

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



NAMANGAN DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI

FILOLOGIYA FAKUL'TETI

INGLIZ TILI VA LEKSIKA-STILISTIKA KAFEDRASI

**Abdulaminova Fotima
Abdurasulovna**

5220100-filologiya (ingliz tili) ta'lim yo'nalishi bo'yicha
bakalavr darajasini olish uchun

“TEACHING WRITING TECHNIQUE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS”
mavzuidagi

**BITIRUV
MALAKAVIY
ISHI**

Ilmiy rahbar: p.f.n. S.Misirov

Ilmiy maslahatchi: kat.o'qit. O.Dadaboev

NAMANGAN – 2014

«TASDIQLAYMAN»
Filologiya fakulteti
dekani: _____ S.Misirov

«___» _____ 2014 yil
Muhr

Namangan Davlat Universiteti
Filologiya fakulteti

Ingliz tili va leksika-stilistika kafedrası

Bitiruv malakaviy ishini
Tayyorlab topshirish rejasi

Talabaning ismi, sharifi
va otasining ismi:

Abdulaminova Fotima

Guruxi: 401

o'quv yili: 2013-2014

Mavzu: "Teaching Writing Technique in Secondary Schools "

Ilmiy rahbar: p.f.n. S.Misirov

Ilmiy maslahatchi: kat.o'qit. O.Dadaboev

Taqrizchilar:

1. Ichki taqriz: dot.R.Karimov

2. Tashqi taqriz: f.f.n.,X.Usmonova

Namangan davlat universiteti rektorining buyrug'i:

Namangan-2014

R E J A :

№	Ish mazmuni	Bajarish muddati
1.	Bitiruv malakaviy ish mavzuini tanlash	2013 yil 10 sentabr
2.	Mavzu rejasini tuzish	2013 yil 10-20 sentabr
3.	Manba to'plash va tahlil qilish	2013 yil 20 sentabr 2014 yil 10 yanvar
4.	BMI ni birinchi nusxasini tayyorlash va ilmiy rahbar, maslahatchiga ko'rsatish va o'qitish	2014 yil 25 yanvar
5.	Ilmiy rahbar ko'rsatgan kamchiliklarni tuzatish	2014 yil 1 martgacha
6.	Ilmiy rahbar va kafedra mudiri ishtirokida ilk muhokamadan o'tkazish	2014 yil 25 martgacha
7.	Kamchiliklarni tuzatish, annotasiya yozish	2014 yil 25 mart 10 aprel
8.	Taqrizlar olish va muhokamaga topshirish	2014 yil 10 aprel –25 aprel
9.	Kafedra yig'ilishida muhokama qilish	2014 yil 25 aprel – 10 may
10.	BMI ni olingan taqrizlar bilan birga muqovalangan holda kafedra mudiriga topshirish	2014 yil 10-15 may
11.	BMI ni himoya qilish	DAK jadvali bo'yicha

BMI 2014 yil 15 mayga qadar kafedra mudiri tomonidan qabul qilinadi.

Shu muddatgacha topshirmagan talaba Davlat Attestatsiyasiga qo'yilmaydi.

Talabaning imzosi: _____

Ilmiy rahbar imzosi: _____

Guruh rahbari imzosi: _____

Kafedra mudiri imzosi: _____

"__" _____ 2014 yil

Eslatma

BMI Davlat standarti talablari asosida rasmiylashtiriladi. Xususan A4 formatda 21x29 sm xajm kattalikdagi oq qog'ozga chap tomondan 30 mm, o'ng tomondan 15 mm, pastki tomondan 25 mm qoldirilgan holda yoziladi.

BMI ning matni qogozning bir tomoniga har sahifaga 26-29 qator yoziladi.

Barcha satr osti izohlari tegishli sahifada keltiriladi. har bir bob, jumladan, kirish va xulosa qismlari hamda ilovalar yangi sahifadan boshlanadi.

Bobning nomi va matn orasi yaqqol ajrab turishi lozim, bobdagi sarlavhalar bobning tartib raqami bilan boshlanib, unda so'zlarning bo'g'in ko'chirilishiga yo'l qo'yilmaydi.

BMI ning xajmi 10-15 ming so'zdan iborat bo'lib, uni talaba o'z dastxati bilan yozishi yoki kompyuterda bajarishi mumkin. Chizma, grafika, shrift va masshtablar amaldagi Davlat standartlariga mos holda qalamda bajarilishi lozim. Ko'zi ojiz va nogiron, dastxati o'qib bo'lmas darajada xunuk talabalarning malakaviy ishi kompyuter komp'yuterda bajarilishi mumkin. Chet tilida yozilgan BMIga davlat tilida annotatsiya yoziladi.

("O'zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy o'quv yurtlari bitiruvchilarining yakuniy davlat attestatsiyasi to'g'risidagi Nizom". 4-5 betlar).

Bitiruv malakaviy ishi tayyor bo'lganidan keyin ilmiy rahbar ish haqida kengaytirilgan xulosa yozib, kafedra mudiriga taqdim etadi.

Xulosada quyidagilar qayd qilinishi shart:

- 1) Muallif o'z oldiga qo'ygan masalani qanchalik hal qilishga erishganligi;
 - 2) Bajarilgan ishning bob va fasllari bo'yicha qisqacha tavsifi;
 - 3) Maxsus adabiyotlar va birlamchi materiallardan foydalanganlik darajasi, unda ko'chirmachilik holati bor-yo'qligi;
 - 4) Ishning nazariy va amaliy ahamiyati;
 - 5) Mavzudagi qaysi masalalar yaxshi yoritilgani, qaysilari sust tahlil etilgani yoki qolib ketganligi;
 - 6) Bitiruv malakaviy ishining mustaqil bajarilish darajasi;
 - 7) Bitiruv malakaviy ishdagi yakuniy fikrlarning ilmiy asoslanganligi va tavsiyalarining amaliy ahamiyati, talabga javob berishi;
 - 8) Himoyaga qo'yish mumkin yoki mumkin emasligi.
- Ilmiy rahbarning F.I, ilmiy darajasi va unvoni, imzo, sana

Bitiruv malakaviy ishi kafedraning may oyidagi yig'ilishida muhokamadan o'tgach va himoyaga tavsiya etilgach quyidagi ketma-ketlikda terilib, muqovalanadi va kafedra mudiriga topshiriladi

1. Zarvaroq
2. BMI ni tayyorlab topshirish rejasi
3. BMI ning annotatsiyasi
4. Ilmiy rahbar taqrizi
5. Ichki taqriz
6. Tashqi taqriz
7. Mundarija
8. Kirish

ESLATMA: Kirish qismida mantiqiy ketma-ketlikda quyidagi masalalar yoritilishi lozim: A) Mavzuning dolzarbligi va uning ahamiyati.

B) BMIning maqsadi va vazifalari.

D) Tanlangan ob'ektlar va tadqiqot usullari.

- E) Ishdagi ilmiy yangiliklar va erishilgan natijalar.
- F) Ishning amaliy ahamiyati.
- E) BMIning tuzilishi haqidagi umumiy ma`lumotlar.
- 9. Asosiy qism
- 10. Xulosa va tavsiyalar
- 11. Ilovalar
- 12. Foydalanilgan adabiyotlar ro`yxati

Kafedra va dekanat Bitiruv malkaviy ishning jadvaldan chiqmay bajarilayotganligi hamda sifatini nazorat qilib turadi. Rejaning bajarilishi holati kafedraning dekabr va mart oylaridagi yig'ilishlarida muhokama qilinadi.

Ushbu topshiriq-reja NamDU Ingliz tili va leksika-stilistika kafedrasining "___"
_____ 201 yildagi yig'ilishida tasdiqlangan.

Filologiya fakul'teti 5220100-filologiya (ingliz tili) ta'lim yo'nalishi bitiruvchisi [Abdulaminova Fotimaning](#) " Teaching Writing Technique in Secondary Schools" mavzuidagi bitiruv malakaviy ishiga DAKning

XULOSASI

NamDU DAK OUMTVng bitiruv malakaviy ishini bajarishga qo'yiladigan talabalar haqida buyrug'i bilan tasdiqlangan Nizomga asosan bitiruvchining malakaviy ishi haqida quyidagi xulosalarni keldi:

№	MEZON	Eng yuqori ball	To'plangan ball
1	Bitiruv malakaviy ishi uchun tuzilgan reja. Uning mavzuga muvopiy puxtaligi, muammoni qamrab olishi, uslubi	4 ball	
2	Matnda rejada ko'rsatilgan boblarning ajralib turi-shi, ishning estetik jihatdan ko'rinishi.	3 ball	
3	"Kirish" mazmuni, unda adabiyotlar obzorining berili-shi, mavzuning yangi va muhim tomonlarining ochib berilishi va vazifalarning qo'yilishi, ishning nazariy va amaliy ahamiyati bayoni.	5 ball	
4	Ishning yozilish uslubi, ravonligi, fikrni ifoda etish maxorati.	4 ball	
5	Ishdagi qismlarning o'zaro bog'liqligi	3 ball	
6	Keltirilgan misollarning soni, turi, ko'p tilliligi.	5 ball	
7	Adabiyotlardan, Internet materiallaridan foydalanish darajasi va ular asosida o'z fikrini, nuqtai nazarini bildirish.	6 ball	
8	Imlo savodhonligi	3 ball	
9	Uslubiy va Grammatik savodhonlik	3 ball	
10	Xusnixat va turli chizmalardan foydalanish	2 ball	
11	Adabiyotlarning to'g'ri ko'rsatilishi	2 ball	
12	Ishning ilmiyligi	20 ball	
13	Ishning amaliy ahamiyati	12 ball	
14	Xulosalarning ilmiylik darajasi	8 ball	
15	Ichki taqriz	3 ball	
16	Ichki taqriz	3 ball	
17	Tashqi taqriz	4 ball	
18	Himoya (ma'ruza) qilish	10 ball	
Ja'mi:		100 ball	

Eslatma: (har bir band bo'yicha aniqlangan ball jamlanadi va umumiy yig'ilgan ballning 100 ga nisbatan foizi chiqariladi).

Talabanning BMI bo'yicha to'plagan reyting bali ____%

DAK raisi:

A'zolar:

Kotib(a)

M.O'.

Sana: " __ " _____ 2014 yil

**NamDU Filologiya fakulteti Ingliz tili yo'nalishi 401-guruh talabasi
Abdulaminova Fotimaning "Teaching Writing Technique in Secondary
Schools (O'rta maktablarda yozuv texnikasini o'rgatish)" mavzuidagi bitiruv
malakaviy ishiga**

ILMIY RAHBAR XULOSASI

Mamlakatimiz mustaqillik yo'liga kirishi bilanoq ijtimoiy hayotning, jumladan ta'lim-tarbiyaning davr talabi nuktai nazaridan ilmiy asoslangan yo'nalishlarini ishlab chiqishdek ustuvor masalaga e'tibor kuchaytirildi.

Sh.Abdullaevaning ushbu bitiruv malakaviy ishi ingliz tilida yozuv texnikasini o'rgatish masalalariga bag'ishlangan.

Bitiruv malakaviy ishning kirish qismida mavzuning dolzarbligi, uning nazariy va amaliy ahamiyati, ob'ekti va predmeti kabi bitiruv malakaviy ishning tasnifiy belgilari yoritib berilgan.

Tadqiqotning birinchi bobi ingliz tilida yozuvni o'rgatishning metodologik asoslari deb nomlanib, unda boshlang'ich, o'rta va yuqori bosqichlarda ingliz tili o'qitishning o'ziga xos xususiyatlari, ingliz tili o'qitishdan ko'zda tutilgan maqsad va vazifalar kabi dolzarb masalalar tahlil etilgan.

Ishning ikkinchi bobi ingliz tilida yozuvni nutq faoliyati turi va malaka sifatida o'rgatish, pedagogik ilmiy-tadqiqotlarda yozuvning tavsifi, ingliz tilini ikkinchi va chet til sifatida o'qitishda yozuvning o'rne va ahamiyati kabi masalalar yoritilgan.

Bitiruv malakaviy ishning uchinchi bobida ingliz tilida yozuv faoliyatini metodik tashkil qilish va yozuvga oid ko'nikmalarni shakllantirish ingliz tilida yozuvni o'rgatish prinsiplari kabi masalalar chuqur o'rganilgan.

F.Abdulaminovaning ushbu bitiruv malakaviy ishida hozirgi kunda o'rganilishi dolzarb bo'lgan mavzu ko'tarilgan, bitiruv malakaviy ishga

qo'yiladigan zamonaviy talablarga javob beradi. Mazkur bitiruv malakaviy ishini himoyaga tavsiya etish mumkin.

Ilmiy rahbar Filologiya fakulteti dekani

pedagogika fanlari nomzodi

S.Misirov

ANNOTASIYA

Ushbu bitiruv malakaviy ishda o'rtta maktablarda ingliz tilida yozuv texnikasini o'rgatish bilan bog'liq masalalar yoritilgan. Shuningdek, bitiruv malakaviy ishda o'rtta maktablarda ingliz tili o'qitishning o'ziga xos xususiyatlari, ingliz tili o'qitishdan ko'zda tutilgan maqsad va vazifalar, o'rtta maktablarda ingliz tilida yozuvni o'rgatishning metodologik asoslari, ingliz tilida yozuvni o'rgatish printsiplari, ingliz tilini ikkinchi til va chet til sifatida o'rgatishda yozuvning o'rni va ahamiyati kabi masalalar tahlil etilgan.

Namangan davlat universiteti Filologiya fakulteti IV bosqich 401-guruh talabasi Fotima Abdulaminova “O’rta maktablarda yozuv texnikasini o’rgatish” mavzuidagi bitiruv malakaviy ishiga

TAQRIZ

Fotima Abdulaminovanning mazkur bitiruv malakaviy ishi O’rta maktablarda yozuv texnikasini o’rgatish masalalariga bag’ishlangan.

Tadqiqot ishi kirish, uch bob, umumiy xulosalar va foydalanilgan adabiyotlar ro’yxati qismlaridan iborat.

Bitiruv malakaviy ishning kirish qismida mavzuning dolzarbligi, uni o’rganilganlik darajasi, ilmiy yangiligi, tadqiqotdan ko’zda tutilgan maqsad va vazifalar, uning nazariy va amaliy ahamiyati, ob’ekti va predmeti, tadqiqotda foydalanilgan metodlar hamda shunga o’xshash bitiruv malakaviy ishning tasnifiy belgilari yoritib berilgan.

Tadqiqotning birinchi bobi ingliz tilida yozuvni o’rgatishning metodologik asoslari deb nomlanib, unda boshlang’ich, o’rta va yuqori bosqichlarda ingliz tili o’qitishning o’ziga xos xususiyatlari, ingliz tili o’qitishdan ko’zda tutilgan maqsad va vazifalar kabi dolzarb masalalar tahlil etilgan.

Ishning ikkinchi bobida ingliz tilida yozuvni nutq faoliyati turi va malaka sifatida o'rgatish, pedagogik ilmiy-tadqiqotlarda yozuvning tavsifi, ingliz tilini ikkinchi va chet til sifatida o'qitishda yo'zuvning o'rnini va ahamiyati kabi masalalar yoritilgan.

Bitiruv malakaviy ishning uchinchi bobida ingliz tilida yozuv faoliyatini metodik tashkil qilish va yozuvga oid ko'nikmalarni shakllantirish ingliz tilida yozuvni o'rgatish prinsiplari kabi masalalar chuqur o'rganilgan.

Tadqiqotning umumiy xulosalar qismida bitiruv malakaviy ishda bayon etilgan fikr va mulohazalar umumlashtirilgan, tahlil etilgan va umumiy xulosalar chiqarilgan.

Bitiruv malakaviy ishni tayyorlash jarayonida foydalanilgan pedagogik, metodik va lingvistik uning adabiyotlar qismida muayzn ketma-ketlik asosida berilgan.

Abdulaminova Fotimaning mazkur bitiruv malakaviy ishida hozirgi kunda o'rganilishi dolzarb bo'lgan mavzu ko'tarilgan va ushbu muammo har tomonlama o'rganilgan hamda tahlil etilgan. Tadqiqot bitiruv malakaviy ishga qo'yiladigan zamonaviy talablarga javob beradi.

Yuqorida bildirilgan fikrlar asosida Fotima Abdulaminovanning mazkur bitiruv malakaviy ishini himoyaga tavsiya etish mumkin.

Taqrizchi Ingliz tili va leksika-stilistika

kafedrasi katta o'qituvchisi

R.Karimov

**NamDU Filologiya fakulteti IV bosqich 401-guruh talabasi
Abdulaminova Fotimaning “O’rta maktablarda yozuv texnikasini
o’rgatish” mavzuidagi bitiruv malakaviy ishiga**

TAQRIZ

Talaba Abdulaminova Fotimaning ushbu bitiruv malakaviy ishi o’rta maktablarda yozuv texnikasini o’rgatish” masalalariga bag’ishlangan.

Tadqiqot ishi kirish, uch bob, umumiy xulosalar va foydalanilgan adabiyotlar ro’yxati qismlaridan iborat.

Bitiruv malakaviy ishning kirish qismida mavzuning dolzarbligi, ilmiy yangiligi, tadqiqotdan ko’zda tutilgan maqsad va vazifalar, uning nazariy va amaliy ahamiyati, ob’ekti va predmeti, tadqiqotda foydalanilgan metodlar kabi masalalar yoritib berilgan.

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Bitiruv malakaviy ishning uchinchi bobida ingliz tilida yozuv faoliyatini metodik tashkil qilish va yozuvga oid ko'nikmalarni shakllantirish ingliz tilida yozuvni o'rgatish prinsiplari kabi masalalar chuqur o'rganilgan.

Tadqiqotning umumiy xulosalar qismida bitiruv malakaviy ishda bayon etilgan fikr va muloxazalar umumlashtirilgan, tahlil etilgan va umumiy fikrlar bayon qilingan.

Bitiruv malakaviy ishni tayyorlash jarayonida foydalanilgan ilmiy va lingvistik adabiyotlar uning adabiyotlar qismida muayyan ketma-ketlik asosida berilgan.

F. Abdulaminovanning mazkur bitiruv malakaviy ishiga qo'yiladigan zamonaviy dasturiy talablarga javob beradi va mazkur tadqiqot ishini himoyaga tavsiya etish mumkin.

Taqrizchi Rus tili va adabiyoti kafedrasida dotsenti,

pedagogika fanlari nomzodi

X.Usmonova

TEACHING WRITING TECHNIQUE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

INTRODUCTION

PART I. The methodological basis of teaching English Writing in Secondary Schools

I.1. The peculiarities of the English Language Teaching.

I.2. The main objectives and aims of the English Language Teaching

PART II. Characteristics of Teaching Written Language in English in Secondary Schools

II.1. Teaching Written Communication Skills in Pedagogical Research

II.2. Research on Writing as a Second and Foreign Language Teaching

PART III. Strategies and Principles Teaching Writing Skills in Secondary Schools

II.1. Types of Classroom Writing Performance

II.2. Strategies for Writing Comprehension

CONCLUSION

LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

Actuality of the theme. Present situation in one of the Newly Independent States – the Republic of Uzbekistan requires new responses from teachers because of contemporary diplomatic and political relations, economic and cultural ties of the state.

Main principles of those reforms are based the policy of our president Islam Karimov. Year by year our government under the leadership of our president is working out the new development strategies of our country. The works and speeches of our president are main sources for our further development. For instance our president Islam Karimov made speech in the Senate and Legislative Chamber of the Oliy Majlis of the Republic of Uzbekistan assembled for a joint session on January 27 in Tashkent¹. At the joint session President of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov delivered a speech

¹ Karimov I. Jahon moliyaviy –iqtisodiy inqirozi, O'zbekiston sharoitida uni bartaraf etishning yo'llari va choralari. – T.: O'zbekiston, 2009.- 56 b

entitled “Modernization of the country and fostering a solid civil society is our key priority”.

The President underlined, that parliamentary elections in Uzbekistan held on 27 December 2009 have demonstrated the high socio-political culture of the population, growing level of its political and civil self-consciousness, its broad support of our progressive advancement along the way of deepening reforming and modernizing the country.

The elections showed to what extent those decisions made on time were right and efficient, in particular, adoption of the Constitutional Law “On strengthening the role of political parties in the renewal and further democratization of state governance and modernization of the country”, as well as implemented measures to ensure so that the political parties, as they participate and prove in the elections their competence, become in practice the decisive force of deep transformations taking place in Uzbekistan².

Our president is always mentioning that without foreign languages no organization, no person can develop fast. During the visit to Samarkand region our president insisted all teachers and professor teacher know foreign languages and computer technologies.

Nowadays the English language is taught as a compulsory subject in all institutions in Uzbekistan. Teaching and learning English has some specific peculiarities and is required a special teaching program and methodology. Studying of scientific-methodological sources, analyzing of current curriculums and texts-books show that the English language plays a great role for students in being a high qualified specialist. But at present the level of teaching and learning the English language doesn't correspond to modern requirements. It is important to notice that the cause of such negative result-English teachers don't have enough professional skills and modern

² Karimov I. “Mamlakatimizni modernizatsiya qilish yo'lini izchil davom – taraqqiyotimizning muhim omilidir”, “Ishonch” gazetasi, 2010 yil 8 dekabar’

requirements aren't taken into account in current curriculums, text-books and methodological appliances, modern pedagogical technologies aren't used in teaching foreign languages as well. Present research work is devoted to the problems of Techniques for Teaching English Writing.

The theoretical significance: to assist in solving theoretical problems of teaching English Writing.

The practical significance: to improve teaching and learning written speech skills as well as writing of foreign languages in all institutions in Uzbekistan.

The results of the research can be used in the courses of lectures and seminars of English language teaching and analysis can be useful for practical courses of English Language Teaching.

The basic purpose of qualification paper is to learn and analysis of main principles of teaching written speech as well as dialogue and monologue speech and listening of Foreign Language Teaching.

The novelty of our work is to determine psychological and methodological basis of writing in English Language Teaching.

The work consists of introduction, three chapters, a conclusion and bibliography.

In Introduction we have investigated the scientific actuality of the dissertation, subject and object of the theme, aims and tasks of the work, theoretical and practical significance of the dissertation, as well as a methodological foundation and level of learning of the problem.

The first chapter of the qualification work is dedicated to such vital problems as: The methodological basis of teaching English Writing, The peculiarities of the English Language Teaching, The main objectives and aims of the English Language Teaching

The second chapter is determined the theoretical problems of Characteristics of Teaching Written Language in English, Teaching Written

Communication Skills in Pedagogical Research, Research on Writing as a Second and Foreign Language Teaching

The third part is dedicated to the issues of teaching Strategies and Principles Teaching Writing Skills, Types of Classroom Writing Performance, Strategies for Writing Comprehension

In the conclusion we have pointed the main results of the dissertation work and analyzed them.

All used literature is given in the bibliography.

PART I. The methodological basis of teaching English Writing in Secondary Schools.

I.1. The peculiarities of the English Language Teaching in beginning, mid and advanced levels.

Teaching beginning levels

Many teachers consider the beginning level of language intimation to be the most challenging. Since students at this level have little or no prior knowledge of the target language, the teacher (and accompanying techniques and materials) becomes a central determiner in whether students accomplish their goals. This can also be the most tangibly rewarding level for a teacher because the growth of students' proficiency is apparent in a matter of a few weeks.

At the beginning or even false-beginning level, your students have very little language "behind" them. You may therefore be tempted to go along with the popular misconception that the target language cannot be taught directly, that you will have to resort to a good deal of talking "about" the second language in the students' native language. Such is clearly not the case, as beginning language courses have demonstrated for many decades. But you do have to keep in mind that your students' capacity for taking in and retaining

new words, structures, and concepts is limited. Foremost on your mind as a teacher should be the presentation of material in simple segments that don't overwhelm your students. Remember, they are just barely beginning!

The following 10 factors and the words of advice accompanying each will help you to formulate an approach to teaching beginners. As you adopt a theoretical stance on each factor, you will be able to design classroom techniques that are consistent with your approach.

Students' cognitive learning processes

In those first few days and even weeks of language learning, virtually all of the students' processing with respect to the second language itself is in a focal, controlled (for a review of McLaughlin's cognitive processes and classroom applications). Therefore, you can expect to engage in plenty of competition of a limited number of words, phrases, and sentences. Don't become if a considerable period of time goes by with little change in these learning modes. Even in the first few days of class, however, you can coax your students into the time peripheral processing by getting them to use practiced language for genuinely meaningful purposes. For example, getting information from a classmate whom a student does not know will require using newly learned language ("What's your name?" "Where do you live?"), but with a focus on the purposes to which the language is put, not on the forms of language. The forms themselves, although still controlled (limited in capacity), nevertheless move into a peripheral mode as students become immersed in the task of seeking genuine information.

The role of the teacher

Beginning students are highly dependent on the teacher for models of language, and so a teacher-centered or teacher-fronted classroom is appropriate for some of your classroom time. Students are able to initiate few questions and comments, so it is your responsibility to "keep the ball rolling."

Still, your beginning level classes need not be devoid of a modicum of student-centered work. Pair work and group work are effective techniques for taking students' focus off you as the center of attention and for getting them into an interactive frame of mind even at the most beginning level.

It follows that the degree of control of classroom time also leans strongly in the direction of the teacher at the beginning levels. In a second language context where instruction is carried out in the target language, virtually all of your class time will be teacher-controlled. Since students have no means, in the second language anyway, of controlling the class period, the onus is on you to plan topics, activity types, time-on-task, etc. As students gain in their proficiency, they will be able to initiate questions and comments of their own that may then occasionally shift the locus of control. In a foreign language situation, where your students speak the same native language (and you speak it as well), some negotiation might be possible in the native language, allowing for a small amount of student control.

Superior Speakers at the Superior level are able to communicate in the language fluently in order to participate fully and effectively in conversations on a variety of topics in formal and informal settings from both concrete and abstract perspectives. They discuss their interests and special fields of competence, explain complex in detail, and provide lengthy and coherent narrations, all with ease, fluency, and accuracy. They explain their opinions on a number of topics of importance to them, such as social and political issues, and provide structured argument to support their opinions. They are able to construct and develop hypotheses to explore alternative possibilities. When appropriate, they use extended discourse without unnaturally lengthy hesitation to make their point, even when engaged in abstract elaborations. Such discourse, while coherent, may still be influenced by the Superior speakers' own language patterns, rather than those of the target language.

Superior speakers command a variety of interactive and discourse strategies, such as turn-taking and separating main ideas from supporting information through the use of syntactic and lexical devices, as well as intonational features such as pitch, stress and tone. They demonstrate virtually no pattern of error in the use of basic structures. However, they may make sporadic errors, particularly in low-frequency structures and in some complex high-frequency structures more common to formal speech and writing. Such errors, if they do occur, do not distract the native interlocutor or interfere with communication.

Advanced Speakers at the Advanced-High level perform all Advanced-level tasks with linguistic

High ease, confidence and competence. They are able to consistently explain in detail narrate fully and accurately in all time frames. In addition, Advanced-High speakers handle the tasks pertaining to the Superior level but cannot sustain performance at that level across a variety of topics. They can provide a structured argument to support their opinions, and they may construct hypotheses, but patterns of error appear. They can discuss some topics abstractly, especially those relating to their particular interests and special fields of expertise, but in general, they are more comfortable discussing a variety of topics concretely.

Advanced-High speakers may demonstrate a well-developed ability to compensate for an imperfect grasp of some forms or for limitations in vocabulary by the confident use of communicative strategies, such as paraphrasing, circumlocution, and illustration. They use precise vocabulary and intonation to express meaning and often show great fluency and ease of speech. However, when called on to perform the complex tasks associated with the Superior level over a variety of topics, their language will at times break down or prove inadequate, or they may avoid the task altogether, for

example, by resorting to simplification through the use of description or narration in place of argument or hypothesis.

Advanced Speakers at the Advanced-Mid level are able to handle with ease and confidence a

Mid large number of communicative tasks. They participate actively in most informal and

some formal exchanges on a variety of concrete topics relating to work, school, home, and leisure activities, as well as to events of current, public, and personal interest or individual relevance.

Advanced-Mid speakers demonstrate the ability to narrate and describe in all major time frames (past, present, and future) by providing a full account, with good control of aspect, as they adapt flexibly to the demands of the conversation. Narration and description tend to be combined and interwoven to relate relevant and supporting facts in connected, paragraph-length discourse.

Advanced-Mid speakers can handle successfully and with relative ease the linguistic challenges presented by a complication or unexpected turn of events that occurs within the context of a routine situation or communicative task with which they are otherwise familiar. Communicative strategies such as circumlocution or rephrasing are often employed for this purpose. The speech of Advanced-Mid speakers performing Advanced-level tasks is marked by substantial flow. Their vocabulary is fairly extensive although primarily generic in nature, except in the case of a particular area of specialization or interest. Dominant language discourse structures tend to recede, although discourse may still reflect the oral paragraph structure of their own language rather than that of the target language.

Advanced-Mid speakers contribute to conversations on a variety of familiar topics, dealt with concretely, with much accuracy, clarity and precision, and they convey their intended message without misrepresentation or confusion. They are readily understood by native speakers unaccustomed to dealing with non-natives. When called on to perform functions or handle topics associated with the Superior level, the quality and/or quantity of their speech will generally decline. Advanced-Mid speakers are often able to state an opinion or cite conditions; however, they lack the ability to consistently provide a structured argument in extended discourse. Advanced-Mid speakers may use a number of delaying strategies, resort to narration, description, explanation or anecdote, or simply attempt to avoid the linguistic demands of Superior-level tasks.

Advanced Speakers at the Advanced-Low level are able to handle a variety of communicative

Low tasks, although somewhat haltingly at times. They participate actively in most informal and a limited number of formal conversations on activities related to school, home, and leisure activities and, to a lesser degree, those related to events of work, current, public, and personal interest or individual relevance.

Advanced-Low speakers demonstrate the ability to narrate and describe in all major time frames (past, present, and future) in paragraph length discourse, but control of aspect may be lacking at times. They can handle appropriately the linguistic challenges presented by a complication or unexpected turn of events that occurs within the context of a routine situation or communicative task with which they are otherwise familiar, though at times their discourse may be minimal for the level and strained. Communicative strategies such as rephrasing and circumlocution may be employed in such instances. In their narrations and descriptions, they combine

and link sentences into connected discourse of paragraph length. When pressed for a fuller account, they tend to grope and rely on minimal discourse. Their utterances are typically not longer than a single paragraph. Structure of the dominant language is still evident in the use of false cognates, literal translations, or the oral paragraph structure of the speaker's own language rather than that of the target language.

While the language of Advanced-Low speakers may be marked by substantial, albeit irregular flow, it is typically somewhat strained and tentative, with noticeable self-correction and a certain grammatical roughness. The vocabulary of Advanced-Low speakers is primarily generic in nature.

Advanced-Low speakers contribute to the conversation with sufficient accuracy, clarity, and precision to convey their intended message without misrepresentation confusion, and it can be understood by native speakers unaccustomed to dealing non-natives, even though this may be achieved through repetition and restatement. When attempting to perform functions or handle topics associated with the Superior level, the linguistic quality and quantity of their speech will deteriorate significantly.

Intermediate-High speakers are able to converse with ease and confidence when high dealing with most routine tasks and social situations of the Intermediate level. They are able to handle successfully many uncomplicated tasks and social situations requiring an exchange of basic information related to work, school, recreation, particular interests and areas of competence, though hesitation and errors may be evident.

Intermediate-High speakers handle the tasks pertaining to the Advanced level, but they are unable to sustain performance at that level over a variety of topics. With some consistency, speakers at the Intermediate High level narrate and describe in major time frames using connected discourse of paragraph

length. However, their performance of these Advanced-level tasks will exhibit one or more features of breakdown, such as the failure to maintain the narration or description semantically or syntactically in the appropriate major time frame, the disintegration of connected discourse, the misuse of cohesive devices, a reduction in breadth and appropriateness of vocabulary, the failure to successfully circumlocute, or a significant amount of hesitation.

Intermediate-High speakers can generally be understood by native speakers unaccustomed to dealing with non-natives, although the dominant language is still evident (e.g., use of code-switching, false cognates, literal translations, etc.), and gaps in communication may occur.

Speakers at the Intermediate-Mid level are able to handle successfully a variety of Mid uncomplicated communicative tasks in straightforward social situations. Conversation is generally limited to those predictable and concrete exchanges necessary for survival in the target culture; these include personal information covering self, family, home, daily activities, interests and personal preferences, as well as physical and social needs, such as food, shopping, travel and lodging.

Intermediate-Mid speakers tend to function reactively, for example, by responding to direct questions or requests for information. However, they are capable of asking a variety of questions when necessary to obtain simple information to satisfy basic needs, such as directions, prices and services. When called on to perform functions or handle topics at the Advanced level, they provide some information but have difficulty linking ideas, manipulating time and aspect, and using communicative strategies, such as circumlocution.

Intermediate-Mid speakers are able to express personal meaning by creating with the language, in part by combining and recombining known elements and conversational input to make utterances of sentence length and

some strings of sentences. Their speech may contain pauses, reformulations and self-corrections as they search for adequate vocabulary and appropriate language forms to express themselves. Because of inaccuracies in their vocabulary and/or pronunciation and/or grammar and/or syntax, misunderstandings can occur, but Intermediate-Mid speakers are generally understood by sympathetic interlocutors accustomed to dealing with non-natives.

Intermediate Speakers at the Intermediate-Low level are able to handle successfully a limited a number of uncomplicated communicative tasks by creating with the language in straightforward social situations. Conversation is restricted to some of the concrete exchanges and predictable topics necessary for survival in the target language culture. These topics relate to basic personal information covering, for example, self and family, some daily activities and personal preferences, as well as to some immediate needs, such as ordering food and making simple purchases. At the Intermediate-Low level, speakers are primarily reactive and struggle to answer direct questions or requests for information, but they are also able to ask a few appropriate questions.

Intermediate-Low speakers express personal meaning by combining and recombining into short statements what they know and what they hear from their interlocutors. Their utterances are often filled with hesitancy and inaccuracies as they search for appropriate linguistic forms and vocabulary while attempting to give form to the message. Their speech is characterized by frequent pauses, ineffective reformulations and self-corrections. Their pronunciation, vocabulary and syntax are strongly influenced by their first language but, in spite of frequent misunderstandings that require repetition or rephrasing, Intermediate-Low speakers can generally be understood by

sympathetic interlocutors, particularly by those accustomed to dealing with non-natives.

Novice High Speakers at the Novice-High level are able to handle a variety of tasks pertaining to the Intermediate level, but are unable to sustain performance at that level. They are able to manage successfully a number of uncomplicated communicative tasks in straightforward social situations. Conversation is restricted to a few of the predictable topics necessary for survival in the target language culture, such as basic personal information, basic objects and a limited number of activities, preferences and immediate needs. Novice-High speakers respond to simple, direct questions or requests for information; they are able to ask only a very few formulaic questions when asked to do so.

Novice-High speakers are able to express personal meaning by relying heavily on learned phrases or recombination's of these and what they hear from their interlocutor. Their utterances, which consist mostly of short and sometimes incomplete sentences in the present, may be hesitant or inaccurate. On the other hand, since these utterances are frequently only expansions of learned material and stock phrases, they may sometimes appear surprisingly fluent and accurate. These speakers' first language may strongly influence their pronunciation, as well as their vocabulary and syntax when they attempt to personalize their utterances. Frequent misunderstandings may arise but, with repetition or rephrasing, Novice-High speakers can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors used to non-natives. When called on to handle simply a variety of topics and perform functions pertaining to the Intermediate level, a Novice-High speaker can sometimes respond in intelligible sentences, but will not be able to sustain sentence level discourse.

Novice Mid Speakers at the Novice-Mid level communicate minimally and with difficulty by using a number of isolated words and memorized

phrases limited by the particular context in which the language has been learned. When responding to direct questions, they may utter only two or three words at a time or an occasional stock answer. They pause frequently as they search for simple vocabulary or attempt to recycle their own and their interlocutor's words. Because of hesitations, lack of vocabulary, inaccuracy, or failure to respond appropriately, Novice-Mid speakers may be understood with great difficulty even by sympathetic interlocutors accustomed to dealing with non-natives. When called on to handle topics by performing functions associated with the Intermediate level, they frequently resort to repetition, words from their native language, or silence.

Novice Low Speakers at the Novice-Low level have no real functional ability and, because of their pronunciation, they may be unintelligible. Given adequate time and familiar cues, they may be able to exchange greetings, give their identity, and name a number of familiar objects from their immediate environment. They are unable to perform functions or handle topics pertaining to the Intermediate level, and cannot therefore participate in a true conversational exchange.

Simple greetings and introductions, for example, are authentic and yet manageable. Make sure utterances are limited to short, simple phrases. At times such language may appear to be artificial because of all the repetition needed at this stage. Don't despair; your students will appreciate the opportunity to practice their new language.

Fluency and accuracy

Fluency is a goal at this level but only within limited utterance lengths. Fluency does not have to apply only to long utterances. The "flow" of language is important to establish, from the beginning, in reasonably short

segments. Attention to accuracy should center on the particular grammatical, phonological, or discourse elements that are being practiced.

In teaching speaking skills, it is extremely important at this stage that you be very sensitive to students' need to practice freely and openly without fear of being corrected at every minor flaw. On the other hand, you need to correct some selected grammatical and phonological errors so that students don't fall into the trap of assuming that "no news is good news" (no correction implies perfection). Pronunciation work (on phonemes, phonemic patterns, intonation, rhythm, and stress) is very important at this stage. Neglecting phonological practice now may be at the expense of later fluency. Your job, of course, is to create the perfect balance.

Student creativity

The ultimate goal of learning a language is to be able to comprehend and produce it in *unrehearsed* situations, which demand both receptive and productive creativity. But at the beginning level, students can be creative only within the confines of a highly controlled repertoire of language. Innovation will come later when students get more language under their control.

Techniques (activities, procedures, tasks)

Short, simple techniques must be used. Some mechanical techniques are appropriate-choral repetition and other drilling, for example. A good many teacher-initiated questions dominate at this level, followed only after some time by an increase in simple student-initiated questions. Group and pair activities are excellent techniques as long as they are structured and clearly defined with specific objectives. A variety of techniques is important because of limited language capacity.

Listening and speaking goals

Notice that the listening and speaking functions for beginners are meaningful and authentic communication tasks. They are limited more by

grammar, vocabulary, and length of utterance than by communicative function. It is surprising how many language functions can be achieved with very uncomplicated language.

Reading and writing goals

A glance at the Scope and Sequence chart demonstrates typical goals for a beginning level course: reading and writing topics are confined to brief but nevertheless real-life written material. Advertisements, forms, and recipes are grist for the beginner's reading mill, while written work may involve forms, lists, and simple notes and letters. The most important contextual factor that you should bear in mind in teaching reading and writing to beginners is their literacy level in their own native language.

Grammar

Whether a curriculum or textbook is billed as functional, communicative, structural, or whatever, grammar and grammar sequencing is an issue. As the charts show, a typical beginning level will deal at the outset with very simple verb forms, personal pronouns, definite and indefinite articles, singular and plural nouns, and simple sentences, in a progression of grammatical topics from simple to complex.

Whether or not you choose to overtly "explain" grammar in the classroom is another issue. If you are teaching EFL (in a non-English-speaking country) and your students all speak the same native language, you may profit from occasionally using their native language to explain simple grammatical points. In ESL situations, where you usually rely only on English in the classroom, grammatical explanations of any complexity would at this level overwhelm the students. Therefore, an inductive approach to grammar with suitable examples and patterns will be more effective.

Teaching intermediate levels

Now, turn your attention to that vague curricular territory that we call *intermediate*, where students have progressed beyond novice stages to an ability to sustain basic communicative tasks, to establish some minimal fluency, to deal with a few unrehearsed situations, to self-correct on occasion, to use a few compensatory strategies, and generally to "get along" in the language beyond mere survival. The picture changes somewhat. Your role and the students' capacities change. Consider the same 10 factors.

Students' cognitive learning processes

At the intermediate stage some automatic processing has taken hold. Phrases, sentences, structures, and conversational rules have been practiced and are increasing in number, forcing the mental processes to automatism. I like to think of automaticity as the placing of elements of language into the "hard drive" of our neurological computers. Our immediately controlled "desktops"(limited in capacity) are too small to contain all the information we need. One of your principal goals at this level is to get students to continue to automatism, to continue to allow the bits and pieces of language that might clutter the mind to be relegated to automaticity. There, in their linguistic hard drives, those bits and pieces are beneath the surface, as it were, yet readily available for immediate (automatic) use whenever needed.

The role of the teacher

You are no longer the only initiator of language. Students should be encouraged to ask questions, make comments, and negotiate certain options in learning where appropriate. More student-student interaction can now take place in pairs, small groups, and whole-class activity.

Learner-centered work is now possible for more sustained lengths of time as students are able to maintain topics of discussion and focus. By its very nature, the intermediate level is richly diverse; that diversity can work to your advantage with carefully designed cooperative activities that capitalize on

differences among students. Don't set equal expectations for all students, however, since abilities, especially speaking abilities, can vary widely.

Teacher talk

Most of your oral production can be sustained at a natural pace, as long as your articulation is clear. Teacher talk should not occupy the major proportion of a class hour; otherwise, you are probably not giving students enough opportunity to talk. You should be using less of the native language of the learners at this level, but some situations may still demand it.

Authenticity of language

At this level students sometimes become overly concerned about grammatical correctness and may want to wander into esoteric discussions of grammatical details. This penchant for analysis might get them too far afield from authentic, real language. Make sure they stay on track.

Fluency and accuracy

The dichotomy between fluency and accuracy is a crucial concern here, more so than at either of the other ends of the proficiency spectrum. Some students are likely to become overly concerned about accuracy, possibly berating themselves for the mistakes they make and demanding constant corrections for every slip-up. Others may slide into a self-satisfied rut in which they actually become quite fluent, in the technical sense of the term, but in which they become very difficult to comprehend. Be on the lookout for both types of student and be prepared to offer individualized attention to each.

In general, fluency exercises (saying or writing a steady flow of language for a short period of time without any self- or other-correction at all) are a must at this level. They help to get students over the hump of always having to say or write everything absolutely correctly. You want them in due course of time to go through the "breakthrough" stage of language learning, often thought of as a stage after which a learner looks back and says, "Wow! I just

carried on a whole conversation without thinking about my grammar!" A big part of your task with most students is to maintain their flow with just enough attention to error to keep them growing.

Student creativity

The fact that some of this new language is now under control gives rise to more opportunities for the student to be creative. Interlingua errors such as

Does John can sing?

What means this?

I must to make a lot of money.

are a good indication of the creative application of a system within the learner's mind. Try to recognize this form of creativity as a positive sign of language development and of the internalization of a coherent system. Students are also becoming more capable of applying their classroom language to unrehearsed situations. In EFL settings those situations may be more difficult to find, but through the various forms of media and the written word, applications to the real world, heretofore unrehearsed in the classroom, are available and should be encouraged.

Techniques

Because of the increasing language capacities of your students, techniques can increase in complexity. Common interactive techniques for intermediates include chain stories, surveys and polls, paired interviews, group problem solving, role plays, storytelling, and many others.

Listening and speaking goals

The linguistic complexity of communicative listening-speaking goals increases steadily. Along with the creation of novel utterances, students can participate in short conversations, ask and answer questions, find alternative ways to convey meaning, solicit information from others, and more. The

functions themselves may not be intrinsically more complex, but the forms they use are.

Reading and writing goals

Increasing complexity in terms of length, grammar, and discourse now characterizes reading material as students read paragraphs and short, simple stories and begin to use skimming and scanning skills. Writing is similarly more sophisticated.

Grammar topics such as progressive verb tenses and clauses typify intermediate level teaching. Students can benefit from small doses of short, simple explanations of points in English. Whether through English or the native language medium, such overt attention to "sore spots" in grammar can, in fact, be exceedingly helpful at this stage. Students have been known to flounder in a sea of inductivity until one cogent tip from a teacher sets them back on a straight course. I once encountered a student who, for too many months (or years?), when referring to past events would say things like
She can kept her child.

He must paid the insurance [premium].

One day, a simple explanation from his teacher about modal auxiliaries in the past tense "cured" him when all the outright corrections in the world hadn't seemed to make an impact.

Keep grammatical meta language to an ideal minimum at this level; otherwise, your students will become English grammarians instead of English speakers. Remember, you are interested in grammar because that is where some of your training has been, but you don't need to make budding Ph.D.'s in linguistics out of your students! Overt grammatical explanation has its place, in the wings, if you will, as a prompter of sorts, but not as the dominant focus of student attention.

Teaching advanced levels

As students move up the developmental ladder, getting closer and closer to their goals, developing fluency along with a greater degree of accuracy, able to handle virtually any situation in which target language use is demanded, they become "advanced" students. Toward the top of this ladder is what the ACTFL *Guidelines* describe as the "superior" level, which is not yet equivalent to an educated native-speaker level, but implies a high command of language for both social and professional purposes. Few if any ESL classes are designed for the superior level, so in order to be more in keeping with reality, we will simply focus on what the *Guidelines* describe as the "advanced" level.

Students' cognitive learning processes

As competence in language continues to build, students can realize the full spectrum of processing, assigning larger and larger chunks to automatic modes and gaining the confidence to put the formal structures of language on the periphery so that focal attention may be given to the interpretation and negotiation of meaning and to the conveying of thoughts and feelings in interactive communication. Some aspects of language, of course, need focal attention for minor corrections, refinement, and other "tinkering"; otherwise, teachers would almost be unnecessary. So your task at this level is to assist in the ongoing attempt to automatize language and in the delicate interplay between focal and peripheral attention to selected aspects of language.

The role of the teacher

On the surface, your job may appear easier with advanced students; you can sit back and let their questions and self-generated curiosity take over. In reality, the independence that students have acquired must be cleverly channeled into classroom routines that benefit most of the students most of the time. No mean task! The most common occurrence in advanced level teaching is that your class runs away with itself and you are left with only a

quarter or half your plans fulfilled. So, while you want to take advantage of the self-starting personalities in your class, orderly plans are still important. A directive role on your part can create effective learning opportunities even within a predominantly learner-centered classroom.

Teacher talk

Natural language at natural speed is a must at this level. Make sure your students are challenged by your choice of vocabulary, structures, idioms, and other language features. But, after all, they are still learning the language, so remember that they have not yet turned into native speakers. The amount of teacher talk should be commensurate with the type of activity. Make sure your students have ample opportunities to produce language so that your role as a provider of feedback takes prominence. For some of your students, this is the last chance to benefit from informed, systematic feedback on their performance; from here on out, they will be "out there" where people, out of politeness or respect, rarely give corrections.

Very little, if any, reliance on the students' native language is now justified. Discipline, explanations, and other more complex language functions can be carried out in English. Occasionally, a teacher of an advanced class will resort to a word or two (a definition, for example) in the native language in order to help a student who is "stuck."

Authenticity of language

Everything from academic prose to literature to idiomatic conversation becomes a legitimate resource for the classroom. Virtually no authentic language material should be summarily disqualified at this stage. Certain restrictions may come to bear, depending on how advanced your class is, of course.

Fluency and accuracy

At this level most, if not all, of your students are "fluent" in that they have passed beyond the breakthrough stage and are no longer thinking about every word or structure they are producing or comprehending. A handful or two of problems still need attention. If errors are relatively rare, an occasional treatment from you or from peers may be quite helpful.

Student creativity

The joy of teaching at this level is in those moments of student performance when you know that they are now able to apply classroom material to real contexts beyond. Make sure that students keep their eyes fixed on those goals. Be ever wary of classroom activity that simply ends right there in the classroom.

Techniques

Techniques can now tap into a full range of sociolinguistic and pragmatic competencies. Typical activities include group debates and argumentation, and complex role plays. Students also benefit from scanning and skimming reading material, determining and questioning author's intent, and writing essays and critiques. Often at this level students have specific purposes for which they are planning to use English. Focus on those purposes as much as possible.

Listening and speaking goals

At this level students can focus more carefully on all the sociolinguistic and pragmatic nuances of language. The teacher needs to be on the lookout for common areas needing work and to guide students accordingly as they fine-tune their production and comprehension in terms of register, style, the status of the interlocutor, the specific context of a conversational exchange, turn-taking, topic nomination and termination, topic-changing, and culturally conditioned language constraints.

Reading and writing goals

Reading and writing skills similarly progress closer and closer to native-speaker competence as students learn more about such things as critical reading, the role of schemata in interpreting written texts, and how to write a document related to one's profession (laboratory reports, records of experimental research findings, etc.).

Grammar

The concern at the intermediate level for basic grammatical patterns now graduates beyond some of the elements of Level 4 to functional forms, to sociolinguistic and pragmatic phenomena, and to strategic competence. Linguistic meta language may now serve a more useful role as students perceive its relevance to refining their language. Your classes need not become saturated with language about language, but well-targeted deductive grammar has its place.

You have now had a chance to contemplate quite a number of variables that change as you teach lower or higher levels of proficiency. The age and proficiency variables are two extremely important issues to incorporate into any attempt to plan and conduct language lessons. Chapter 8 will introduce more contextual variables that come to bear on decisions that you make when you teach in a classroom.

I.2. The main objectives and aims of the English Language Teaching

Practical aims. The foreign language as a school subject differs from other subjects of the school curriculum. Whereas the teaching, for instance, of history is mostly connected with the imparting of historical laws and facts which pupils are to learn and the teaching of the mother tongue leads to the mastery of the language as a system (which is already used for exchanging thoughts and feelings) so that pupils will be able to use it more effectively in oral and written language, the teaching of a foreign language should result in the pupil's gaining one more code for receiving and conveying information; that is, in acquiring a second language for the same purpose as the native language: to use it as a means of communication. In this connection we should like to quote G. Perren. "Whatever a new language is being taught as a curricular extra or as an essential medium for education it will be learned by the young child only if it obviously makes possible some purposeful activity other than language learning. If it does not do this, attempts to teach it may be largely a waste of time."

In modern society language is used in two ways: directly or orally, and indirectly or in written form. Thus we distinguish oral language and written language. Direct communication implies a speaker and a hearer, indirect communication implies a writer and a reader. Hence the practical aims in teaching a foreign language are four in number: hearing, speaking, reading, and writing. When adopting the practical aims for a secondary school course the following factors are usually taken into consideration: the economic and political conditions of society, the requirements of the state; the general goals of secondary school education; the nature of the subject, and the conditions for instruction. Uzbekistan is establishing closer economic, political, scientific, and cultural relations with various peoples of the world. International relations are extended and strengthened through the exchange of delegations as well as scientific, technical, and cultural information. The people of Uzbekistan wants to know what is going on in

the world in all spheres of human activity: science, engineering, culture, politics, etc. They also want to acquaint other peoples with their life and achievements. In this situation foreign language teaching is a matter of state significance. The Council of Ministers of Uzbekistan in its decision "On Improving Foreign Language Learning" has obliged educational boards to ensure that school-leavers master a foreign language as a means of communication in its two forms — oral and written, therefore, proficiency in speaking and reading are the desired skills. They are both of great importance, since oral language, though opportunities for conversation are rare for most of the school-leavers, creates favourable conditions for language learning. Besides, practical aims as they are understood here, correspond to the idea of secondary school education — to provide pupils with the fundamentals of the subject. Hearing, speaking, reading, and writing within carefully selected linguistic material will constitute the fundamentals of the language.

The nature of the language should also be taken into consideration in determining the aims of language teaching. Learning a living language implies using the language of sounds, that is, speaking. Scientific research gives a more profound insight into the problem. It is not so much the ability to speak that is meant here but rather the oral treatment; in other words, the language of sounds, not of graphic signs (which is usually the case when a dead language is studied) should serve as basic means of teaching.

The length of the course, the frequency of the lessons, the size of groups should also be taken into consideration in adopting practical aims. The amount of time for language learning is one of the most decisive factors in mastering and maintaining language proficiency since learners need practice. The more time is available for pupils' practice in the target language, the better results can be achieved. Moreover, for the formation of speech habits frequency of lessons is a more essential condition than the length of the course. It is not necessary to prove {it has already been proved) that intensive courses are more effective than extensive ones, for example, six periods a week for three years are more effective

for language learning than three periods a week for six years. In our secondary schools, however, we cannot afford an intensive course because school curriculum includes a lot of essential subjects and the foreign language is one of many which should be taught. The time which can be allotted to foreign language learning is distributed throughout the six years with the following frequency of lessons: V - 4; VI-VII - 3; VIII-X- 2 periods a week. As to the size of groups, large forms are divided into two groups for foreign language lessons so that a group should not exceed 20-25 pupils. Proceeding from these considerations the school syllabus emphasizes reading and speaking as the chief practical aims of language teaching. Writing is restricted to teaching the ability to compose simple letters on everyday topics. Thus the-syllabus sets out to teach pupils to carry on a conversation, in a foreign language and to read texts with complete comprehension.

The syllabus for the nine-year school concentrates on the development of speech proficiency. Pupils should be able:

(1) to give a short talk and carry on a conversation on the topics included in the programme;

(2) to read without a dictionary texts containing familiar grammar material and no more than 4—6 unfamiliar words (per 100 words) the meaning of which, as a rule, should be clear from the context or due to familiar word-building elements.

The syllabus for the academic lyceums and professional colleges require that the leavers should:

(1) read and understand a foreign *text* both with and without a dictionary;

(2) understand oral language and speak within the topics and material required by the syllabus;

(3) write a letter.

In foreign language learning all forms of work must be in close interrelation, otherwise it is impossible to master the language. However, attention should be given mainly to practice in hearing, speaking, and reading. Thus pupils must achieve a level in their knowledge of the language which will enable them to further develop it at an institute or in their practical work.

At the present time, however, foreign language teaching in school does not quite meet the demands of our society, better results are desirable. In this connection we should welcome to investigate the aims of foreign language teaching to be able to establish what can really be achieved under school conditions. In conclusion it should be said that the achievement of practical aims in foreign language teaching makes possible the achievement of educational and cultural aims.

Educational aims. Learning a second language is of great educational value. Through a new language we can gain an insight into the way in which words express thoughts, and so achieve greater clarity and precision in our own communications. Even at the most elementary level learning a second language teaches the cognizance of meaning, furnishes a term of comparison that gives us an insight into the quality of language. When learning a foreign language the pupil understands better how language functions and this brings him to a greater awareness of the functioning of his own language. Since language is connected with thinking, through foreign language study we can develop the pupil's intellect. Teaching a foreign language helps the teacher develop the pupils' voluntary and involuntary memory, his imaginative abilities, and will power. Indeed, in learning a new language the pupil should memorize words, idioms, sentence patterns, structures, and keep them in long-term memory ready to be used whenever he needs them in auding, speaking, reading, and writing. Teaching a foreign language under conditions when this is the only foreign language environment, is practically impossible without appealing to pupils' imagination. The lack of real communication forces the teacher to create imaginary situations for pupils, to speak about making each pupil determine his language behaviour as if he were in such situations.

Teaching a foreign language contributes to the linguistic education of the pupil, the latter extends his knowledge of phonic, graphic, structural, and semantic aspects of language as it is through contrastive analysis of language phenomena.

Cultural aims. Learning a foreign language makes the pupil acquainted with the life, customs and traditions of the people whose language he studies through visual material (such as post cards with the views of towns, countryside, and people, filmstrips and reading material dealing with the countries where the target language, is spoken. Foreign language teaching should promote pupils' general educational and cultural growth by increasing their knowledge about foreign countries, and by acquainting them with progressive traditions of the people whose language they study. Through learning a second language the pupil gains a deeper insight into the nature and functioning of language as a social phenomenon.

In conclusion it should be said that practical, educational, and cultural aims are intimately related and form an inseparable unity. The leading role belongs to practical aims, for the others can only be achieved through the practical command of the foreign language.

PART II. Characteristics of Teaching Written Language in English in Secondary Schools

II.1. Teaching Written Communication Skills in Pedagogical Research

The psycholinguist Eric Lenneberg (1967) once noted, in a discussion of "species-specific" human behavior, that human beings universally learn to walk and to talk, but that swimming and writing are culturally specific, learned behaviors. We learn to swim if there is a body of water available and usually only if someone teaches us. We learn to write if we are members of a literate society, and usually only if someone teaches us.

Just as there are nonswimmers, poor swimmers, and excellent swimmers, so it is for writers. Why isn't everyone an excellent writer? What is it about writing that blocks so many people, even in their own native language? Why don't people learn to write "naturally," as they learn to talk? How can we best teach second language learners of English how to write? What should we be trying to teach?

Let's look at these and many other related questions as we tackle the last of the "four skills."

Research on second language writing

Trends in the teaching of writing in ESL and other foreign languages have, not surprisingly, coincided with those of the teaching of other skills, especially listening and speaking. You will recall from earlier chapters that as communicative language teaching gathered momentum in the 1980s, teachers learned more and more about how to teach fluency, not just accuracy, how to use authentic texts and contexts in the classroom, how to focus on the purposes of linguistic communication, and how to capitalize on learners' intrinsic motives to learn. Those same trends and the principles that undergirded them also applied to advances in the teaching of writing in second language contexts.

Over the past few decades of research on teaching writing to second language learners, a number of issues have appeared, some of which remain controversial in spite of reams of data on second language writing. Here is a brief look at some of those issues.

Composing versus writing

A simplistic view of writing would assume that written language is simply the graphic representation of spoken language, and that written performance is much like oral performance, the only difference lying in graphic instead of auditory signals. Fortunately, no one holds this view today. The process of writing requires an entirely different set of competencies and is fundamentally different from speaking in ways that have already been reviewed in the last chapter. The permanence and distance of writing, coupled with its unique rhetorical conventions, indeed make writing as different from speaking as swimming is from walking.

One major theme in pedagogical research on writing is the nature of the composing process of writing (O'Brien, 2004; Silva & Brice, 2004). Written products are often the result of thinking, drafting, and revising procedures that require specialized skills, skills that not every speaker develops naturally. Further, students exhibit a number of different styles and preferences in their composing processes (Chen, 2005). The upshot of the compositional nature of writing has produced writing pedagogy that focuses students on how to generate ideas, how to organize them coherently, how to use discourse markers and rhetorical conventions to put them cohesively into a written text, how to revise text for clearer meaning, how to edit text for appropriate grammar, and how to produce a final product.

Process versus product

Recognition of the compositional nature of writing has changed the face of writing classes. A half a century ago, writing teachers were mostly concerned with the final product of writing: the essay, the report, the story, and what that product should "look" like. Compositions were supposed to (a) meet certain standards of prescribed English rhetorical style, (b) reflect accurate grammar, and (c) be organized in conformity with what the audience would consider to be conventional. A good deal of attention was placed on "model" compositions that students would emulate and on how well a student's final product measured

up against a list of criteria that included content, organization, vocabulary use, grammatical use, and mechanical considerations such as spelling and punctuation.

There is nothing inherently wrong with attention to any of the above criteria. They are still the concern of writing teachers. But in due course of time, we became better attuned to the advantage given to learners when they were seen as creators of language, when they were allowed to focus on content and message, and when their own individual intrinsic motives were put at the center of learning. We began to develop what is now termed the process approach to writing instruction. Process approaches do most of the following (adapted from Shih, 1986): focus on the process of writing that leads to the final written product)

- help student writers to understand their own composing process;
- help them to build repertoires of strategies for prewriting, drafting, and rewriting;
- give students time to write and rewrite;
- place central importance on the process of revision;
- let students discover what they want to say as they write;
- give students feedback throughout the composing process (not just on the final product) as they attempt to bring their expression closer and closer to their intention;
- encourage feedback from both the instructor and peers;
- include individual conferences between teacher and student during the process of composition.

Perhaps you can personally appreciate what it means to be asked to write something—say, a letter to an editor, an article for a newsletter, a paper for a course you're taking—and to allow the very process of putting ideas down on paper to transform thoughts into words, to sharpen your main ideas, to give them structure and coherent organization. As your first draft goes through perhaps several steps of revision, your thesis and developing ideas more and

more resemble something that you would consider a final product. If you have done this, you have used your own process approach to writing.

You may also know firsthand what it is like to try to come up with a "perfect" final product without the above process. You may have experienced "writer's cramp" (mental blocks) that severely hampered any progress. You may have felt certain level of anxiety building within you as you felt the pressure to write an in class essay that would be judged by the teacher, graded, and returned with little chance for your future revision. The process approach is an attempt to take advantage of the nature of the written code (unlike conversation, it can be planned and given an unlimited number of revisions before its "release") to give students a chance to think as they write. Another way of putting it is that writing is indeed a *thinking process*.

Over three decades ago, Peter Elbow (1973) expressed the concept of process writing in urging teachers to discard the notion that "first you figure out what you want to say... don't start writing till you do" (p. 14). Elbow and many experts since then have noted that "this idea of writing is backwards" (Elbow, 1973, p. 15). Instead, process approaches feature the following practices (adapted from Hedgcock, 2005, pp. 604-605):

- allowing students to discover their own voice
- free writing, journaling, and fluency activities
- tasks that engage learners in meaningful writing
- giving writers a sense of audience and authentic tasks

- encouraging invention, prewriting, and revision strategies
- providing formative feedback through conferencing

The current emphasis on process writing must of course be seen in the perspective of history and future developments (Casanave, 2004; Hedgcock, 2005; O'Brien, 2004; Silva & Leki, 2004). Some research (Atkinson, 2003) has already claimed that we are now in a "post-process" era, while others (Matsuda, 2003) are more circumspect by noting that the concept of post-process, in fact,

only rejects "the dominance of process at the expense of other aspects of writing and writing instruction" (Matsuda, 2003, pp. 78-79). As in most language-teaching approaches, it is quite possible for you to go to an extreme in emphasizing process to the extent that the final product diminishes in importance. Try not to let this happen! The product is, after all, the ultimate goal; it is the reason that we go through the process of prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing. Without that final product firmly in view, we could quite simply drown ourselves in a sea of revisions. Process is not the end; it is the means to the end.

Contrastive rhetoric

Robert Kaplan's (1966) article on contrastive rhetoric has been the subject of much discussion and debate ever since. Kaplan's thesis was that different languages (and their cultures) have different patterns of written discourse. English discourse, according to Kaplan (p. 14), was schematically described as proceeding in a straight line, Semitic writing in a zigzag formation, Oriental written discourse in a spiraling line, and so forth.

The point of Kaplan's conclusions about how we write was, of course, that learners of English bring with them certain predispositions, which come from their native languages, about how to organize their writing. If English writers get "straight" to the point, and Chinese writers "spiral" around the point, then a Chinese speaker who is learning English will encounter some difficulty in learning to write English discourse. There were problems with Kaplan's study (Casanave, 2004) There were problems with Kaplan's study (Casanave, 2004; Connor, 2002), of which Kaplan has recently responded to (Kaplan, 2005). His diagrams and conclusions were simplistic and overgeneralized. Simplistic, because he based 111 conclusions about English discourse on style manuals rather than using data actual writing in English. Overgeneralized, because one cannot conclude- that English writers consistently use a "straight-line" attack on a thesis and certain!) cannot make any generalization that applies, for example, to all Oriental language Furthermore, without a native-speaking English control

group, one cannot determine if the "difficulty" of his sample data is simply the difficulty any inexperienced writer might encounter in learning to write.

Nevertheless, there was and still is a ring of truth to Kaplan's claims, as both Kaplan (2005) himself and Connor (2002) have noted. In fact, Connor has done much "to move contrastive rhetoric out of the quagmire in which it had been lodged for so long" (Casanave, 2004, p. 41). No one can deny the effect of one's native culture, or one's predispositions that are the product of perhaps years of schooling, reading writing, thinking, asserting, arguing, and defending. In our current paradigm attending carefully to schemata and scripts, native language patterns of thinking and writing simply cannot be ruled out. A balanced position on this issue, then, would uphold the importance of your carefully attending to the rhetorical first language-interference that may be at play in your students' writing. But rather than holding dogmatic or predictive view (that certain writers *will* experience difficulty because their native language), you would be more prudent to adopt a "weak" position in which you would consider a student's cultural/literary schemata as only one possible source of difficulty.

In recent years new research studies have appeared that tackle the issue of contrastive rhetoric (Casanave, 2004; Connor, 2002). According to Connor, a theory of contrastive rhetoric is influenced by more than first language patterns; factors such as linguistic relativity, theory of rhetoric, text linguistics, discourse types and genres, literacy, and translation all contribute toward a comprehensive theory of contrastive rhetoric. One important conclusion from this renewed wave of research is the significance of valuing students' native-language-related rhetorical traditions, and of guiding them through a process of understanding those schemata while *not* attempting to eradicate them. That self-understanding on the part of students may then lend itself to a more effective appreciation and use of English rhetorical conventions.

II.2. Research on Writing as a Second and Foreign Language Teaching

Differences between LI and L2 writing

In the 1970s, research on second language writing was strongly influenced by previous research on native language writing. Assumptions were made that the composing processes in both instances were similar if not identical. But it is imperative for teachers to understand that there are in fact many differences between the two, as Tony Silva (1993) so clearly demonstrated in a comprehensive survey of L2 writing. Silva found that L2 writers did less planning, and that they were less fluent (used fewer words), less accurate (made more errors), and less effective in stating goals and organizing material. Differences in using appropriate grammatical and rhetorical conventions and lexical variety were also found, among other features.

The questions that are currently being addressed in this area (Hedgcock, 2005) center on differences between LI and L2 writing and sorting out appropriate approaches to L2 writing. Some pedagogical implications of these questions are that (a) it is important to determine appropriate approaches to writing instruction for L2 writers in different contexts, (b) writing teachers need to be equipped to deal effectively with the sociocultural and linguistic differences of L2 students, and (c) the assessment of L2 writing may need to take into account the fundamental differences between most LI and L2 writing.

Authenticity

Another issue in the teaching of writing surrounds the question of how much of our classroom writing is "real" writing (Casanave, 2004; Hedgcock, 2005; Silva & Brice, 2004). That is, how authentic are the classroom writing exercises that we ask students to perform? One could address this question by asking how much writing the average college-educated person in Western society actually does, and what kind of writing. I would venture to say very little, and that little amounts to filling out forms, writing telephone messages, e-

mailing, and occasionally dashing off a letter or postcard. In the era of electronic communication (video, phone, computer, etc.) we are less and less called upon to *compose*. I was recently consulted by a friend who is studying to be certified as a realtor. Part of his certification examination involved a simple one- or two-page written essay. The prospect frightened him!

So, why do we want students to write? In school, writing is a way of life. Without some ability to express yourself in writing, you don't pass the course. Across the age levels from elementary school through university graduate courses, we write in order to succeed in mastering the subject matter. In English for Academic Purposes (EAP), writing ranges from short phrases (as in fill-in-the-blank tests), to brief paragraphs (as in essay question exercises and tests), to brief reports of many different kinds, to a full-length research paper. In vocational-technical English (where students are studying English in connection with a trade or occupation), students need to fill out forms, write simple messages, write certain conventional reports (for example, a bid on a contract, an inspection report), and at the most "creative" end of the continuum, write a brief business letter. In adult education and survival English classes, filling out simple forms and questionnaires may be as sophisticated as students' needs get. This leaves EAP as the major consumer of writing techniques, especially writing techniques that concern themselves with the composing process: development of ideas, argument, logic, cause and effect, etc., as Paltridge (2004) aptly describes in a survey of teaching EAP.

Another way to look at the authenticity issue in classroom writing is to distinguish between real writing and display writing. Real writing, as explained by Ann Raimes (1991), is writing when the reader doesn't know the answer and genuinely wants information. In many academic/school contexts, however, if the instructor is the sole reader, writing is primarily for the display of a student's knowledge. Written exercises short-answer essays, and other writing in test situations are instances of display writing.

Should we as teachers incorporate more real writing in our classroom, In some some ways, yes. If ESL courses strive to be more content-based, theme-based, task-based, students are more likely to be given the opportunity to convey gem information on topics of intrinsic interest. But display writing is not totally unjustified. Writing to display one's knowledge is a fact of life in the classroom iiul by getting your students to perform well in display writing exercises, they can learn skills that will help them to succeed in further academic pursuits.

Responding to student writing

The gradual recognition of writing as a process of thinking and composing, was a natural by-product of CLT. With its emphasis on learner-centered instruction student-student negotiation, and strategies-based instruction that values the variability of learners' pathways to success, CLT is an appropriate locus for process writing. As students are encouraged (in reading) to bring their own schemata to bear on understanding texts, and in writing to develop their own ideas, offer thcll own critical analysis, and find their own voice, the role of teacher I must be one of facilitator and coach, not an authoritative director and arbiter.

This facilitative role of the writing teacher has inspired research on the role of writing the teacher as a responder to students' writing (Casanave, 2004; Ferris & Hedgcock 2005; Hedgcock, 2005; Silva & Brice, 2004). As a facilitator, the teacher oiler, guidance in helping students to engage in the thinking process of composing Inn in a spirit of respect for student opinion, must not impose his or her own thoughts on student writing. However, as Joy Reid (1994, p. 273) pointed out, our penchant for laissez-faire approaches to commenting on student writing may have gone too far. "Instead of entering the conversation of composing and drafting, instead of helping students negotiate between their interests and purposes and (In experiences and intentions of their academic readers, many teachers have retreated into a hands-off approach to student writing." Short of "appropriating" student text, we can offer useful

feedback that respects students' values and beliefs. Dana Ferris (1997) offered useful guidelines for making teacher commentary more effective'. For example, Ferris found that when teachers (a) requested specific information and (b) made summary comments on grammar, more substantive student revisions ensued than when teachers (a) posed questions and (b) made positive comments. We are still exploring ways to offer optimal feedback to student writing.

Voice and identity

Weaving in and out of several of the above topics, especially the last one, is the issue of how to preserve the cultural and social identities of students but at the same time to teach English language writing conventions. This issue is especially acute in the case of EAP writing programs where a major goal is for students to write acceptable academic prose in their respective subject-matter fields (Paltridge, 2004). In other writing courses, however, the problem is also significant as course designers and instructors must attend to "the socially and politically situated contexts of writing and how these contexts influence both how writing gets done and the end products of writing" (Casanave, 2004, p. 84). In some ways the issue is one of authenticity, mentioned above, and in other ways it has overtones of critical pedagogy (see Chapter 26). Recent research indicates that some progress is being made toward focusing students on writing for meaningful purposes within their own sociopolitical contexts (Atkinson, 2003; Casanave, 2003), and not just creating writing assignments that will force certain rhetorical competencies.

These seven categories comprise just a few of the many intriguing current questions in teaching writing. By acquainting yourself with these issues, you will begin to gain an appreciation of some of the challenges of becoming an effective writing teacher.

PART III. Strategies and Principles Teaching Writing Skills in Secondary Schools

III.1. Types of Classroom Writing Performance

While various genres of written texts abound, classroom writing performance is, by comparison, limited. Consider the following five major categories of classroom writing performance:

At the beginning level of learning to write, students will simply "write down" English letters, words, and possibly sentences in order to learn the conventions of the orthographic code. Some forms of dictation fall into this category, although dictations can serve to teach and test higher-order processing as well. Dictations typically involve the following steps:

- a. Teacher reads a short paragraph once or twice at normal speed.
- b. Teacher reads the paragraph in short phrase units of three or four words each, and each unit is followed by a pause.
- c. During the pause, students write exactly what they hear.
- d. Teacher then reads the whole paragraph once more at normal speed so students can check their writing.
- e. Scoring of students' written work can utilize a number of rubrics for assigning points. Usually spelling and punctuation errors are not considered as severe as grammatical errors.

Intensive, or controlled

Writing is sometimes used as a production mode for learning, reinforcing or testing grammatical concepts. This intensive writing typically appears in controlled written grammar exercises. This type of writing does not allow much, if any creativity on the part of the writer.

A common form of controlled writing is to present a paragraph to students which they have to alter a given structure throughout. So, for example, they may be asked to change all present tense verbs to past tense; in such a case, students may need to alter other time references in the paragraph.

Guided writing loosens the teacher's control but still offers a series of stimulators. For example, the teacher might get students to tell a story just viewed on a videotape by asking them a series of questions: Where does the story take place? Describe the principal character. What does he say to the woman in the cur?

Yet another form of controlled writing is a dicto-comp. Here, a paragraph is read at normal speed, usually two or three times; then the teacher asks students to rewrite the paragraph to the best of their recollection of the reading. In one of several variations of the dicto-comp technique, the teacher, after reading the passage, puts key words from the paragraph, in sequence, on the chalkboard as cues for the students.

Self-writing

A significant proportion of classroom writing may be devoted to self-writing, or writing with only the self in mind as an audience. The most salient instance of this category in classrooms is note taking, where students take notes during a lecture for the purpose of later recall. Other note taking may be done in the margins of books and on odd scraps of paper.

Diary or journal writing also falls into this category. However, in many circumstances a dialogue journal, in which a student records thoughts, feelings, and reactions and which an instructor reads and responds to, while ostensibly written for oneself, has two audiences.

Display writing

It was noted earlier that writing within the school curricular context is a way of life. For all language students, short-answer exercises, essay examinations, and even research reports will involve an element of display. For academically bound ESL students, one of the academic skills that they need to master is a whole array of display writing techniques.

Real writing

While virtually every classroom writing task will have an element of display writing in it, some classroom writing aims at the genuine communication of messages to an audience in need of those messages. The two categories of real and display writing are actually two ends of a continuum, and in between the two extremes lies some combination of display and real writing. Three subcategories illustrate how reality can be injected:

a. Academic. The Language Experience Approach gives groups of students opportunities to convey genuine information to each other. Content-based instruction encourages the exchange of useful information, and some of this learning uses the written word. Group problem-solving tasks, especially those that relate to current issues and other personally relevant topics, may have a writing component in which information is genuinely sought and conveyed. Peer-editing work adds to what would otherwise be an audience of one (the instructor) and provides real writing opportunity. In certain ESP and EAP courses, students may exchange new information with each other and with the instructor.

b. Vocational/technical. Quite a variety of real writing can take place in classes of students studying English for advancement in their occupation. Real letters can be written; genuine directions for some operation or assembly might be given; and actual forms can be filled out. These possibilities are even greater in what has come to be called "English in the Workplace," where ESL is offered within companies and corporations.

c. Personal. In virtually any ESL class, diaries, letters, postcards, notes, personal messages, and other informal writing can take place, especially within the context of an interactive classroom. While certain tasks may be somewhat contrived, nevertheless the genuine exchange of information can happen.

Principles for teaching writing skills

Out of all of these characteristics of the written word, along with micro- and macroskills and research issues, a number of specific principles for teaching writing skills emerge.

Incorporate practices of "good" writers.

This first guideline is sweeping. But as you contemplate devising a technique that has a writing goal in it, consider the various things that efficient writers do, and see if your technique includes some of these practices. For example, good writers

- focus on a goal or main idea in writing,
- perceptively gauge their audience,
- spend some time (but not too much) planning to write,
- easily let their first ideas flow onto the paper,
- follow a general organizational plan as they write,
- solicit and utilize feedback on their writing,
- are not wedded to certain surface structures,
- revise their work willingly and efficiently,
- patiently make as many revisions as needed.

Balance process and product.

Because writing is a composing process and usually requires multiple drafts before an effective product is created, make sure that students are carefully led through appropriate stages in the process of composing. This includes careful attention to your own role as a guide and as a responder. At the same time, don't get so caught up in the stages leading up to the final product that you lose sight of the ultimate attainment: a clear, articulate, well-organized, effective piece of writing. Make sure students see that everything leading up to this final creation was worth the effort.

Account for cultural/literary backgrounds.

Make sure that your techniques do not assume that your students know English rhetorical conventions. If there are some apparent contrasts between

students' native traditions and those that you are trying to teach, try to help students to understand what it is, exactly, that they are accustomed to and then, by degrees, bring them to the use of acceptable English rhetoric.

Connect reading and writing.

Clearly, students learn to write in part by carefully observing what is already written. That is, they learn by observing, or reading, the written word. By reading and studying a variety of relevant types of text, students can gain important insights both about how they should write and about subject matter that may become the topic of their writing.

Provide as much authentic writing as possible.

Whether writing is real writing or for display, it can still be authentic in that the purposes for writing are clear to the students, the audience is specified overtly, and there is at least some intent to convey meaning. Sharing writing with other students in the class is one way to add authenticity. Publishing a class newsletter, writing letters to people outside of class, writing a script for a skit or dramatic presentation, writing a resume, writing advertisements—all these can be seen as authentic writing.

Frame your techniques in terms of prewriting, drafting, and revising stages.

Process writing approaches tend to be framed in three stages of writing. The prewriting stage encourages the generation of ideas, which can happen in numerous ways:

- reading (extensively) a passage
- skimming and/or scanning a passage
- conducting some outside research
- brainstorming
- listing (in writing-individually)
- clustering (begin with a key word, then add other words, using free-association)

- discussing a topic or question
- instructor-initiated questions and probes
- freewriting

The drafting and revising stages are the core of process writing. In traditional approaches to writing instruction, students either are given timed in-class compositions to write from start to finish within a class hour, or they are given a homework writing assignment. The first option gives no opportunity for systematic drafting, and the second assumes that if students did any drafting at all, they would simply have to learn the tricks of the trade on their own. In a process approach, drafting is viewed as an important and complex set of strategies, the mastery of which takes time, patience, and trained instruction.

Several strategies and skills apply to the drafting/revising process in writing:

- getting started (adapting the freewriting technique)
- "optimal" monitoring of one's writing (without premature editing and diverted attention to wording, grammar, etc.)
- peer-reviewing for content (accepting/using classmates' comments)
- using the instructor's feedback
- editing for grammatical errors
- "read-aloud" technique (in small groups or pairs, students read their almost-final drafts to each other for a final check on errors, flow of ideas, etc.)
- proofreading

Strive to offer techniques that are as interactive as possible.

It is no doubt already apparent that a process-oriented approach to writing instruction is, by definition, interactive (as students work in pairs and groups to generate ideas and to peer-edit), as well as learner-centered (with ample opportunities for students to initiate activity and exchange ideas). Writing techniques that focus on purposes other than compositions (such as letters, forms, memos, directions, short reports) are also subject to the principles of interactive classrooms. Group collaboration, brainstorming, and critiquing are

as easily and successfully a part of many writing-focused techniques. Don't buy into the myth that writing is a solitary activity! Some of it is, to be sure, but a good deal of what makes a good writer can be most effectively learned within a community of learners.

Sensitively apply methods of responding to and correcting your students' writing.

In Chapter 19, some principles of error correction were suggested for dealing with learners' speech errors. Error correction in writing must be approached in a different manner. Because writing, unlike speaking, often includes an extensive planning stage, error treatment can begin in the drafting and revising stages, during which time it is more appropriate to consider errors among several features of the whole process of responding to student writing. As a student receives responses to written work, errors—just one of several possible things to respond to—are rarely changed outright by the instructor; rather, they are treated through self-correction, peer-correction, and instructor-initiated comments.

As you respond to your students' writing, remember that you are there as an ally, as a guide, as a facilitator. After the final work is turned in, you may indeed have to assume the position of judge and evaluator (see below for some comments on evaluation), but until then, the role of consultant will be the most productive way to respond. Ideally, your responses—or at least some of them—will be written and oral as you hold a conference, however short, with a student. Under less than ideal conditions, written comments may have to suffice.

Here are some guidelines for responding to the *first draft*.

- a. Resist the temptation to treat minor (local) grammatical errors; major (global) errors within relevant paragraphs (e) below—can at this stage be indicated either directly (say, by underlining) or indirectly (for example, by a check next to the line in which an error occurs).

- b. Generally resist the temptation to rewrite a student's sentences.
- c. Comment holistically, in terms of the clarity of the overall thesis and the general structural organization.
- d. Comment on the introductory paragraph.
- e. Comment on features that appear to be irrelevant to the topic.
- f. Question clearly inadequate word choices and awkward expression within those paragraphs/sentences that are relevant to the topic.

For the *subsequent drafts*, your responses can include all of the above that (a) now may change its character slightly:

- g. Minor ("local") grammatical and mechanical (spelling, punctuation) should be indicated, but not corrected for the student.
- h. Comment on the specific clarity and strength of all main ideas, supporting ideas, and on argument and logic.
- i. Comment on any further word choices and expressions that may not be "awkward" but are not as clear or direct as they could be.
- j. Check cohesive devices within and across paragraphs, k. In academic papers, comment on documentation, citing sources, evidence, and other support. 1. Comment on the adequacy and strength of the conclusion.

Clearly instruct students on the rhetorical, formal conventions of writing.

Each type of writing has its formal properties. Don't just assume that students will pick these up by absorption. Make them explicit. A reading approach to writing is very helpful here. For academic writing, for example, some of the features of English rhetorical discourse that writers use to explain, propose solutions, debate, and argue are as follows:

- a clear statement of the thesis or topic or purpose
- use of main ideas to develop or clarify the thesis
- use of supporting ideas
- supporting by "telling": describing

- supporting by "showing": giving evidence, facts, statistics, etc.
- supporting by linking cause and effect
- supporting by using comparison and/or contrast

III.2. Strategies for Writing Comprehension

The assessment of writing, especially in a process-oriented classroom, is a thorny issue. If you are a guide and facilitator of students' performance in the ongoing process of developing a piece of written work, how can you also be the judge? What do you judge? The answer to the first question—how can you be a judge and a guide at the same time—is one of the primary dilemmas of all teachers. Juggling this dual role requires wisdom and sensitivity. The key to being a judge is fairness and explicitness (reliability) in what you take into account in your evaluation.

Evaluation Checklists

One way to view writing assessment is through various rating checklists or grids that can indicate to students their areas of strength and weakness, and in many cases such taxonomies are scoring rubrics.

Writing specialists disagree somewhat on the system of weighting each of the above categories, that is, which of the six is most important, next, and so on. Nevertheless, the order in which the six are listed here at the very least emphasizes the importance of content over syntax and vocabulary, which traditionally might have had high priority.

In your evaluation of student writing, the most instructive evaluative feedback you can give is your comments, both specific and summative, regarding the student's work. If numerical scores are either pedagogically or administratively important to you, then you can establish a point scale for each of the categories and return papers with six different scores on them. By avoiding a **single** overall score, you can help students to focus on aspects of writing to which they need to give special attention. If you still need to assign a single "grade" or score to each paper, then consider weighting the first few

categories more heavily. You can thereby emphasize the content-based flavor of your evaluation. Such a weighting scale might look like this.

A key, of course, to successful evaluation is to get your students to understand that your grades, scores, and other comments are varied forms of feedback from which they can benefit. The final evaluation on one composition simply creates input to the learner for the next composition.

Writing Assessment Tasks

Writing an essay in successive drafts, with checklists to guide evaluation, is one general category of writing assessment. There are many more. Hedge (2005) describes over 50 different writing techniques, all of which can have an assessment component. In my *Language Assessment* textbook (Brown, 2004), in the chapter on assessing writing, I have described a number of possible writing tasks according to their level of linguistic complexity, and list them here just to stimulate your own creativity.

1. Imitative writing

- exercises in handwriting letters, words, and punctuation
- keyboarding (typing) exercises

- copying
- listening cloze selection tasks (listen and write)
- picture-cued writing exercises
- completing forms and questionnaires
- converting numbers and abbreviations to words and phrases
- spelling tasks
- one-word dictation tasks

2. Intensive (controlled) writing

- dictation of phrases and simple sentences
- dicto-comp (rewrite a story just heard)

- grammatical transformation exercises
- picture description tasks
- use vocabulary in a sentence
- ordering tasks (re-order a list of words in random order)
- short-answer tasks
- sentence completion tasks

3. Responsive writing

- paraphrasing
- guided writing, e.g., question and answer
- paragraph construction tasks (topic sentence, main idea, etc.)
- responding to a reading or lecture

4. Extensive writing

- essay writing tasks
- tasks in types of writing (narrative, description, argument, etc.)
- tasks in genres of writing (lab report, opinion essay, research paper)

It is of course of paramount importance to be absolutely clear, in your designing of assessment tasks in writing, about *what* you are trying to test and *why* you are testing written performance. The concept of formative assessment is prominent in a course that uses a process approach to writing: Our assessments should serve the purpose of facilitating improvement in a student's written work, and judgment of the final product should occur only when such summative evaluation is warranted. Ferris and Hedgcock (2005), Sokolik (2003), and Weigle (2002) all stress the need for teachers to act responsibly in evaluating writing: Respect the time-tested principles of validity, reliability, and washback in writing assessment.

Writing instruction in a communicative, interactive language course should be deeply rooted in the 12 principles of language learning and teaching that have formed a train of thought throughout this book. As you think about each principle, you can make the connections. Automaticity for example, is gained

as students develop fluency in writing, which can best be promoted through the multiple stages of process writing approach. Meaningful learning and intrinsic motivation are paramount as you try to get your students involved in topics of interest and significance to them and in authentic writing tasks. Strategic investment is clearly at the center of the composing process. Perhaps you can continue down the list yourself.

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