word containing the target sound.

Mouth Position

Draw simple diagrams of tongue and lip positions. Make sure all students can clearly see your mouth while you model sounds. Have students use a mirror to see their mouth, lips, and tongue while they imitate you.

Intonation

Word or sentence intonation can be mimicked with a kazoo, or alternatively by humming. This will take the students' attention off of the meaning of a word or sentence and help them focus on the intonation.

Linking

We pronounce phrases and even whole sentences as one smooth sound instead of a series of separate words. 'Will Amy go away,' is rendered 'Willaymeegowaway.' To help learners link words, try starting at the end of a sentence and have them repeat a phrase, adding more of the sentence as they can master it. For example, 'gowaway,' then 'aymeegowaway,' and finally 'Willaymeegowaway' without any pauses between words.

Vowel Length

You can demonstrate varying vowel lengths within a word by stretching rubber bands on the longer vowels and letting them contract on shorter ones. Then let the students try it. For example, the word 'fifteen' would have the rubber band stretched for the 'ee' vowel, but the word 'fifty' would not have the band stretched because both of its vowels are spoken quickly.

Syllables

Have students count syllables in a word and hold up the correct number of fingers, or place objects on table to represent each syllable.

Illustrate syllable stress by clapping softly and loudly corresponding to the syllables of a word. For example, the word 'beautiful' would be loud-soft-soft. Practice with short lists of words with the same syllabic stress pattern ('beautiful,' 'telephone,' 'Florida') and then see if your learners can list other words with that pattern.

Specific Sounds

Minimal pairs, or words such as 'bit/bat' that differ by only one sound, are useful for helping students distinguish similar sounds. They can be used to illustrate voicing ('curl/girl') or commonly confused sounds ('play/pray'). Remember that it's the sound and not the spelling you are focusing on.

Tongue twisters are useful for practicing specific target sounds, plus they're fun. Make sure the vocabulary isn't too difficult.

The Sounds of English, American Accent Training, and EnglishClub.com websites below offer guidelines for describing how to produce various English sounds. You can find representative practice words for every English sound on the English is Soup site.

Sounds of English

Thus, when we teach the vowels of the English language we can pay learners' attention to vowel length:

Vowel Length You can demonstrate varying vowel lengths within a word by stretching rubber bands on the longer vowels and letting them contract on shorter ones. Then let the students try it. For example, the word 'fifteen' would have the rubber band stretched for the 'ee' vowel, but the word 'fifty' would not have the band stretched because both of its vowels are spoken quickly.

Teaching syllables teachers can have students count syllables in a word and hold up the correct number of fingers, or place objects on table to represent each syllable.

To illustrate syllable stress teachers can clap softly and loudly corresponding to the syllables of a word. For example, the word 'beautiful' would be loud-soft-soft. Practice with short lists of words with the

same syllabic stress pattern ('beautiful,' 'telephone,' 'Florida') and then see if your learners can list other words with that pattern.

2. Problems of teaching pronunciation

The teacher faces the following problems in teaching pupils pronunciation.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3. The ways of teaching pronunciation :How to teach pronunciation?

Pupils assimilate English pronunciation through :

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

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

1. To determine the cases where conscious manipulation of the speech organs is required and the cases where simple imitation can or must be used.
2. To decide on types of exercises and the techniques of using them.

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

Teaching a FL in schools begins with teaching pupils to listen to it and speak it that is with the oral introductory course, or the oral approach. The teacher's task is to determine which sound the pupils will find hard to pronounce, which sounds they can assimilate through imitation and which sounds require explanations of the position of the organs of speech while producing them.

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

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

By listening to the teacherpronouncing a sound, a sound combination and sensible sound sequences. Thus, a teacher can provide activity for practicing specific sounds.

Specific Sounds

Minimal pairs, or words such as 'bit/bat' that differ by only one sound, are useful for helping students distinguish similar sounds. They can be used to illustrate voicing ('curl/girl') or commonly confused sounds ('play/pray'). Remember that it's the sound and not the spelling you are focusing on.

Tongue twisters are useful for practicing specific target sounds, plus they're fun. Make sure the vocabulary isn't too difficult. By listening to the speaker on the recording. It is impossible to overestimate the role that can be played by recording. They:

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

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

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

-Help the teacher in developing his pupils' ability to speak.

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

We already mentioned that exercises used for developing pronunciation habits may be of two groups –recognition exercises and reproduction exercises.

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

The material used for pronunciation drills should be connected with the lesson pupils study. These may be sounds, words, word combinations, phrases, sentences, rhymes, poems, and dialogues. Proverbs and some useful expressions can be used as material for pronunciation drills.

Tongue twisters: Introduction

All levels and ages enjoy tongue twisters. They work well as a warm up to get students speaking or as an activity to help students to practise pronouncing difficult sounds in English. It is the combination of sounds in the words and the repetition of the phrases that makes them difficult but fun.

Preparation. Choose some English tongue twisters which are suitable for the level of the students. Write one on the board and check that the students know what the words mean. The teacher might need to draw a picture on the board to help them imagine the scene.

Step 1: The teacher says the tongue twister at normal speed. Teach it to the students by letting them join in. Then get them to say it a little faster and to repeat it three times in a row.

Here are some examples:

She sells sea shells on the sea shore A proper copper coffee pot Red lorry, yellow lorry, red lorry, yellow lorry A big black bug bit a big black bear

Extension activity: Higher level of challenge

The students write their own tongue twisters. This means they choose a letter or a sound and repeat it in a sentence.

For example: Bob bought a bike in Beihai on his Birthday because he was bored.

Step 2: Put students into pairs or small groups. Write the following questions on the board:

Q1- Who? Q2- What did she/he do? Q3- Where? Q4- When? Q5- Why? Because…

Step 3: Model the activity with a group. Each group can start by choosing a name. The first letter of the name then becomes their special sound.

For example: Who? Bob What did he do? Bob bought a bike Where? in Beihai When? On his birthday Why? Because he was bored

Ask each group to make their own sentence and to write it on a strip of paper. Pairs could choose any name, or try and use the same sound that is in one of their own names.

Step 4: Students' pairs pass their paper round the class for other students to try and say the tongue twister

Rhyming words

Pronunciation focus: repeated sounds

Activity Type: whole class

Time: 15-20 minutes

Level: All levels

Introduction . In this activity the children notice a repeated sound.

Preparation . Choose a rhyme and write it up on the board. Do not write the rhyming words, leave a line for each.

E.g. Rain, rain, go away! All the children want to play. Rain, rain, go away! Come again another day.

Prepare word cards for each rhyming word, e.g. four cards for rain, two cards for away, and one for day and one for play and one for again.

Step 1: Play the rhyme for students once or twice.

Step 2: Read out the text of rhyme saying the sound of /ei/ for each gap.

Step 3: Stick word cards on the board and say the sound /ei/. Practise the sound and the words whole class and as groups and individuals.

Step 4: Ask whole class to choose the right word to fill the gaps in the rhyme and put the cards on the board in the gaps.

Step 5: Play the rhyme again to check if they have chosen right word for each gap.

Step 6: Put the students in pairs or groups to practise saying the rhyme. The teacher or children can make up actions to do with the rhyme. The teacher can ask for volunteer groups to stand up and perform the rhyme.

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Teaching pronunciation teachers should pay learners' attention to the link between sound and spelling by using for practice, for example, the following activities:

Sounds and spelling -students listen to a tape and see how many different pronunciations they can find for the ou spelling in words given. -Students are given two lists of (c-starting) words and have to work out which rule decides about producing (s) or (k). To work on stress such activities may be helpful:

Working with stress: -when students meet new words in class teacher marks the stress of those words, -teacher shows where the weak vowel sounds occur in words, draw attention to the schwa, -teacher chooses some short phrases which students are familiar with and writes them on the board, then she/he reads them aloud and draws a large circle under each stressed syllable and small circles under the unstressed syllables. Using the stress patterns students have to join pairs of phrases with the same stress patterns. -Teacher asks students to put words in correct columns depending upon their stress patterns,

To practice intonation patterns a teacher may highlight this:

Intonation Word or sentence intonation can be mimicked by humming. This will take the students' attention off of the meaning of a word or sentence and help them focus on the intonation.

Working with intonation: -to draw students' attention to the way the pitch is used in conveying the meaning , -students can be asked to identify what is meant each time by using words for emotions or matching intonation to pictures of faces with different expressions

Activity type: Humming.

Put students in pairs. Give student A a list of questions or statements. Give student B a list of replies. Student A should hum(make a noise) the intonation patterns of his utterances. Student B should reply with the correct response. We like to make sure that all of the sentences have the same number of syllables so that Student B really has to listen to the intonation to get the sentence. Example utterances:

Student A	Student B
I like pizza, pickles, and chips. (list intonation)	Not all together, I hope.
Would you prefer coffee or tea? (choice intonation)	Tea, please.
Would you like some ice cream and cake? (double-rising intonation)	No, thank you. I'm not hungry.
Is he going to the dentist? (rising intonation)	Yes. He has a toothache.
Next week we are flying to Rome. (falling intonation)	Really? How long will you be there?

5. Teaching pronunciation according to levels

Teaching English pronunciation is a challenging task with different objectives at each level. This guide on how to teach pronunciation provides a short overview of the main issues to be addressed at each level, as well as pointing to resources on the site, such as lesson plans and activities, that you can use in class to help your students improve their English pronunciation skills. Following each level are a few suggestions for level appropriate activities. Finally, the best way to help students improve their pronunciation skills is to encourage them to speak English as much as they possibly can. Introduce the idea that even when doing homework students should be reading aloud. Learning to pronounce English well takes muscle coordination, and that means practice - not just mental activity!

Beginning Level English Learners

Key Points:

-Syllable Stress - students need to understand that multisyllabic words require syllable stress. Point out common syllable stress patterns.

-Voiced and Voiceless Consonants - Teach the difference between voiced and voiceless consonants. Have students touch their throats to note the difference between 'z' and 's' and 'f' and 'v' to demonstrate these differences.

-Silent Letters - Point out examples of words with silent letters such as the 'b' in 'comb', '-ed' endings in the past for regular verbs.

-Silent final E - Teach the influence of the final silent 'e' generally making the vowel long. Make sure to point out that there are many exceptions to this rule (drive vs. live).

At the beginning level, English learners need to focus on the basics of pronunciation. In general, the use of rote learning is best for this level. For example, the use of grammar chants is a great way to help students pick up pronunciation skills through repetition. Teaching the IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) is too challenging at this point as learners are already overwhelmed with the challenges of learning a language. Learning another alphabet for pronunciation is beyond the capability of most beginning level English learners. Certain patterns such as silent letters in English and the pronunciation of -ed in the simple

past is a good starting point for future pronunciation drills. Students should also learn the difference between voiced and voiceless consonants.

Beginning Level Pronunciation Activities. Slap That Word! - Fun game for learners asking them to associate words that are posted on the wall of the classroom. This exercise will reinforce pronunciation patterns during a fun, competitive activity

Read and Rhyme - Rhyming game asking students to come up with words that rhyme with others presented on cards.

Intermediate Level English Learners

Key Points:

-Use of Minimal Pairs - Understanding the small differences in pronunciation between similar words is a great way to help students notice these differences.

-Word Stress Patterns - Help students improve their pronunciation by focusing on short sentences using standard word stress patterns.

-Introduce Stress and Intonation - One of the best ways to help students is to focus their attention on the music of English through the use of stress and intonation.

At this point, English learners will feel comfortable with relatively simple pronunciation patterns in English. Moving on to exercises using minimal pairs will help learners further refine their pronunciation of individual phonemes. Intermediate level learners should become aware of common word stress patterns, as well as sentence stress types. At this point, students can also begin becoming familiar with the IPA.

Intermediate Level Pronunciation Activities. IPA Symbol Card Game - This card game helps students learn phonetic symbols. Cards are included on the site that you can print out and use in class.

Tongue Twisters - Classic English tongue twisters to help students focus on some of the more challenging phonemes.

Advanced Level English Learners

Key Points:

-Refine Understanding of Stress and Intonation - Further students' understanding of stress and intonation by changing up particular words stress to change meaning.

-Use of Register and Function - Introduce the idea of changing through pronunciation depending on how formal or informal the situation is.

Improving pronunciation through a focus on stress and intonation is one of the best ways to improve higher intermediate to advanced level English learners. At this level, students have a good grasp on the basics of each phoneme through the use of exercises such as minimal pairs, and individual syllable stress. However, English learners at this level often focus too much on the correct pronunciation of each word, rather than on the music of each sentence. To introduce the concept of stress and intonation and the role it plays in understanding, the students first need to understand the role of content and function words. Use this lesson on practicing stress and intonation to help. Next, students should learn how to use sound scripting - a way of marking up texts to help prepare for reading aloud. Finally, advanced level students should be capable of changing meaning through word stresses within sentences to bring out contextual meaning through pronunciation.

Advanced Level Pronunciation Activities . IPA Transcription Lesson - Lesson focusing on continuing students familiarity with the IPA in order to focus on the issue of connected speech in English.

Pronunciation Activities from FluentU - Make pronunciation fun with these clever ideas.

TILLARNI O`QITISH METODIKASI

GLOSSARY

Active listening is perception of an oral language with particular attention to the message.

Articulation is a set of movements by the articulation organs (tongue, lips, etc] in order to pronounce speech sounds.

Audio-lingual method is a way to teach a foreign language through intense repetitions of language patterns.

Balanced essay contains an equal share of arguments both "for" and "against".

Bottom-up listening is an act of processing an oral message starting from the physical signal and ending up with the message.

Bottom-up reading strategy is perceiving the text and extracting information.

Brainstorming is a procedure of eliciting creative ideas in the course of spontaneous exchange of opinions, their uncritical registration and subsequent selection of the most useful suggestions.

Communicative approach is a theory of teaching and learning foreign languages that recognizes the primacy of communication as the goal and the media of instruction.

Communicative competence is the knowledge that is necessary for successful communication.

Communicative function is an oral language activity to request or give information, to perform rituals or to manipulate each other's behavior. **Communicative method** is a way to teach a foreign language through communication for the purposes of communication.

Communicative principles are guiding rules of instruction in the framework of the communicative approach.

Communicative situation is a set of circumstances, in which it is necessary to use language for communication in order to achieve the desired goal. **Communicative strategies** are the means and maneuvers of communication to deal with the goal, partner and circumstances.

Communicative techniques are the devices to organize teaching in compliance with communicative principles.

Community language teaching is a teaching approach that emphasizes the importance of students' co-operation, support and interaction.

Comprehension of words is understanding the meaning of words.

Consonant is a speech sound with an abstraction on the way of the air passage.

Critical reading is reading with the activated thought processes.

Critique is reading for critical analysis.

Cued reading is reading the parts of the text, which are relevant to the given directions.

Debate is a genre of group dialogue, in which speakers attempt to find a solution by overcoming differences.

Deciding process is responsible for turning the verbal signal into the inferred message in the mind of the listener (or reader].

Derivation is the process of producing words from a stem with the help of affixation and other word-building models (e.g. conversion from nouns to verbs).

Dialogue is a genre of conversation between two or more people with an exchange of relatively short terms.

Diphthong is a vowel with a glide that is considered to be one phoneme. **Direct method** is a way to teach a foreign language by switching over exclusively to the target language in the classroom and intense grammar structure practice.

Discourse (oral discourse) is a continuous stretch of spoken language in the dialogue or monologue mode featuring communicative message, cohesion, coherence and contextual reference.

Discussion is a genre of group dialogue, in which speakers attempt to seek a solution by looking at various aspects of the problem from various angles.

Essay is a genre of writing that focuses on a thesis and develops it.

Exercises for teaching to listen are the activities done with the purpose to reinforce listening skills.

Exposition is putting on paper the description of situational circumstances.

Expressive writing is putting on paper one's own thoughts and feelings (as in a diary).

Extensive listening is the perception of oral information with the search for the gist.

Grammar-translation method is a way to teach a foreign language with the help of contrastive native and target grammar analysis.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Group discussion is a problem-solving activity with a puzzle, conflict of opinions and problem-resolution as a result of concerted group efforts.

Guided reading is seeking information in the text, which is relevant to the given questions.

Hearing is an act of receiving an oral message.

Humanistic approach is an teaching theory that recognizes the necessity to facilitate free and creative development of the personality.

Ideational structure is the mental representation of the message a listener gets from hearing (or a reader gets from reading).

Idiom is a figure of speech, the meaning of which cannot be drawn from its elements.

Information gap is a technique to give the students complementary information, which they have to pool together in the process of communication in order to fulfill the task.

Informative writing is putting on paper ideas and data intended to create knowledge in the reader.

Intensive listening is perception of an oral message with interpretation and inferences.

Interactive learning is instruction using tasks that can't be fulfilled by isolated
students but require co-operation.

Interactive reading is employing more than one reading strategy, such as "top-down" and "bottom-up".

Intonation is a change in the pitch of voice that plays a significant part in communicating structural organization of an oral utterance, types of sentences and individual attitudes.

Jigsaw listening is an activity, during which participants listen to two
(or more) different yet related pieces of language with subsequent interactive work.

Jigsaw reading is reading topic-related texts or parts of the same text and subsequently pooling the information together.

Lexical competence is the knowledge of how to use vocabulary for communication.

Lexical mind-map is a cluster of words that are associated with a central concept.

Lexicon is vocabulary that is often specialized and related to a certain field.

Listening is a communicative skill with the purpose of receiving, comprehending and interpreting an oral message.

Mental lexicon is vocabulary in mind.

Metaphor is a figure of speech, in which lexical meaning is shifted to a different object and a word is used to denote figuratively a dissimilar thing (often done to add more expression to speech).

Modal auxiliary is a type of auxiliary verb expressing permission (may), obligation (must), ability (can), prediction (will), etc.

Modal verbs express modality, i.e. the dimension of an utterance to reveal "personal component" in the message. E.g. Your mom MUST HAVE DONE the cooking (strong supposition). Modal verbs are sometimes called "defective" as most of them do not permit particle "to" before the infinitive. E.g. He CAN BUY anything.

Monologue is a relatively long speech turn.

Mood classifies verbs as indicative (It was late) or subjunctive (If it were late...).

Narration is a genre of monologue, in which a speaker describes a process or an event in chronological order.

Natural approach is a way to teach a foreign language through massive exposure to the comprehensible language input in the classroom.

Passive voice expresses an action done to a subject. E.g. The ball was kicked at last.

Phoneme is a speech sound that is capable of distinguishing the meaning of words if it is substituted by another sound.

Phonetic competence is the knowledge of correct pronunciation.

Phrasal verbs consist of a verb and a preposition/adverb making up an idiomatic expression.

Polysemy is the property of many words to have more than one meaning.

Presentation is a communicative technique of bringing before the public the results of one's individual or group performance.

Principles of teaching to listen are the guiding rules that prompt the choice of the teaching tasks, techniques and activities.

Problem-solving is a communicative technique with a puzzle, conflict of opinions and problem-resolution as a result of individual or group efforts.

Project is an activity to resolve a problem by tapping available resources and producing a final product.

Pronunciation drill is an activity that is based on language rehearsal with the purpose of practicing pronunciation.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Pronunciation errors are phonetic inaccuracies that stem from the fallacious idea of what correct pronunciation should be.

Pronunciation mistakes are occasional inaccuracies against the background of a generally correct pronunciation.

Reasoning is a genre of monologue, in which a speaker follows a logical sequence and comes to a conclusion.

Receptive skill is a communicative skill of receiving either an oral message (listening) or a written message (reading).

Reflexive pronouns are followed by "self. E.g. myself.

Role-play is a communicative technique with role distribution, plot development and resolution of the situation.

Scanning is reading for details.

Short-term memory (also: processing memory) retains a meaningful digest of the compressed information in the course of listening to provide for consistent comprehension. Silent **way** is a teaching method that attempts to combine creative thinking with the minimum of language resources available to the learners (using colored roods, etc.].

Simulation is a technique to replicate in the classroom real world situations for the purposes of communicative language teaching.

Skimming is reading for the gist.

Speaking is a communicative skill of sending an oral message.

Tasks for teaching to listen are the teaching/learning assignments with a challenge for the learners.

Techniques for teaching to listen are the ways to run teaching activities.

Text-oriented reading is using the text as the source of information.

Tongue-twisters are phrases that are difficult to pronounce because the sounds easily get confused in them.

Top-down listening is an act of processing an oral message starting with a presumption that can be corrected in the course of listening.

Top-down reading strategy is proceeding from prior information and integrating it in the text.

Total physical response is a way of teaching that combines language rehearsals with physical activities.

Transitive verbs take one or more complements. E.g. I gave HER MONEY ("give" is a transitive verb).

Vocabulary is the sum of words that have been acquired by a particular person.

Vowel is a speech sound with a free air passage.

Word-clusters are words brought together by associations.

proficiency test a test that measures a learner's language background and skills (often used as a "placement test")**intermediate** language learning level between beginner and advanced; learners at this level typically have a working English vocabulary and can communicate in real situations with effort**international English** (also "Global or World English") used in reference to English being named a global language of communication

Conversion-the process of changing from one system,method ,or use to another

Stem-the part of a word that does not change an ending is added

Synchronic-relating to the study of something, especially a language, at one particular time without considering its history

Blending-a word formed by combining parts of two other words

Clipping-a small piece that you remove when you cut something to make it tidy

Variant-something that is related to another thing but is not exactly the same

Dialect-a way of speaking a language that is used only in a particular area or by particular group

Research-to make a detailed study of something in order to discover new facts

Descriptive-describing something:descriptive language

Lexicography-the job of writing a dictionary

Language-the method of human communication using spoken or written words

Phoneme-an individual speech sound that makes one word different from another

Morpheme- the smallest unit of meaning in a language

Speech- 1.a formal occasion when someone speaks to an audience 2.The ability to speak

System-1.a set of connected things that work together for a particular purpose2.a method of organizing or doing

Structure-the way in which the parts of something are organized or arranged into a whole

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI
OLIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA'LIM VAZIRLIGI
QARSHI DAVLAT UNIVERSITETINING PEDAGOGIKA INSTITUTI

"TASDIQLAYMAN"
Shahrisabz davlat pedagogika
institute rektori v.b
_____J.Shonazarov
2023 yil "____" avgust

Ro'yxatga olindi: № _____
2023 yil "____" avgust

Ingliz tili o'qitish metodikasi
FAN DASTURI

Bilim sohasi: 100000   - Ta'lim
Ta'lim sohasi: 110000   - Ta'lim
Ta'lim yo'nalishi: 5111400   - Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili)

SHAHRISAB – 2023

Fan/modul kodi ITO'M156712	O'quv yili 2022/2023	Semester 5-6-7	ECTS- Kreditlar 12
Fan/modul turi Majburiy	Ta'lim tili Ingliz		Haftadagi dars soatlari 4

1.	Fanning nomi	Auditoriya mashg'ulotlari (soat)	Mustaqil ta'lim (soat)	Jami yuklama (soat)
	Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi	**180**	**180**	**360**
2.	**I Fanning mazmuni**			

I Fanning mazmuni

Fanni o'qitishdan maqsadi: mazkur sohada ta'lim oluvchilarni bo'lajak kasbiy faoloyatlarida zarur bo'lgan nazariy bilimlar bilan qurollantirishdan iborat. Mazkur maqsadga erishish talabalarning chet til o'qitish metodikasi usullari va zamonaviy ta'lim texnologiyalarni o'rgatishni nazarda tutadi. Mazkur fan bo'yicha o'zlashtirilgan bilimlar talabalarning kelgusida kasbiy faoliyatlarida asos bo'ladi. Ularning umumta'lim muassasalari (umumta'lim o'rta maktab, akademik litsey va kasb-hunar kollejlari) da o'qituvchilik faoliyati bilan shug'ullanishlariga zamin yaratadi.

Fanning vazifalari: mazkur dastur zamonaviy tilshunoslikning nazariy va amaliy ahamiyatiga molik aspektlarini yaxlit tizim sifatida o'rganishga undaydi. Fanda egallangan bilimlar o'quv jarayonida amaliy ko'nikmalarni mukammallashtirishga asos bo'ladi. Ushbu fan orqali talabalar hozirgi fanga doir nazariy va amaliy muammolarni to'g'ri hamda ijodiy hal qilishga yordam beradi.II. Asosiy qism (amaliy mashg'ulotlar)

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi fani o'z ichiga quyidagi mavzu va til materiallarini qamrab oladi:

5 smestr

- 1-mavzu: Metodikaga kirish. Chet tilini o'qitishda metodlarning turlari.
- 2-mavzu: Lingua-madaniy ta'lim va ta'lim.
- 3-mavzu: O'qitish metodlarida metod tanlash uchun yosh guruhlari.
- 4-mavzu: Kompyuter texnologiyalari yordamida tillarni o'qitish va o'rganish. Kompyuter yordamida til o'rganish
- 5-mavzu: Til o'rganish tamoyillari.
- 6-mavzu: Ingliz tilini o'qitishda darslikdan foydalanish va baholash.
- 7-mavzu:EFL sinfda sahih materiallar foydalanish.
- 8-mavzu: Ehtiyojlar tahlili. Muayyan maqsadlar uchun ingliz tilini o'rgatish.
- 9-mavzu: Ikkinchi tilni o'qitish uchun o'quv rejasi va o'quv rejasi
- 10-mavzu: Baholash tushunchalari va masalalari
- 11-mavzu: Tilni baholash tamoyillari
- 12-mavzu: Grammatikani O'rgatish.
- 13-mavzu: Grammatikani baholash
- 14-mavzu: Lug'atni o'rgatish
- 15-mavzu: Lug'atni baholash

  Har bir fan bo'yicha amaliy mashg'ulotlar multimedia vositalari bilan jihozlangan auditoriyada o'tkazilishi zarur. Mashg'ulotlar faol va interaktiv usullar yordamida o'tilishi, mos ravishda munosib pedagogik va axborot texnologiyalar qo'llanilishi maqsadga muvofiq.

6 smestr

- 1-mavzu: O'qitishning an'anaviy va innovatsion modellari
- 2-mavzu: Chet tilida sinflarni boshqarish
- 3-mavzu: Zamonaviy pedagogik texnologiyalardan foydalangan holda kontekstlar
- 4-mavzu: Loyiha usullari va vazifalarga asoslangan ingliz tilini o'qitish
- 5-mavzu: Ikkinchi Tilni Tinglash
- 6-mavzu: Tushunish: akademik tinglashning jarayoni va pedagogikasi
- 7-mavzu: Tinglash qobiliyatini baholash.
- 8-mavzu: Ikkinchi tilni o'rgatish nutq qobiliyatlari.
- 9-mavzu: Nutq qobiliyatini baholash
- 10-mavzu: Yozuv malakalarini o'rgatish
- 11-mavzu: Yozish qobiliyatini baholash
- 12-mavzu: Ingliz tilida o'qishni o'rgatish.
- 13-mavzu: Yozish qobiliyatini baholash.
- 14-mavzu: Talaffuzni o'rgatish va baholash.

7-smestr

1-mavzu: Classroom management and teacher-learner interaction
2-mavzu: The language learning task : TBL, CBL, PBL
3-mavzu: Blended learning and flipped classroom
4-mavzu: Learner differences: teaching heterogeneous classes
5-mavzu: Competences in teaching foreign languages
6-mavzu: Teacher development
7-mavzu: Error Correction
8-mavzu: Developing Writing skills
9-mavzu: Developing Reading skills
10-mavzu: Developing Speaking skills
11-mavzu: Developing Listening skills
12-mavzu: Developing vocabulary skills
13-mavzu: Monitoring and Assesing learning
14-mavzu: English teaching today: worldwide experience

III. Mustaqil ta'lim va mustaqil ishlar

5 Smestr.

1.	Metoddan keyingi davrda ingliz tilini o'qitish. H. Duglas Braun 1-Bob.	4 hours
2.	Til o'qitishda ingliz tilini o'qitish nazariyalari. Alisher C. Richards. 2-bob.	4 hours
3.	Dars rejasini ishlab chiqish Thomas S. C. Farell bob 3	4 hours
4.	Sinflarni boshqarish Marily Lyuis bob 4	4 hours
5.	Kooperativ O'rganishni Amalga Oshirish. Jorj M. Jeykobs va Stiven Xoll bob 5	4 hours
6.	Aralash darajadagi o'qitish: Bill bouler va Syu Parminter bob 6	4 hours

7.	Qatlamlik Vazifalari Va Qiyshiq Vazifalar. Bill bouler va Syu Parminter bob 6	4 hours
8.	ELT o'quv dasturi: o'zgaruvchan dunyo uchun qulay Model. Denise Finney bob 7	4 hours
9.	Til sinfida materiallarning roli. Balansni topish. Jeyn Krouford bob 8	4 hours
10.	Devid Beglar va Alan Xant kabi vazifalarga asoslangan tillarni o'qitishni amalga oshirish. bob 9	4 hours
11.	Loyiha ishi: Langue va tarkibni targ'ib qilish vositasi Fredricka L. Stoller. bob 10	4 hours
12.	Utshellda tilni o'rganish strategiyalari: yangilash va haqiqiy takliflar. Rebeccaa L. Oxford bob 11	4 hours
13.	Grammatikani o'qitishning ettita yomon sababi – va ikkita yaxshi sabab. Michael Svan bob 13	4 hours
14.	Grammatikani o'qitish	4 hours
15.	Metoddan keyingi davrda ingliz tilini o'qitish. H. Duglas Braun 1-Bob.	4 hours

6-smestr.

1.	1. Beyond tinglang va takrorlang: talaffuz o'rgatish. Ikkinchi tilni o'zlashtirish materiallari va nazariyalari. Rodney H. Jones. Bob 16	4 hours
2.	2. Cnsider uchun omillar: ault EFL talabalarning nutq qobiliyatini rivojlantirish. Kang Shumin. 17-bob	4 hours
3.	3. So'zlashuv ingliz tili: Interaktiv, hamkorlikdagi va aks ettiruvchi yondashuv 18-bob	4 hours
4.	4. ESL Classrromda munozara ko'nikmalarini rivojlantirish. Kristofer F. Yashil. 20-bob	4 hours
5.	5. Tilni o'rganishda tinglash Devid Nunan 21-bob	4 hours
6.	6. So'z turkumlarini o'rgatishdagi hozirgi tadqiqot va Amaliyot24	4 hours
7.	7. Ikkinchi tilni o'qish qobiliyatini rivojlantirish Chapter26	4 hours
8.	8. Strategik O'qish Chapter27 Ni O'rgatish	4 hours
9.	9. Yozish kursini rejalashtirish va yozuv o'qituvchilarini tayyorlashning o'n bosqichi. 29-bob	4 hours
10.	10. Yozish jarayoni va jarayoni yozish 30-bob	4 hours
11.	11. Tez-tez so'raladigan savollarga muqobil baholash javoblari 33-bob	4 hours
12.	12. Talabalarning yozilishiga baho berish va javob berishning noan'anaviy shakllari. 34-bob	4 hours
13.	13. Video ELT Darslari	4 hours
14.	1.tinglash va takrorlash: talaffuz o'rgatish. Ikkinchi tilni o'zlashtirish materiallari va nazariyalari. Rodney H. Jones. Bob 16	4 hours
15.	2. kata yosh talabalarning nutq qobiliyatini rivojlantirish. Kang Shumin. 17-bob	4 hours

7- smestr.

1	1. Beyond tinglang va takrorlang: talaffuz o'rgatish.	4 hours

			Ikkinchi tilni o'zlashtirish materiallari va nazariyalari. Rodney H. Jones. Bob 16	
		2	2. Cnsider uchun omillar: ault EFL talabalarning nutq qobiliyatini rivojlantirish. Kang Shumin. 17-bob	4 hours
		3	3. So'zlashuv ingliz tili: Interaktiv, hamkorlikdagi va aks ettiruvchi yondashuv 18-bob	4 hours
		4	4. ESL Classrromda munozara ko'nikmalarini rivojlantirish. Kristofer F. Yashil. 20-bob	4 hours
		5	5. Tilni o'rganishda tinglash Devid Nunan 21-bob	4 hours
		6	6. So'z turkumlarini o'rgatishdagi hozirgi tadqiqot va Amaliyot24	4 hours
		7	7. Ikkinchi tilni o'qish qobiliyatini rivojlantirish Chapter26	4 hours
		8	8. Strategik O'qish Chapter27 Ni O'rgatish	4 hours
		9	9. Yozish kursini rejalashtirish va yozuv o'qituvchilarini tayyorlashning o'n bosqichi. 29-bob	4 hours
		10	10. Yozish jarayoni va jarayoni yozish 30-bob	4 hours
		11	11. Tez-tez so'raladigan savollarga muqobil baholash javoblari 33-bob	4 hours
		12	12. Talabalarning yozilishiga baho berish va javob berishning noan'anaviy shakllari. 34-bob	4 hours
		13	13. Video ELT Darslari	4 hours
		14	1.tinglash va takrorlash: talaffuz o'rgatish. Ikkinchi tilni o'zlashtirish materiallari va nazariyalari. Rodney H. Jones. Bob 16	4 hours
		15	2. kata yosh talabalarning nutq qobiliyatini rivojlantirish. Kang Shumin. 17-bob	4 hours

3.	**IV. Fan o'qitilishining natijalari (shakllanadigan kompetensiyalar)**

Fanni o'zlashtirish natijasida talaba:

-Chet tillarni o'qitishning muayyan O'zbek modeli.

-Maktab, litsey va kollejlarda chet tilini o'qitishning metodikasi.

-Chet tillarini o'qitish metodlarini tanlashda o'quvchilarning yosh turkumini inobatga olish;

- Chet tillarini o'qitish metodlarini tanlashda o'quvchilarning psixologik xususiyatlarini inobatga olish;

- Chet tillarini o'qitish metodlarini tanlashda o'quvchilarning chet tilidan joriy bilim darajasini inobatga olish;

-Til o'rganish av o'rgatish tamoyillari;

-Dunyo bo'ylab chet tillarini o'rganish va o'qitish;

-Chet tillarini o'qitishda joriy materyallarni tanlash va ularni darsga tadbiq etish;

- Chet tilini o'qitish bosqichlari;

4.	**V. Ta'lim texnologiyalari va metodlari:**
	• interfaol keys-stadilar;
	• amaliy mashg'ulotlar (mantiqiy fikrlash, tezkor savol-javoblar);
	• guruh, mikroguruh bo'lib ishlash;
	• taqdimotlarni qilish;
	• individual loyihalar;
	• jamoa bo'lib ishlash va himoya qilish uchun loyihalar.
5.	**VI. Kreditlarni olish uchun talablar:**
	Chet til o'qitish metodikasi fanini o'qitish jarayonida ta'limning zamonaviy metodlari, pedagogic va axborot-kommunikatsiya texnologiyalaridan foydalanish nazarda tutilgan. Bular:
	-zamonaviy audio-video vositalari va kompyuter texnologiyalari yordamida ma'ruzalarni o'qish;
	-amaliy mashg'ulotlar darslarida aqliy hujum, tanqidiy fikrlash, tarozi, bumerang, dialog, polilog kabi interfaol usullardan foydalanish;
	-kichik guruh musobaqalari, internet yangiliklari va ilg'or pedogogik texnologiyalarni qo'llash nazarda tutiladi.
	Bundan tashqari tizimli yondashuv asosida talabalarning o'qish-bilish faoliyatini tasvirlaydigan ta'lim jarayonining loyihasi tuzib chiqiladi. Ta'lim maqsadi real, aniq diagnostik bo'lishiga erishiladi va talabaning bilimi, o'zlashtirish sifati obyektiv baholanadi. Ta'lim jarayonining tuzilishi va mazmuni yaxlitligiga erishiladi.
6.	**Asosiy adabiyotlar**
	Ingliz tili
	1. GÁNALE, M. and SWAIN, M. 1980. "Theoretical basis of communicative approacfies to second language teaching and testing". Applied Linguistics, 1,1.
	2. ELLIS, R. 1985. Understanding Second Language Acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
	3. Jalolov J 'Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi'.
	Qo'shimcha adabiyotlar
	Ingliz tili
	1. Byram, M., & Zarate, G. (1997). Defining and assessing intercultural competence: Some principles and proposals for the European context. Language Teaching, 29, 239–243
	2. . COUNCIL OF EUROPE. (2001). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press. [online]. www.coe.int/lang
	3. Warschauer, M., & Healey, D. (1998). Computers and language learning: An

	overview. Language Teaching, 31, 57-71. Available:http://www.gse.uci.edu/person/warschauer_m/overview.html **Axborot manbalari** **Ingliz tili** 1. www.developreading.com 2. www.teachingenglish.org.uk 3. www.online-literature.com 4. www.literature.org 5. www.onestopenglish.com
7.	Fan dasturi Qarshi davlat universiteti Pedagogika Instituti Kengashining 2021 yil " " avgustdagi 1-sonli bayonnomasi bilan ma'qullangan.
8.	**Fan/ modul uchun mas'ullar:** Z.B.Allayarova - "Xorijiy tili va adabiyoti" kafedrasi mudiri, f.f.f.d.PhD dotsent v.b. F.S. Niyazova- "Xorijiy tili va adabiyoti" kafedrasi katta o`qituvchisi.
9.	**Taqrizchilar:** N.A.Sa`dullayeva - f.f.f.d.DSc O`ZMU dotsenti Z.R.Yaxshiyeva - f.f.f.d.PhD TATU Qarshi filiali dotsenti

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

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SHAHRISABZ DAVLAT PEDAGOGIKA INSTITUTI

№ 69

"Tasdiqlayman"
O'quv ishlari bo'yicha prorektor
"30" ___ 2023 yil

"INGLIZ TILI O'QITISH METODIKASI"
FANIDAN ISHCHI O'QUV DASTURI (SILLABUS)
(III- zurs uchun)

Bilim sohasi: 100000   –   Ta'lim
Ta'lim sohasi: 110000   –   Ta'lim
Ta'lim yo'nalishi: 60111800   –   Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili)

Shahrisabz – 2023

Muallif:
F-mialli:
Tashkilot: Shahrisabz davlat pedagogika instituti, "Xorijiy tillar" kafedrasi

Taqrizchilar: Filologiya fanlari bo'yicha falsafa doktori (PhD) ...
               dotsent   Z.B.Allayarova
               Pedagogika fanlari bo'yicha falsafa doktori (PhD) ...
               ... asalliyeva

Fan o'qituvchisi to'g'risida ma'lumot

Mazkur Sillabus ... 2023-2024 o'quv yili kengashining 2023-yil 28-avgustdagi ...
sonli yig'ilishida ko'rib chiqilib tasdiqlangan.

O'qun-uslubiy kengash...

O'qun-uslubiy ... boshlig'i:

Fakultet dekani: A.Berdiyev

Kafedra mudiri: A.Muhammadiyev
                                Z.Allayarova

Tuzuvchi: F.Niyozova

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

TILLAR O'QITISH METODIKASI VA TA'LIM TEXNOLOGIYALARI FANIDAN

TEST SAVOLLARI

Tuzuvchi:
O`qituvchi: F.Niyazova

1 What is the main characteristics of GrammarTranslation method?

#Translate from English into your native language

Student learns by associating meaning directly in English

Listening and speaking drills and pattern practice only in English

English grammar rules deduced and then understood in context

2 What is the main characteristics of Direct Method (also called Natural Method)?

Translate from English into your native language

#Student learns by associating meaning directly in English

Listening and speaking drills and pattern practice only in English

English grammar rules deduced and then understood in context

3 What is the main characteristics of Audio-LingualMethod method?

Translate from English into your native language

Student learns by associating meaning directly in English

#Listening and speaking drills and pattern practice only in English

English grammar rules deduced and then understood in context

4 What is the main characteristics of Cognitive Code Approach method?

Translate from English into your native language

Student learns by associating meaning directly in English

Listening and speaking drills and pattern practice only in English

#English grammar rules deduced and then understood in context

5 What is the main characteristics of The Silent Way

Chet tili oʻqitish metodikasi.

method?

Teacher is silent to allow student awareness of how English works

Relaxed atmosphere, with music; encourages subliminal learning of English

Understanding of English through active student interaction

English speaking delayed until students are ready; meaning clarified through actions and visuals

6 What is the main characteristics of Suggestopedia method?

Teacher is silent to allow student awareness of how English works

Relaxed atmosphere, with music; encourages subliminal learning of English

Understanding of English through active student interaction

English speaking delayed until students are ready; meaning clarified through actions and visuals

7 What is the main characteristics of Community Language Learning method?

Teacher is silent to allow student awareness of how English works

Relaxed atmosphere, with music; encourages subliminal learning of English

Understanding of English through active student interaction

English speaking delayed until students are ready; meaning clarified through actions and visuals

8 What is the main characteristics of Comprehension Approach (Natural Approach, the Learnables, and Total Physical Response method?

Teacher is silent to allow student awareness of how English works

Relaxed atmosphere, with music; encourages subliminal learning of English

Understanding of English through active student interaction

English speaking delayed until students are ready; meaning clarified through actions and visuals

9What is the main characteristics of Communicative Language Teaching method?

Understanding of English through active student interaction; role play, games, information gaps

Content based on relevance to students' lives: topics, tasks, problem-solving

Teach learning strategies, cooperation; activities vary according to different intelligences

10What is the main characteristics of Content-based, Task-based, and Participatory Approaches method?

Understanding of English through active student interaction; role play, games, information gaps

Content based on relevance to students' lives: topics, tasks, problem-solving

Teach learning strategies, cooperation; activities vary according to different intelligences

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

11 What is the main characteristics of Learning Strategy Training, Cooperative Learning, and Multiple Intelligences?

Understanding of English through active student interaction; role play, games, information gaps

Content based on relevance to students' lives: topics, tasks, problem-solving

Teach learning strategies, cooperation; activities vary according to different intelligences

12 The grammar-translation method originated from the practice of teaching ……. ?

#Latin

French

Spanish

English

13 In this method the teaching is done entirely in the target language. The learner is not allowed to use his or her mother tongue. Grammar rules are avoided and there is emphasis on good pronunciation.

GrammarTranslation

#Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

14 This method is based on the direct involvement of the student when speaking, and listening to, the foreign language in common everyday situations.

GrammarTranslation

#Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

15 There is lots of oral interaction, spontaneous use of the language, no translation, and little if any analysis of grammar rules and syntax.

GrammarTranslation

#Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

16Learning is largely by translation to and from the target language.

#GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

17 Grammar rules are to be memorized and long lists of vocabulary learned by heart. There is little or no emphasis placed on developing oral ability.

#GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

18 It is a derivation of the classical (sometimes called traditional) method of teaching Greek and Latin.

#GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

19 According to this method students learn grammatical rules and then apply those rules for translating sentences between the target language and their native language. Advanced students may be required to translate whole texts word-for-word.

#GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

20 Vocabulary: grammar emphasizes; reading, writing are primary skills; pronunciation and other speaking/listening skills not emphasized.

#GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

21Students translate a reading passage from the target language into their native language.

#GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

22 Students are given a series of sentences with words missing. They fill in the blanks with new vocabulary items or with items of a particular grammar type, such as prepositions or verbs with different tenses.

#GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

23 There is a lot of student-teacher interaction, there is little student-student interaction, and there is little student interaction. Little attention is given to speaking and listening skills, and almost none to pronunciation.

#GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

Audio-LingualMethod

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

CognitiveCodeApproach

24 The theory behind this method is that learning a language means acquiring habits. There is much practice of dialogues of every situations.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

25 New language is first heard and extensively drilled before being seen in its written form.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

26is a method of teaching foreign languages that was commonly used in mid-fifties and developed from the Aural-Oral or Structural Approach and "Army method" of teaching and learning languages.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

27Is a technique of memorization and repetition in simple foreign language patterns.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

28the students understood and memorized how to say some language patterns orally, they could try to do reading and writing activities. In order to minimize the possible mistakes, reading and writing exercises are based on what students already know how to say orally.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

29 Repetition, oral drills and memorization of simple patterns are the basis of ……………….

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

30 Characteristics of the method - New vocabulary and structural patterns are presented through dialogs. The dialogs are learned through imitation and repetition.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

31 Drills are conducted based upon the patterns present in the dialog. Students' successful responses are positively reinforced.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

Teachers don´t improve teaching grammar rules.

32 Reading and writing work is based upon the oral work they did earlier, so students are not allowed to produced new vocabulary by their own.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Audio-LingualMethod

CognitiveCodeApproach

33 In this method attempts are made to build strong personal links between the teacher and student so that there are no blocks to learning. There is much talk in the mother tongue which is translated by the teacher for repetition by the student.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Communicative Language Teaching

CognitiveCodeApproach

34 The teacher creates a good environment. They correct their students in a good way They have to know everything related to the topic. Teachers have to use a good voice sound and a good intonation.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Suggestopedia

CognitiveCodeApproach

35 The teacher teaches the material in "a playful manner" instead of analyzing lexis and grammar of the text in a directive manner.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Suggestopedia

CognitiveCodeApproach

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

36 Teachers should act as a real partner to the students, participating in the activities such as games and songs "naturally" and "genuinely."

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Suggestopedia

CognitiveCodeApproach

37 The students sing classical songs and play games while the teacher acts more like a consultant. The students finish off what they have learned in the class with dramas, songs, and games.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Suggestopedia

CognitiveCodeApproach

38 Techniques of this method: -visualization: Students are asked to close their eyes and visualize scenes and events, to help them relax, facilitate positive suggestion and encourage creativity from the students.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Suggestopedia

CognitiveCodeApproach

39 Music was central to this method. Baroque music created the kind of "relaxing concentration" that leads to learn. According to Lozanov, during the soft playing of baroque music, one can take in tremendous quantities information due to an increase in alpha brain waves and a decrease in blood pressure and pulse rate.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

#Suggestopedia

CognitiveCodeApproach

40 works by having the learner respond to simple commands such as "Stand up", "Close your book", "Go to the window and open it." The method stresses the importance of aural comprehension.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

Total Physical Response

CognitiveCodeApproach

41 This method is applied through involving students in physical activities.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

Total Physical Response

CognitiveCodeApproach

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

42techniques that we would use is Role plays on every day situation so that the students can make use of physical movements through performing a given situation for example, at a restaurant at the movies.

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

CognitiveCodeApproach

Total Physical Response

43 Other useful technique is the use of songs and games to teach the parts of the body. For example the use of ¨Simon says¨ that consist of giving commands for the students to perform them.

Total Physical Response

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

CognitiveCodeApproach

44 This is so called because the aim of the teacher is to say as little as possible in order that the learner can be in control of what he wants to say. No use is made of the mother tongue.

Total Physical Response

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

Silent Way

45 is an innovative method that focuses on the importance of problem-solving approach in education. The method is constructivist, and helps the learners to create their own conceptual models of de aspects of language.

Total Physical Response

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

Silent Way

46 This approach, propounded by Professor S. Krashen, stresses the similarities between learning the first and second languages. There is no correction of mistakes.

#The Natural Approach

Total Physical Response

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

47 The approach adheres to a communicative approach to language teaching and rejects earlier methods such as the audiolingual method and the situational laguage teaching approach which Krashen and terrell (1983) believe are not based on "actual theories of language acquisition but theories of the structure of language¨.

Total Physical Response

#The Natural Approach

GrammarTranslation

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

48teacher creates a classroom atmosphere that is interesting, friendly, and in which there
is a low affective filter for learning. This is achieved in part through such .... techniques as
not demanding speech from the students before they are ready for it, not correcting student errors, and
providing subject matter of high interest to students.

Total Physical Response

#The Natural Approach

GrammarTranslation

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

49The focus of the teaching is on the completion of a task which in itself is interesting to the learners.
Learners use the language they already have to complete the task and there is little correction of errors

Total Physical Response

The Natural Approach

#Task-based language learning

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

50 In the topic of ecology, for example, students are engaged in a number of tasks culminating in a poster
presentation to the rest of the class. The tasks include reading, searching the internet, listening to taped
material, selecting important vocabulary to teach other students etc.)

Total Physical Response

#Task-based language learning

The Natural Approach

Direct Method (also called Natural Method)

51 The aim of intercultural learning…………..

is teaching grammar in different contexts

is to improve four language skills.

#is to increase international and cross-cultural tolerance and understanding

Is to make learners to be able to communicate with different types of people.

53 is an attempt to raise students' awareness of their own culture, and in so doing, help
them to interpret and understand other cultures. It is not just a body of knowledge, but a set of practices
requiring knowledge, skills and attitudes.

#Intercultural communicative competence

Communicative competence.

Receptive skills

Productive skills.

54 Learners can also develop their …………….. through cultural connotations of vocabulary which may
draw different pictures for people from different cultures. Teachers can ask learners to draw a spidergram
about words associated with family or breakfast.

#Cultural   awareness

Communicative competence.

Chet tili oʻqitish metodikasi.

Receptive skills

Productive skills.

55 To arouse learners' interest, motivation and curiosity for .... , teachers and learners can decorate their classrooms with cultural images of the target culture. For example, teachers and learners can bring photos of families from different cultures or posters and pictures of some typical types of British food and drinks to make a culture wallchart

#Intercultural communicative competence

Communicative competence.

Receptive skills

Productive skills.

56 According to .... Learners can also bring some authentic materials about family life in the target culture, or eating and drinking habits of English people to share with the whole class. Such activities will make the lessons more interesting and learners will feel more motivated in learning about the target culture.

Communicative competence.

#Intercultural communicative teaching

Receptive skills

Productive skills.

57 Learners can conduct ethnographic interviews with native English speakers to interpret and construct their own mode l of..................... through the exploration of family values or eating and drinking norms in the target culture.

#Cultural learning.

Communicative learning .

Receptive skills.

Productive skills.

58 Learners are then asked to present an oral report about what they have known about the target culture from their interviews. Ethnographic interviews are used because of a variety of cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes they offer.

#Cultural learning.

Communicative learning .

Receptive skills.

Productive skills.

59 means that students should be involved in oral and written communication throughout
the whole course of learning English................................are best achieved by giving great attention to language use and not just usage, to fluency and not just accuracy, to authentic language and contexts, and not just parallel structures.

#The Principle of Communicative Competence

The Principle of an Integrated Approach

The Principle of Conscious Approach

The Principle of Activity

60 Students do not assimilate sounds, grammar units, lexical items as discrete components of the language, but they acquire them in sentence-patterns, and pattern-dialogues related to certain situations. Students should use their skills as interdependent parts of their language experience. grammar structures, rules and lexical material.

The Principle of Communicative Competence

#The Principle of an Integrated Approach

The Principle of Conscious Approach

The Principle of Activity

61 Consequently, we should differentiate between teaching speaking and writing; teaching listening comprehension and speaking; teaching reading and writing; teaching prepared and unprepared speech, etc.

The Principle of Communicative Competence

#The Principle of an Integrated Approach

The Principle of Conscious Approach

The Principle of Activity

62 The teaching process should also be done in integrated way – all types of activity – listening, speaking, reading and writing are developed simultaneously with regard to their interaction.

The Principle of Communicative Competence

#The Principle of an Integrated Approach

The Principle of Conscious Approach

The Principle of Activity

63 Students understand both the form and the content of the material they are to learn. Students are also aware of how they should treat the material while performing various exercises. Such an approach to language learning usually contrasts with "mechanical" learning through repetitive drill.

The Principle of Communicative Competence

The Principle of an Integrated Approach

The Principle of Activity

#The Principle of Conscious Approach

64 The didactic .... is one of the leading principles because conscious learning plays an important role in language acquisition, enlarges intellectual capacities of learners, and helps to understand new concepts and express new ideas in the target language.

The Principle of Communicative Competence

The Principle of an Integrated Approach

The Principle of Activity

#The Principle of Conscious Approach

65 This principle implies that mastering English is only possible if the student is an active participant in the process of learning. From psychology we know that activity arises under certain conditions.

The Principle of Communicative Competence

The Principle of an Integrated Approach

#The Principle of Activity

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

The Principle of Conscious Approach

66 can be obtained through guesswork, problem-solving questions, reading texts with their subsequent interpretation.

#The intellectual activity

Emotional activity

Integrogative activity

Communicative activity

67 takes place when the pupils are pleased with the work they perform, when they like to learn a FL, and like the way of teaching. Speech activity appears during oral communication and is largely due to the intellectual and emotional activity which "feeds" it.

#The intellectual activity

Emotional activity

Integrogative activity

Communicative activity

68 may be defined as a specially organized demonstration of linguistic material of the target language. Since pupils learn a foreign language in artificial conditions and not in real life, as in the case when children acquire their mother tongue.

#The Principle of Visualization

The Principle of Systematic Teaching

The Principle of Accessibility

The principle of Individualization

69 implies an extensive use of audio-visual aids and audio-visual materials through out the whole course of foreign language teaching.

#The Principle of Visualization

The Principle of Systematic Teaching

The Principle of Accessibility

The principle of Individualization

70 This principle implies the subject-matter of the instruction must correspond to the age and mental abilities of the learners; be neither too difficult not too easy for them (the material should be slightly above student's level); and be neither too much nor too little.

The Principle of Visualization

The Principle of Systematic Teaching

The principle of Individualization

#The Principle of Accessibility

71 The didactic .... is realized in conformity with teaching strategies to the pupils' capacities so that they don't experience uphill difficulties while working with any materials during the lesson.

The Principle of Visualization

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

The Principle of Systematic Teaching

The principle of Individualization

#The Principle of Accessibility

72 The didactic .... takes into account individual peculiarities of the learner, his background knowledge, what he knows, his spheres of interest, etc., so it focuses on the cognitive styles of the pupils.

The Principle of Visualization

The Principle of Systematic Teaching

#The principle of Individualization

The Principle of Accessibility

73 extroverts………..

#who get their greatest satisfaction from social contacts with other people

who are self-centered, like to be alone with their dreams and their thoughts

rational-logical types of pupils who like the rules to be formulated

who induce rules from examples

74 introverts

who get their greatest satisfaction from social contacts with other people

#who are self-centered, like to be alone with their dreams and their thoughts

rational-logical types of pupils who like the rules to be formulated

who induce rules from examples

75 deductivists

who get their greatest satisfaction from social contacts with other people

who are self-centered, like to be alone with their dreams and their thoughts

#rational-logical types of pupils who like the rules to be formulated

who induce rules from examples

76 inductivists

who get their greatest satisfaction from social contacts with other people

who are self-centered, like to be alone with their dreams and their thoughts

#rational-logical types of pupils who like the rules to be formulated

who induce rules from examples

77 relate mainly to mental and intellectual functions. Evidence of the success with which children learn foreign languages is difficult to dispute, especially when children are living in the country where this language is spoken.

The Principle of Visualization

The Principle of Systematic Teaching

The principle of Individualization

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

 # Automaticity

78 We attribute children's success to their tendency to acquire language subconsciously, which is without analyzing the forms of language. They learn the language without thinking about it.

The Principle of Visualization

The Principle of Systematic Teaching

The principle of Individualization

 # Automaticity

79 According to this principle, human beings are universally driven to act or behave by the anticipation of some sort of reward that will ensue because of the behavior. Really, there is virtually nothing that we do that is not inspired and driven by a sense of purpose or goal.

The Principle of Visualization

The Anticipation of Reward

The Principle of Systematic Teaching

The principle of Individualization

80 Audio Aids includes ……….

#Human voice, telephonic conversation, audio discs/tapes, gramophone records, Radio broadcast.

Textbook, Supplementary book. Reference books, encyclopedia, Magazine, Newspaper, Documents and Clippings, Duplicated written material, Programmed material , Case Studies/Reports,

human voice, telephonic conversation, Newspaper, Documents and Clippings, Duplicated written material, Programmed material , Case Studies/Reports,

Magazine, Newspaper, Documents and Clippings, Duplicated written material, gramophone records, Radio broadcast.

81 Visual aids include…………

Human voice, telephonic conversation, audio discs/tapes, gramophone records, Radio broadcast.

#Textbook, Supplementary book. Reference books, encyclopedia, Magazine, Newspaper, Documents and Clippings, Duplicated written material, Programmed material , Case Studies/Reports,

human voice, telephonic conversation, Newspaper, Documents and Clippings, Duplicated written material, Programmed material , Case Studies/Reports,

Magazine, Newspaper, Documents and Clippings, Duplicated written material, gramophone records, Radio broadcast.

82 can be useful in teaching students everything from money and grammar to social skills. Sight words bingo, for example, can help students learn their basic sight words

#Games

Videos

Flashcards

Model Clay

83 ……………………….. is based on interest in learning L2 because of a desire to learn about or associate with the people who use it (e.g. for romantic reasons), or because of an intention to participate or integrate in the L2-using speech community; in any case, emotional or affective factors are dominant.

#Integrative motivation

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Instrumental motivation

84 involves perception of purely practical value in learning the L2, such as increasing occupational or business opportunities, enhancing prestige and power, accessing scientific and technical information, or just passing a course in school.

#Instrumental motivation

Integrative motivation

Phonemic coding ability

Inductive language learning ability

85 refers to individuals' preferred way of processing: i.e. of perceiving, conceptualizing, organizing, and recalling information.

Integrative motivation

Phonemic coding ability

Inductive language learning ability

#Cognitive style

86 Fatt (2000) says that people with_____ "see the world by constructing or remembering mental images" (p. 35).

Visual learners

Kinesthetic learners

Tactile learners

#Auditory learners

87 Fatt (2000) says that_____ would prefer reading, observing, and the display of data.

#Visual learners

Kinesthetic learners

Tactile learners

Auditory learners

88 _____ would rather learn by watching movies, film strips, pictures, and graphs which help integrate the subject (Fatt, 2000).

#Visual learners

Kinesthetic learners

Tactile learners

Auditory learners

89 When taking a test, _____ would do better on the test if the test had visual diagrams (Fatt, 2000).

#Visual learners

Kinesthetic learners

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Tactile learners

Auditory learners

90 Students who show a preference for a_____and are given instruction with visual aids will perform better when given the appropriate materials (Cegielski et al., n.d.).

#Visual learning

Kinesthetic learning

Tactile learning

Auditory learning

91 Persons with an_____preference prefer sound and make better decisions on what they have heard or read (Fatt, 2000).

Visual learning

Kinesthetic learning

Tactile learning

#Auditory learning

92 Fatt (2000) says that_____would prefer lectures, seminars, discussions, and tapes.

Visual learners

Kinesthetic learners

Tactile learners

#Auditory learners

93 By letting_____to listen to tape recordings of material, they are more likely to ask questions about what they have learned and may not have understood (Fatt, 2000).

Visual learners

Kinesthetic learners

Tactile learners

#Auditory learners

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

94 When taking a test, an _____ would do their best by being given an oral examination (Fatt, 2000).

Visual learner

Kinesthetic learner

Tactile learner

#Auditory learner

95 A particular interest to faculty is _____ who learn best by listening (Davis & Franklin, 2004).

Visual learners

#Auditory learners

Kinesthetic learners

Tactile learners

96 Some key words to use with _____ include rhythm, hear, detect, tempo, and flow (Coker, 1996). According to Coker (1996),

Visual learners

Kinesthetic learners

Tactile learners

#Auditory learners

97 Students who are considered to be _____ prefer to learn by doing (Fatt, 2000).

Visual learners

#Kinesthetic learners

Writing learners

Auditory learners

98 _____ "prefer a trial and error method of learning" (Fatt, 2000, p. 36).

Visual learners

#Kinesthetic learners

Writing learners

Auditory learners

99 This type of learner would rather not learn by explanations, visual presentations, and discussions (Fatt, 2000).

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

Visual learners

#Kinesthetic learners

Writing learners

Auditory learners

100 _____ would rather be learning with hands-on experience which helps them create and develop what they have learned (Fatt, 2000).

Visual learners

#Kinesthetic learners

Writing learners

Auditory learners

101 By giving a test with task-oriented questions_____ would have better results (Fatt, 2000).

Visual learners

#Kinesthetic learners

Writing learners

Auditory learners

102 A person with_____preference of learning has "the ability to use the body to build rapport, to console, to persuade, and to support others (Silver et al., 1997).

Visual

#Kinesthetic

Writing

Auditory

103 Some careers_____ would be good at are a coach, counselor, professional athlete, or even a choreographer (Silver et al., 1997).

Visual learners

#Kinesthetic learners

Writing learners

Auditory learners

104 Make use of all available study materials such as charts, maps, filmstrips, notes, and videos.

#Visual learners

Kinesthetic learners

Writing learners

Auditory learners

105 Write out everything for frequent and efficient review.

#Visual learners

Kinesthetic learners

Writing learners

Auditory learners

106 Practice visualizing or pictures words and concepts in your mind. Adding meaningful symbols, colors, and graphics to notes also provide visual cues.

#Visual learners

Kinesthetic learners

Writing learners

Auditory learners

107 Try to visualize how information appears on a page. In study groups or discussions, focus on how

people look when they speak.

Kinesthetic learners

Writing learners

#Visual learners

Auditory learners

108 _____ often close their eyes to visualize or remember something.

#Visual learners

Kinesthetic learners

Writing learners

Auditory learners

109 _____ like to see what they are learning.

Kinesthetic learners

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

#Visual learners

Writing learners

Auditory learners

110 _____ benefit from illustrations and presentations that use color.

Kinesthetic learners

Writing learners

Auditory learners

#Visual learners

111 Methodology is a branch of_____, exploring the patterns of teaching a particular subject.

a) psychology

b) pedagogy

c) linguistics

d) didactics

112 The transfer of knowledge to students and the management of their activities aimed at developing certain skills and abilities is called_____.

a) lesson

b) learning

c) learning

d) education

113 Methodology is a science,_____ of which is the content of education and the theory of teaching foreign languages.

a) purpose

b) task

c) subject

d) an object

114 The basis of the communicative method is_____.

a) pragmalinguistics

b) sociolinguistics

c) psycholinguistics

d) the theory of behaviorism

115 _____ is characterized by natural lexical content and

grammatical forms, situational adequacy of the language means used.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

a) Adapted text

b) Sample Dialog

c) Monologue

d) Authentic text

116 The principle of communicative orientation is:

a) the use of linguistic and non-linguistic visualization;

b) creating a situation of communication;

c) the selection of meaningful, valuable for learning material that provides targeted perception and understanding of the phenomena being studied;

d) in easy memorization and retrieval of language knowledge from memory.

117 Much attention in the direct method is given to_____.

a) a letter

b) pronunciation

c) memorizing individual words

d) grammar

118 video and computer programs that contribute to the achievement of the goals of teaching foreign languages.

a) teaching aids

b) teaching methods

c) visual aids

d) training programs

119 Which of the following is a type of speech activity?

a) listening.

b) Spelling.

c) Phonetic minimum.

d) Linguistics.

120 Which of the listed types of speech activity is receptive?

a) Written speech.

b) monologue speech.

 c) Reading.

d) Dialogic speech.

121 Which of the following is one of the features of dialogic speech?

a) Diversity of structure of sentences and complex syntax.

b) Extralinguistic conditioning.

c) context.

d) Completeness and development.

122 Which of the competence is not considered one of the the components of communicative competence are:

a) professional competence;

b) linguistic competence;

c) socio-cultural competence;

d) discursive competence.

123. Aspects of the purpose of teaching a foreign language are:

a) educational practical aspect;

b) educational aspect;

c) developmental aspect;

d) application aspect.

124 Determine the methodical method of organizing a group form of communication in a lesson, which involves finding the best solution to a specific problem within a limited period of time.

a) brainstorming

b) role play

c) discussion

d) talk show

125 Which of the plans below should be drawn up by the teacher in order to clearly present the perspective of work on the topic:

a) schedule

b) lesson plan

c) thematic plan

d) curriculum

126 A set of elective courses based on the basic curriculum is determined by ...

a) the school itself

b) parents of students

c) State educational standard

d) students

127 Select tasks for the preparatory stage of working with text when learning to listen:

a) posing their own problematic questions on the issues raised in the text

b) name the type of text, the main idea

c) commenting on what is new, interesting, significant for schoolchildren in the text

d) report unfamiliar words that are important for understanding, the meaning of which students will not be able to guess

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

128 In order for all students to have more opportunities and time to communicate in the classroom, it is necessary:

a) make greater use of group and pair modes of work

b) memorize texts more

c) give more language exercises

d) create game situations

129) Reading for learning is…

a) reading, in order to get the most general idea of the content of the text and choose the right source from several

b) reading with a focus on a complete and accurate understanding of all the main and secondary facts contained in the text, their comprehension and memorization

c) reading with a general coverage of the content and an orientation towards understanding the main, most significant

d) reading aimed at finding specific information in the text for its subsequent use for certain purposes

130 Skimming reading

a) reading, in order to get the most general idea of the content of the text and choose the right source from several

b) reading with a focus on a complete and accurate understanding of all the main and secondary facts contained in the text, their comprehension and memorization

c) reading with a general coverage of the content and an orientation towards understanding the main, most significant

d) reading aimed at finding specific information in the text for its subsequent use for certain purposes

131) Scanning reading

a) reading, in order to get the most general idea of the content of the text and choose the right source from several

b) reading with a focus on a complete and accurate understanding of all the main and secondary facts contained in the text, their comprehension and memorization

c) reading with a general coverage of the content and an orientation towards understanding the main, most significant

d) reading aimed at finding specific information in the text for its subsequent use for certain purposes

132 introductory reading

a) reading, in order to get the most general idea of the content of the text and choose the right source from several

b) reading with a focus on a complete and accurate understanding of all the main and secondary facts contained in the text, their comprehension and memorization

c) reading with a general coverage of the content and an orientation towards understanding the main, most significant

d) reading aimed at finding specific information in the text for its subsequent use for certain purposes

133 Social competence

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

a) the ability to make a choice of language forms, use them and transform them in accordance with the situation of communication

b) the ability to build speech logically, consistently and convincingly

c) mastering a certain amount of formal knowledge and corresponding skills related to various aspects of the language

d) readiness and desire to interact with other people

134 Sociolinguistic competence

a) the ability to make a choice of language forms, use them and transform them in accordance with the situation of communication

b) the ability to build speech logically, consistently and convincingly

c) mastering a certain amount of formal knowledge and corresponding skills related to various aspects of the language

d) readiness and desire to interact with other people

135 Strategic and discursive competencies

a) the ability to make a choice of language forms, use them and transform them in accordance with the situation of communication

b) the ability to build speech logically, consistently and convincingly

c) mastering a certain amount of formal knowledge and corresponding skills related to various aspects of the language

d) readiness and desire to interact with other people

136 Linguistic competence

a) the ability to make a choice of language forms, use them and transform them in accordance with the situation of communication

b) the ability to build speech logically, consistently and convincingly

c) mastering a certain amount of formal knowledge and corresponding skills related to various aspects of the language

d) readiness and desire to interact with other people

137 Set the correct sequence of actions for the deductive method of teaching foreign grammar:

a) substitution exercises are performed

b) students find this grammatical phenomenon in sentences, name the form, explain its meaning and use

c) a rule is studied, usually formulated using specific grammatical terms

d) transformational exercises are performed

e) translation exercises are performed from the native language into a foreign language

138. A type of reading technique which is used when the reader wants to locate a particular piece of information without necessarily understanding the rest of a text or passage is………

a) skimmimg b) scanning   c) intensive reading   d) extensive reading

139. Observation of a teacher or trainee by a colleague of equal status is …..

a) peer correction b) peer teaching   c) peer observation   d) pairwork

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

140. A device in which the learner is presented with a question along with four or five possible answers from which one must be selected, especially is used in testing or teaching is………

a) gap fill b) multiple choice   c) matching   d) presenting

141. An activity to make learners feel less nervous or inhibited when they first meet……

a) jigsaw b) brainstorming   c) mingle activity   d) ice breaker

142. An activity in which a pair or two groups of students hold different information, or where one partner knows something that the other doesn't…….. .

a) information gap activity b) groupwork c) pairwork   d) jigsaw

143. Facilitate…..

a) to make a learning process possible or easier; to work with a group in order to help them to articulate the ideas

b) to check students' knowledge by doing a test

c) to make trainers hand in their papers

d) to talk during the lesson without stopping

144. Mode of work as individual work, pairwork, groupwork used in learning and teaching is …….. .

a) interlanguage   b) INSE(T)T   c) interaction pattern   d) income

145. A type of co-operative activity in which each member of a group has a piece of information needed to complete a group task…….

a) jigsaw activity b) mingle activity c) brainstorming   d) groupwork

146. Comments or information learners receive on the success of a learning task, either from the teacher or from other learners

a) fluency b) feedback   c) facilitating   d) monitoring

147. The role of English in a language course or programme of instruction in which the content and aims of the course are fixed by the specific needs of a particular group of learners….

a) Global English   b) American English   c) English for specific purposes   d) modern English

148. An approach to foreign or second language teaching which emphasizes that the goal of language learning is communicative competence……

a) comparative language teaching b) communicative language teaching c) contextual teaching

d) co-operative learning

149. An activity where people move and talk to each other …….

a) lead –in   b) mingle activity   c) module   d) language awareness

150. The study and practice of teaching methods appropriate to working with adults ……

a) pedagogy b) phonology   c) psychology   d) andragogy

151. The measurement of the ability of a person or the quality or success of a teaching course….

a) assessment b) task   c) challenge   d) comparative learning

152. The process of learning without being controlled by anyone else ……

a) brainstorming b) cheating   c) autonomous learning   d) collaborative learning

153.   The degree to which language teaching materials have the qualities of natural speech or writing….

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

a) autonomy   b) authenticity   c) linguistics d) accuracy

154. "I always use coloured pens to highlight my notes" What kind of learner he is?

a) tactile   b) auditory   c) kinaesthetic d) visual

155. What can we call a lesson in which more than one skill plus grammar or vocabulary are taught?

a) an integrated skills lesson   b) vocabulary lesson c) grammar lesson d) home reading

Yakuniy nazorat baholash mezoni.

Portfolio assessment requirement on the subject of methodology.

Your portfolio should include 3 main elements:

1. **Theoretical part**
2. **Practical part (Lesson plan, Materials, Video lesson)**
3. **Reflection (peer-feedback and self-evaluation)**

Theoretical Part (5points)
In this part you should include all useful data about your target topic which is gathered by yourself:
The information must be relevant and include multiple variations and formats including graphs, maps, pictures, ppts, authentic examples.

Practical part: (25 points)
Develop a powerful and effective lesson including detailed procedures and materials relating your target topic. The theme that you have selected must be suitable with your content. State clear objectives, sequence the lesson properly and follow the requirement of the rubric for assessing your lesson plan.

Rubric for Lesson Plan Development

Name _____ Date _____

	Beginning 1	Developing 2	Accomplished 3	Exemplary 4	Score
Instruction Goals and Objectives	Instructional goals and objectives are not stated. Learners cannot tell what is expected of them. Learners cannot determine what they should know and be able to do as a result of learning and instruction.	Instructional goals and objectives are stated but are not easy to understand. Learners are given some information regarding what is expected of them. Learners are not given enough information to determine what they should know and be able to do as a result of learning and instruction.	Instructional goals and objectives are stated. Learners have an understanding of what is expected of them. Learners can determine what they should know and be able to do as a result of learning and instruction.	Instructional goals and objectives clearly stated. Learners have a clear understanding of what is expected of them. Learners can determine what they should know and be able to do as a result of learning and instruction.	
Instructional Strategies	Instructional strategies are missing or strategies used are inappropriate.	Some instructional strategies are appropriate for learning outcome(s). Some strategies are based on a combination of practical experience, theory, research and documented best practice.	Most instructional strategies are appropriate for learning outcome(s). Most strategies are based on a combination of practical experience, theory, research and documented best practice.	Instructional strategies appropriate for learning outcome(s). Strategy based on a combination of practical experience, theory, research and documented best practice.	
Assessment	Method for assessing student learning and evaluating instruction is missing.	Method for assessing student learning and evaluating instruction is vaguely stated. Assessment is teacher dependent.	Method for assessing student learning and evaluating instruction is present. Can be readily used for expert, peer, and/or self-evaluation.	Method for assessing student learning and evaluating instruction is clearly delineated and authentic. Can be readily used for expert, peer, and/or self-evaluation.	
Technology Used	Selection and application of technologies is inappropriate (or non-existent) for learning environment and outcomes.	Selection and application of technologies is beginning to be appropriate for learning environment and outcomes. Technologies applied do not affect learning.	Selection and application of technologies is basically appropriate for learning environment and outcomes. Some technologies applied enhance learning.	Selection and application of technologies is appropriate for learning environment and outcomes. Technologies applied to enhance learning.	
Materials Needed	Material list is missing.	Some materials necessary for student and teacher to complete lesson are listed, but list is incomplete.	Most materials necessary for student and teacher to complete lesson are listed.	All materials necessary for student and teacher to complete lesson clearly listed.	
Organization and Presentation	Lesson plan is unorganized and not presented in a neat manner.	Lesson plan is organized, but not professionally presented.	Lesson plan is organized and neatly presented.	Complete package presented in well organized and professional fashion.	

Reflection(20 points)

Peer-feedback Criteria: 5points

State the strong and weak point of other students' work. Make the weak point as the improvement areas for your friend. Give Your recommendations and suggestions for improvement. Focus on the practical part of the portfolio and evaluate the materils, methods and technicues that the student used.

Self-reflection criteria: 15 points

How the lectures on the subject of methodology was helpful for your planning lesson skills and professional competence in general. Name the most useful methods, activities, tasks, you will use in your own teaching. What problems do you have on your learning process on the subject of methodology?

What teaching skills did you train while planning, conducting and evaluating your own lesson trial lessons? What kind of special preparation did you for your demo lesson? Did you achieve demo lesson aims? What methods did you use? What experience did you get while selecting, planning, organizing and conducting your demo lesson?

Do you understand the role of this qualification practice in developing your professional competence?

Did you change your attitude to the profession you selected 3 years ago? Why do specialist in any professional should keep portfolio? What materials in your portfolio can witness about your progress in taching English?

What mark do you suppose to get for your qualification practice? Why?

Here is the list of language for giving peer feedback:

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

- I wonder why...
- I would like to suggest...
- I am confused because...
- Have you thought about...?
- Maybe you could...?

- I did not understand what you meant when you said...
- I understand what you mean, but have you considered...?
- A strength I see in your work is...
- I notice that...
- You could improve this by...

Peer assessment stems:

What was done well	What can be improved	Next steps in learning
- This part _____ is very clear. - This part _____ meets this Success Criterion _____. - The most interesting thing in this work is _____. - This _____ helped me understand what you meant by _____. - You are getting better at _____.	- I notice that you seem to be having trouble with _____. - The Success Criteria you have not met yet are _____. - This part _____ could be clearer.	- Would you consider changing _____? - A next step for you could be _____. - Do you think you could _____? - Would you consider adding _____? - During revision you might consider _____.

Self-assessment stems:

What was done well	What can be improved	Next steps in learning
- I am getting much better at _____. - This part _____ meets this Success Criterion _____. - The most interesting thing in this work is _____. - An area of this work that I found easy was _____. - When the assignment got hard, I used this strategy _____ to help me figure it out.	- I am still not sure how to _____. - The part I found most difficult was _____. - This part _____ could be clearer. - I do not yet understand _____. - I have the following question about _____.	- A question I want to have answered is _____. - I would like to meet with someone who is able to explain _____ to me. - A next step for me is _____. - During revision I will change _____ in order to improve _____. - As I look at the progression, I see I have met _____ but need to work on _____next.

1 Using **Direct Method** for teaching English
2 Using the method of **Suggestopedia** for T.E.
3 Using **Audio-Lingual** Method for TE.
4 Using the method of **Total physical Response** for T.E.
5 Using **Communicative Language teaching** for T.E.
6 Using **Task-Based language learning** for T.E
7 Using **non-verbal language** for teaching the culture of the second language.
8 Using **proverbs for teaching culture** of other second language.

Chet tili o'qitish metodikasi.

9 Using **pictures and videos** of teaching the culture of other language.

10 Using **magazines, newspapers and restaurant menus** for teaching culture of other language.

11 Using **travel brochures** for teaching culture of other language.

12 Using objects such **as figurines, tools, jewelry or images** that originate from the target culture to serve as a foundation from which students can discuss the culture of other language.

13 Using **literary texts** as sources for learning culture.

14. Using **films and television segments** to provide students with an opportunity to witness behaviours and culture of other language.

15. Teaching young learners by using **printed authentic materials**.

16 Teaching young learners by using **audio-visual authentic materials**.

17 Teaching **Grammar inductively** to young learners.

18 Teaching **vocabulary** to young learners by using **visual aids.**

19 Teaching English by **Computer Assisted language learning**.

20 Teaching English for specific purposes **(for dentist).**

21 Teaching English for specific purposes **(for tour guides)**

22 Teaching English for specific purposes **(for military police)**

23 Teaching English for specific purposes **(for businessman)**

24 Teaching **Grammar in situational Contexts** using a generative situation.

25 Teaching Grammar through **stories**.

26 Teaching **Grammar** through **songs and rhymes.**

27 Teaching Grammar by using **bus or train timetables.**

28 Teaching Vocabulary by using **wall-papers, comics and cartoons.**

29 Teaching vocabulary by using **advertisements.**

30 Teaching vocabulary by using **internet notices and comments.**

31 Teaching English by the help of **technological tools.**

32 Teaching Vocabulary **implicitly.**