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By: G.Pazilova

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Supervisor: G.Obidova

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TEACHING BY PRINCIPLES: AN INTERACTIVE APPROACH LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY

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Introduction

After getting the Independence the Republic of Uzbekistan has worked out on own model of development taking into account the specific social and political traditions in the specific social and political traditions in the country. One of the most important conditions for the development of any country is a well-functioning education system. As the education system ensures the formation of a highly developed that must be able to live in a highly, with social and personal activity, ability to function independently in the public and political life.

By 1997 on the basis of the National Model of development there had been worked out the national program for personal training which defined conceptional ways and concrete details, mechanisms for radical reforming the education system and personal training.

The program is the normative scientific basis for reforms. Starting from 1997 it is being put into practice stage by stage. The document paves the way for radical reforms in the structure and content of education system of the National program we need to change some ways of teaching the English language under school conditions as the old approaches no longer meet the requirements of the last year.

The historic changes took place in Uzbekistan, since there have been obtained.

Independence and sovereignty after September 1991, in Independence Uzbekistan many political, economical and cultural and society factors have changed. Therefore, the very time of getting Independence the head of the Republic I.A.Karimov attended to change educational system and the attempts reflected on changing in the Educational system in 1997, the Educational system and personal training so high developed before Independence no longer meets requirements of democratic and market changes occurred in the republic today.

It should be noted that National program of personal training had some unique features. The reforms are carried out on an extensive scale and are supported scientifically.

As the president I.A Karimov emphasized in his book “Uzbekistan along the road of Independence and progress”¹. There are four paths of reform and development is based:

- Adherence to universal human values;
- Consolidation and development of the nation’s spiritual heritage;
- Freedom for the individual’s realization;
- Patriotism.

The highest objective reformation in Uzbekistan is to revive those traditions, fill them with new content and set up all necessary conditions achieving peace and democracy, prosperity, cultural advancement freedom of conscience and intellectual for every person on earth.

According to the requirement on the National program of personal training and reforming of highest education in the republic of Uzbekistan it is important to make affective changes in the system of higher education².

As Karimov I.A highlighted “Our young generation must be quick-cutter, wiser, healthier and of course, must be happier than us”. In order to achieve “Harmoniously developed generation”³ educators should use all suitable aids.

My graduation paper’s theme is “Teaching by principles: an interactive approach to language pedagogy”. The purpose of my graduation paper is to synthesize that accumulation of knowledge into a practical, principled approach to teaching English as a second or foreign language.

In this way, I try to write it for prospective and new teachers who essentially need to learn how to walk into a classroom full of learners and effectively accomplish communicative objectives. It primarily addresses the needs of those in teacher education programs who have never taught before, but it secondarily serves as a refresher course for those who have had some experience in the classroom. It speaks

¹ I.A.Karimov “Uzbekistan along the road of Independence and progress” Tashkent 1993, p.67

² I.A.Karimov “There is no future without history” 1997.p. 47.

³I.A Karimov “Hormoniously developed generation is a basis of progress of Uzbekistan” 1998.

both to those who are in English as a second language contexts (in English speaking countries) and to those who are in English as a foreign language situations.

The use of the term approach in the subtitle of the graduation paper signals an important characteristic of current language teaching pedagogy. While we may indeed still appropriately refer to classroom “methodology”, the various separately-named methods are no longer at the center of our concern. Instead, our current and more enlightened-foundations of language teaching are built on numerous principles of language learning and teaching about which we can be reasonable secure. A principled approach to interactive language pedagogy is one that is built on such principles.

So, by my graduation paper I tried to help teachers to build the repertoire of classroom techniques that are firmly embedded in well-established principles of second language acquisition.

The following are some of the features of Teaching by principles:

Practical realities of language classrooms are the primary focus, but all those pedagogical fundamentals are grounded in principles of second language acquisition.

The reader is thereby led to consider why every technique might or might not work. Yet, at the same time, the reader is not dragged into long, theoretical diatribes.

The prose therefore deliberately light, readable, and “friendly” to those who have not had advanced courses in educational linguistics. I have avoided weighty, high sounding, “scholarly” treatises in my objective of talking to teachers in plain, understandable language, with a minimum of distracting references to the dozens of potentially related research studies.

Readers are given a step by step approach to teaching language interactively. Sometimes new teachers are quite apprehensive about the prospect of dealing with the “chaos” of a communicative classroom – one with a fair share of small group work and student participation. Will I be able to follow my lesson plan? How will I keep control? What if students are silent? What if students ask some questions I can’t answer? What if I give the wrong answer? What if I completely fall apart? This

graduation paper will, bit by bit, help the novice teacher to become confident in directing interactive classrooms.

While the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing are treated separately in different places, throughout this graduation paper the emphasis is on the integration of the four skills. Usually, the most effective English language teaching integrates these skills in a whole language approach, rather than assuming that one skill can be broken down, isolated for long stretches of time.

During my practice with pupils at school, I ran across some difficulties. Because my pupils can't communicate with each other. As a reason for that, either they don't know enough words to use or they haven't information about usage or structure of sentences.

But I think only by teaching them translation and vocabulary, we can't achieve "fluent speaker". For this, we must use new techniques for improving student's interactive and communicative skills and their knowledge or outlook. In teaching any foreign language the most important of all, is to develop speech fluency of learner's. Furthermore, if only people, there are taught, communication won't be inadequate. Learners may know the rules and many words.

The functions of word order in English is different than Uzbek and Russian.

In English it is one of the ways of expressing grammatical relations between words, direct word order being typical of sentences.

The direct word order of the English sentence is determined by the rules of grammar requiring that the subject should be placed before the predicate, very often, however, the logical center of sentence. Before translating the English sentence into Uzbek or Russian, we should find out what its logical center is.

For example: Thus ended our long journey – так кончилась наше долгое путешествие – Bizning uzoq sayohat shunday yakun topdi. This is the most common way of translation.

An attribute can be expressed by an adjective, noun, numeral, adverb, verbal or clause.

The object is a secondary part of sentence completing or restricting the meaning of a verb. It may be attached to a transitive verb in its both finite and non-finite forms. Not only in reading, or writing a story, but understanding, speaking English. It would be useful to concern above mentioned facts.

They say, reading is improved by reading, writing is developed by writing, as well we can improve our English learner's communicative and interactive skills only by more speaking and communicating.

We can meet some exercises that offer our pupils to work in pairs and in groups in different themes.

When we communicate we use language to accomplish some functions such as arguing, persuading, promising agreeing or disagreeing.

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF APPLYING INTERACTIVE TEACHING APPROACH IN EFL CLASSROOM

Interaction is an important word for language teachers. In the era of communicative language teaching interaction is, in fact, the heart of communication. And after several decades of research on teaching and learning languages, scientists discovered that the best way to learn is through interaction itself. Interaction is the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings or ideas between two or more people resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other. From the very beginning of language study, classrooms should be interactive. “Through interaction, students can increase their language store as they listen to or read authentic linguistic material, or even the output of their fellow students in discussions, skits, joint problem-solving tasks, or dialogue journals. In interaction, students can use all they possess of the language—all they have learnt or casually absorbed—in real life exchanges. Even at an elementary stage, they learn in this way to exploit the elasticity of language”⁴.

Roles of interactive teacher. Teachers can play many roles in the course of teaching. Just as parents are called upon to be many things to their children, neither teachers be satisfied with one role. Following is a spectrum of possibilities, some of which are more conducive to creating an interactive classrooms and others less so.

The teacher as controller: a role that is sometimes expected in traditional educational institutions is that of “master” controller, always in charge of every moment in the classroom. Master controllers determine what the students do, when they should speak, and what language forms they should use. They can often predict all student responses because everything is mapped out ahead of time, with no leeway for going on targets. In some respects, such control may sound admirable. But for interaction to take place, the teacher must create a climate in which spontaneity can thrive, in which unrehearsed language can be performed, and in which the freedom of expression given over to students makes it impossible to predict everything that they

⁴ Wilga Rivers “Techniques and principles in Interactive language teaching”. 1987. p 102.

will say and do. Nevertheless, some control on your part is actually an important element of successfully carrying out interactive techniques. In the planning phase especially, a wise controller will carefully project how a technique will proceed, map out the initial input to students, specify directions to be given, and gauge the timing of a technique. So, granted that allowing for spontaneity of expression involves yielding certain elements of control over to students, nevertheless, even in the most cooperative of interactive classrooms, the teacher must maintain some control simply to organize the class hour.

The teacher as director: some interactive classroom time can legitimately be structured in such a way that the teacher is like a conductor of an orchestra or a director of a drama. As students engage in either rehearsed or spontaneous language performance, it is your job to keep the process flowing smoothly and efficiently. The ultimate motive of such direction, of course, must always be to enable students eventually to engage in the real –life drama of improvisation as each communicative event brings its own uniqueness.

The teacher as manager: this metaphor captures your roles as one plan lessons and modules and courses, one who structures the larger, longer segments of classroom time, but who then allows each individual player to be creative within those parameters. Managers of successful corporations, for example, retain control of certain larger objectives of the company, keep employees pointed toward goals, engage in ongoing evaluation and feedback but give freedom to each person to work in their own individual areas of expertise. A language class should not be markedly different.

The teacher as facilitator: a less directive role might be described as facilitating the process of learning, of making learning easier for students, helping them to clear away roadblocks, to find shortcuts, to negotiate rough terrain. The facilitating role requires that you step away from the managerial or directive role and allow students, with your guidance and gentle prodding here and there, to find their own pathways to success. A facilitator capitalizes on the principle of intrinsic

motivation by allowing students to discover language through using it pragmatically rather than telling them about language.

The teacher as resource: here you take the least directive role. In fact, the implication of the resource role is that the student takes the initiative to come to you. You are ‘there’ for advice and counsel when the student seeks it. It’s of course not practical to push this metaphor to an extreme where you would simply walk into a classroom and say something like “Well, what do you want to learn today?”. Some degree of control, of planning, of managing the classroom is essential. But there are appropriate times when you can literally take a back seat and allow the students to proceed with their own linguistic development. As an interactive teacher, every new teacher should be able to assume all five of the above roles on this continuum of directive to nondirective teaching.

The concept that every learner makes (constructs) their own meaning from any experience is called constructivism and underlies aspects the curriculum frameworks currently being used. To confuse the issue however, the idea of defining specific learning objectives for students to achieve, which is also part of developments is in many ways in conflict with a constructivist philosophy. Interactive Teaching does not mean just challenging students to make whatever sense they can from any experience (learning by doing), but, to be of value, needs the interaction of sensitive thing teachers to interact and challenge student thinking exposing them to new ideas. The phrases “focused teaching” and “the teacher as a cognitive coach” are often used to define this more positive role for the teacher.

Interactive teaching values student’s prior ideas and aims at empowering students to be independent learners. For teachers it offers an opportunity to learn along with the students and to use their interactive skills to listen carefully and challenge misconceptions where possible. The teacher’s own knowledge will always be an important factor. To find the time to diagnose what students understand, either individually or as a group, and then to challenge them to enrich their thinking, requires a class management style that allows teachers space to interact. Such a

focused approach is best seen in reading and math programs where the teacher has a focused teaching group can be applied to all curriculum areas. Introducing too many activities in, for example a science lesson may be too demanding for the teacher to find the time, space and energy to interact purposefully. In such a situation the teacher becomes more an “activity manager” than a teacher.

The vision of a teacher using an “interactive approach” is to develop classrooms where students are helped to make sense and reflect on their work and set future learning goals. In such classrooms students are encouraged to articulate how they learn, they should be able to express what questions and prior ideas they have, what their plans are to solve the problem.

They should also know how they are going to evaluate and present their findings.

The best “assessment” of student competence is for them to exhibit their skill by having them plan, undertake, and jointly evaluate using negotiated criteria, an independent study.

II. TEACHING BY PRINCIPLES: COGNITIVE, AFFECTIVE AND LINGUISTIC.

In principles of language learning and teaching, which perhaps you have read or are reading, that these are “the best of times and the worst time of times” in the language teaching profession. Best, because we have learnt a great deal about language acquisition in the last two or three decades. But worst, our information is still so slippery that just as we are about to pin down a generalization about second language acquisition, the phenomenon often eludes our grasp. By now you have perhaps already come to an appreciation of the complexity and mystery of this field.

Cognitive principles. We will call the first set of principles “cognitive” because they relate mainly to mental and intellectual functions. It should be made clear, however, that all twelve of the principles outlined in this chapter spill across our somewhat arbitrary cognitive, affective and linguistic boundaries.

Automaticity. No one can dispute the widely observed success with which children learn foreign languages, especially when they are living in the cultural, linguistic milieu of the language. We commonly attribute children’s success to their widely observed tendency to acquire language subconsciously, that is, without overtly analyzing the forms of language themselves. Through an inductive progress of exposure to language input and opportunity to experiment with output, they appear to learn languages without “thinking” about them. This childlike, subconscious processing is similar to ⁵automatic processing with peripheral attention to language forms. That is, in order simply to manage the incredible complexity of language – the vast numbers of bits information- both adults and children must sooner or later move away from processing language unit, piece, focusing closely on each, and “graduate” to a form of high- speed, automatic processing in which language forms (affixes, words, word-order, rules etc.) are only on the periphery of attention. Children usually make the transition faster than adults, who tend to linger in analytical, controlled modes, on the bits and pieces of language, resisting putting those bits and pieces into

⁵ It was called by Barry McLaughlin 1991

the “hard drive” of our minds. We will the first principle of language learning and teaching the principle of automaticity and include under this rubric the importance of:

- Subconscious absorption of language through meaningful use;
- Efficient and rapid movement away from a focus on the forms of language to a focus on the purposes to which language is put;
 - Efficient and rapid movement away from a capacity-limited-control of a few bits and pieces to a relatively unlimited automatic mode of processing language forms;
 - Resistance to the temptation to analyze language forms. The principle of automaticity may be stated as follows: efficient second language learning involves a timely movement of the control of a few language forms into the automatic processing of a relatively unlimited number of language forms. Overanalyzing language, thinking too much about its forms, and consciously lingering on rules of language all that this graduation to automaticity.

Notice that this principle does not say that conscious processing is necessarily, or always, harmful. In fact, adults especially can benefit greatly from certain conscious applications. What we principle does say is that adults can take a lesson from children here by speedily overcoming our propensity to pay too much conscious attention to the bits and pieces of language and to move on to the actual use of language for meaningful purposes.

Affective principles. We now turn our attention to principles that are more central to the emotional processing of human beings. Here, we look at feelings about self, about relationships in a community of learners, and about the emotionalties between language and culture.

Language ago. This principle can be summarized in a well- recognized claim: as human beings learn to use a second language, they also develop a new mode of thinking, feeling, and acting- a second identity. The new “language ago” intertwined

with second language, can easily create within the learner a sense of fragility, a defensiveness, and a rising of inhibitions.

The language ago principle might also be affectionately called the “warm fuzzy” principle: all second language learners need to be treated within affective tender loving care. Remember when you were first learning a second language and how you sometimes felt so silly, if not humiliated, when the lack of words of structure left you helpless in face-to-face communication? Otherwise highly intelligent adults can be reduced to babbling infants in a second language, and we teachers need to provide all the affective support that we possibly can.

Language-based egos, which are normally well developed attack, are suddenly in the perception of the learner-obsolete. Now they must fend for their emotional selves with a paltry linguistic battery that leaves them with a feeling of total defenselessness.

Self-confidence. Another way of phrasing this one is the “I can do it!” principle, or the self-esteem principle. At the heart of all learning is the condition that a person believes in his own ability to accomplish the task. While the self-confidence can be linked to the language ago principle above, it goes a step further in emphasizing the importance of the learner’s self-assessment, regardless of the degree of language involvement. Simply put, we’re talking about: the eventual success that learners attain in a task is at last partially a factor of their belief that they indeed are fully capable of accomplishing the task. Some immediate classroom application of this emerge: (1) Give ample verbal and non –verbal assurances to students. It helps to student to hear teacher affirm a belief in the student’s ability. Energy that the learner would otherwise direct at avoidance or at erecting emotional walls of defense is thereby released to tackle the matter at hand. (2) Sequence techniques from easier to more difficult. As a teacher you are called on to sustain self-confidence where it already exists and to build it where it doesn’t. Your activities in the classroom would therefore logically start with simpler techniques and simpler concepts. Student

then can establish a sense of accomplishment that propels them to the next, more difficult step.

Linguistic principles. The last category of principles of language learning and teaching center on language itself and on how learners deal with this complex linguistic system. It almost goes without saying that the native language of every learner is an extremely significant factor in the acquisition of a new language. Most of the time, we think of the native language as exercising an interfering effect on the target language, and indeed the most salient, observable effect does appear to be one of interference. The majority of a learner's errors in producing the second language, especially in the beginning levels, stem from the learner's assumption that the target language operates like the native language.

The principle of the native language effect stresses importance of that native system in the linguistic attempts of the second language learner:

The native language of learners will be a highly significant system. While that native system will exercise both facilitating and interfering effects on the production and comprehension of the new language; the interfering effects in the classroom, interference are likely to be the most salient. In dealing with the native language effect in the classroom, interference will most often be the focus of your feedback in the classroom. That's perfectly sound pedagogy. Learner's errors stand out like the tips of icebergs giving us salient signals of an underlying system at work. Errors are, in fact, windows to a learner's internalized understanding of the second language, and therefore they give us teachers something observable to react to. Their non-errors- the facilitating effects- certainly do not need to be treated. Don't try to fix something that isn't broken.

Interlanguage. Just as children develop their native language in gradual, systematic stages, adults, too, manifest systematic progression of acquisition of sounds and words, and structures and discourse features. The interlanguage principles tell us that: Second language learners tend to go through a systematic or

quasystematic developmental process as they progress to full competence in the target language.

Successful interlanguage. Language development is partially a factor of utilizing feedback from others.

2.1. The principle of interactivity

Automaticity: true human interaction is best accomplished when focal attention on meaning and messages and not linguistic forms. Learners are thus freed from keeping language in a controlled mode and can more easily proceed to automatic modes of processing.

Intrinsic motivation: this principle is elaborated upon in detail in the next as an example of how certain complex principles underlie a surprising number of our teaching practices. Simply stated, the intrinsic motivation principle is: the most powerful rewards are those that are intrinsically motivated within the learner. Because the behavior stems from needs, wants or desires within oneself, the behavior itself is self-rewarding; therefore, no externally administered reward is necessary at all.

If all learners were intrinsically motivated to perform all classroom tasks, we might not even need teachers! But you can perform a great service to learners and to the overall learning process by first considering carefully what the intrinsic motives of your students are and then by designing classroom tasks that feed into those intrinsic drives.

Strategic investment: successful mastery of the second language will be due to large extent to a learner's own personal "investment" of time, effort and attention to the second language in the form of an individualized focus on comprehending and producing the language.

As research on successful language learners has dramatically shown, the variation among learners poses a thorny pedagogical dilemma. Learning styles alone signal numerous learner preferences that a teacher needs to attend to. For example visual auditory preference and individual v.s group work preference are highly

significant factors in a classroom. In a related strain of research, we are finding that learners also employ a multiplicity of strategies for sending and receiving language and that one learner's strategies for success may differ markedly from another's. Some aspects of the dilemma surrounding variation and the need for individualization can be solved through specific learner strategy training, the principal topic.

Risk-taking: Successful language learners, in their realistic appraisal of themselves as vulnerable beings yet capable of accomplishing tasks, must be willing to become "gamblers" in the game of language, to attempt to produce and to interpret language that is a bit beyond their absolute certainty. This principle strikes at the heart of educational philosophy. Many instructional contexts around the world do not encourage risk-taking; instead they encourage correctness, right answers, and withholding "guesses" until one is sure to be correct. Most educational research shows the opposite to be more conducive to long-term retention and intrinsic motivation. How can your classrooms reflect the principle of risk-taking? (1). Create an atmosphere in the classroom that encourages students try out language, to venture a response, and not just to wait for someone else to volunteer language.

(2). Provide reasonable challenges in your techniques- make them neither too easy no too hard.

(3). Help your students to understand what calculated risk-taking is lest some feel that they must blurt out any old response.

(4). Return students' risky attempts with positive affirmation, praising them for trying while at the same time warmly but firmly attending to their language.

The language-culture connection: whenever you teach a language, you also teach a complex system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling, and acting.

Classroom application include carrying out the following: (1). Discuss cross-cultural differences with your students, emphasizing that no culture is "better" than another, but that cross-cultural understanding is an important fact of learning a language.

(2). Include among your techniques certain activities or materials that illustrate the connection between language and culture.

(3). Teach your student the cultural connotations especially of sociolinguistic aspects of language.

(4). Screen your techniques for material that may be culturally offensive.

(5). Make explicit to your students what you may take for granted in your own culture.

A second aspect of the language-culture connection is the extent to which your students will themselves be effected by the process of acculturation which will vary with the context and the goals of learning . Especially in “second “ language learning contexts, the success with which learners adapt to a new cultural milieu will affect their language acquisition success, and vice versa, in some possibly significant ways.

Communicative competence. While communicative competence has come to convey a multiplicity of meanings depending on which teacher or researcher you consult, it’s nevertheless a useful phrase to keep in your teacher’s repertoire. In its skeletal form, communicative competence consists of some combination of the following components:

Organizational competence (grammatical and discourse).

Pragmatic competence (functional and sociolinguistic).

Strategic competence.

Psychomotor skills.

The array of studies on communicative competence provides what is perhaps the most important linguistic principle of learning and teaching: Giving the communicative competence is the goal of a language classroom, then instruction needs to point toward all of its components : organizational, pragmatic, strategic, and psychomotor. Communicative goals are best achieved by giving due attention to language use and not just usage, to fluency and not just accuracy, to authentic language and contexts, and to student’s eventual need to play classroom learning to heretofore unrehearsed contexts in the real world.

2.2. The need for conscious grammatical focus in the classroom:an interactive learning experience.

The teaching of grammar has always been a central aspects of foreign language classrooms was the study of grammar. The twentieth century, especially the last half, has changed all that dramatically. Now, as we speed toward the twenty-first century, language teachers are often confused by a swarm of mixed messages about the place of grammar and vocabulary in the communicative language classroom.

The place of grammar. So that we know just what it is we are talking about when we use the word grammar, a definition is in order. Grammar is a system of rules governing the conventional arrangement and relationship of words in a sentence. And when we use the word grammar, we refer to sentence –level rules. Be careful not to confuse the term grammar with the rules governing the relationship among sentences, which we refer to as discourse rules. The next question, then, is whether or not to teach grammar in language classes, and if so, how to teach grammar. Varied opinions on the question can be found in the literature on language teaching. Historically, grammar has been central. But in recent decades, a few extremists have advocated no teaching of grammar whatsoever. Reason, balance, and the experience of teachers in recent language teaching tradition tell us that judicious attention to grammatical form in the adult classroom is not only helpful, if appropriate techniques are used, but essential to a speedy learning process. Appropriate grammar focusing techniques :

- Are embedded in meaningful communicative contexts.

- Contribute positively to communicative goals.

- Promote accuracy within fluent communicative language.

- Do not overwhelm students with linguistic terminology.

- Are as lively and intrinsically motivating as possible.

For adults the question is not so much whether to teach or not to teach grammar, but rather, what are the optimal conditions for overt teaching of grammar. Marianne Celce Murcia offered six easily identifiable variables that can help you to

determine the role of grammar in language teaching. Notice that for each variable, the continuum runs from less to more important; however, it does not say that grammar is unimportant for any of the six variables. Variables that determine the importance of grammar.

Less important (focus on form) More important

Learner variables.

Age Children Adolescents Adults

Proficiency.

Level: Beginning Intermediate Advanced

Educational Preliterate Semiliterate Literate

Background no formal some formal well

Education education educated

Instructional variables.

Skill: Listening Reading Speaking Writing

Register: Informal Consultative Formal

Need/use: Survival Vocational Professional

1. Age. Clearly, due to normal intellectual developmental variables, young children can profit from a focus on form only if the focus is very, very simple and stated or illustrated in concrete form. Adults, with their abstract intellectual capabilities, can use grammatical pointers to advance their communicative abilities.

2. Proficiency level. If too much grammar focus is forget on to beginning level learners, you run the risk of blocking the acquisition of fluency skills. At this level, grammatical focus is helpful as an occasional “zoom lens” with which we zero in on some aspect of language that is currently being practiced, but not helpful if it becomes the major focus of class work. At the advanced level, grammar is not necessarily “more important”, as Celce-Murcia would suggest by her chart but rather, it is less likely to disturb communicative fluency. It may or may not be more important, depending on the accuracy already achieved by learners.

3. Educational background .students who are non- literate or who have no formal educational background may find it difficult to grasp the complexity of grammatical terms and explanations. Highly educated students, on the other hand, are cognitively more receptive to grammar focus and may insist on errors correction to help refine their already fluent skills.

4. Language skills. Because of the permanence and the demand for perfection grammatical form in written English, grammar work may be more suitable for improving written English than for speaking, reading and writing,

5. Register. Informal contexts often make fewer demands on a learner's grammatical accuracy. In conversation classes, for example, form may be less of an issue than in a class on formal writing.

6. Needs and goals. If learners are headed toward professional goals, they may need to stress formal accuracy more so than learners at the survival level.

These six categories should be looked on as general guidelines for judging the need for conscious grammatical focus in the classroom but none of these suggestions here are absolute! For example, you can probably already think of numerous situations where it's quite important indeed to focus on form with beginners, or to get learners away from intense a grammatical focus in a context of a formal register.

2.3. Communicative competence:the problems in communicative skills of learners when teaching English.

When teaching English as foreign language, there are some problems communicative skills of learners.

It is the problem of the student who may be structurally competent, but who can not communicate properly. As new work express it, this student may know “the structures that the linguistic teaches, can not know that the way to get his cigarette by a stronger when he has no matches is to walk up to him and say one of the utterances “Do you have a light?” or “bot a match”. Speaking is perhaps the most demanding skill for the teacher to teach. In their own language children are able to express

emotions, communicative intentions, explore the language and make fun of it, so they expect to be able to do the same in English. Part of the magic of teaching learners a foreign language is their unspoken assumption that the foreign language is just another way of expressing what they want to express, but there are limitations because of their lack of actual language.

If we don't know what they want to say then we can not expect to be able to predict what language the children will use their choice is infinite, and we can not decide what they will say want to say. We also find that the children will often naturally insert their native language when they can't find the words in English. And also there is a problem: it is finding the balance what is important for beginners is finding the balance between providing language through controlled and we get activities and at the same time letting them enjoy natural talk. Most of our pupils have little opportunity to practice speaking English outside the classroom and need lots of practice when they are in class.

When the pupils are working with controlled and guided activities, we want them to produce correct language. How do we correct their mistakes? I think it is also a problem. If they have mistakes at this stage then they should be corrected at once. During this type of activity the pupils are using teacher or text book language and the pupils are only imitating or giving an alternative, so correction is straight forward.

However, when pupils are working on free oral activities we are trying to get them to say what they want to say, to express themselves and their own personalities the language framework of the activity is often quite tightly controlled by the teacher or the text book but the emphasis for the pupils should be on content. If pupils are doing problem solving or working on any of the activity then correction of language mistakes should not be done while the activity is going on.

The teacher can note what he or she thinks should be corrected and take it up in class later. Of course, if pupils ask you what is correct or what the English word for "x" is while they are talking, then we teachers should give the answer.

When learner start learning English, they obviously need to be given language before they can produce it themselves language has to go in before it can come out. At this initial stage the activities will be under the control of teacher. Guided practice follows on directly from controlled practice and will often be done either in pairs or in small groups. Guided practice usually gives the pupils some sort of choice but the choice of language is limited. Text books are full of exercises for guided practice and you can use pictures and objects or miming to help the pupils understand the content and practice the word- telling the time, asking the way, talking about colors , etc.

It is evident, that the role of the language teacher today is not as simple as it once was. Every day researchers are discovering new factors that may play a part in language learning. Today, knowledge of linguistic structure of the language is only one of the requirements of a good language teacher.

Teachers should also have are broad background knowledge of the social environment that influences their students, different pedagogical techniques, social and cultural aspects of the language being taught and techniques for diagnosing certain psychological characteristics of learners.

For a language is much more lists of vocabulary and sets of grammar rules and language learning is not simply a matter of acquiring a system of linguistic formulas. Language is a form of communication among individuals in a specific social contexts. But even more than that language is a way of thinking and of processing information. It is a symbol of a culture and of personal identity this new increased responsibility for language learning does not fall entirely on the teacher, however, the student must also assume more responsibility for the language learning process. Now, the student is not simply a passive receptacle into which the teacher pours the knowledge. He must participate actively in the learning process. In the final analyzes. It is the learner who must assimilate the language and allow it to become part of him. Communicative and interactive skills are promote integration of speaking, listening, grammar in ways that reflect language use. But opportunities for speaking and listening require structure and planning. If they are too support language

development. This digest describes what speaking involves and what good speakers do in the process of expressing themselves. It presents an outline for creating an effective speaking lesson learner's speaking skills.

Outside the classroom, listening is used twice as often as speaking, which in turn is used twice as much as reading and writing. Inside the classroom, listening and speaking are the most often used skills. They are recognized as critical for functioning in an English language context, both by teachers and by learners. These skills are also logical instructional starting points when learners have low literary levels or limited formal education, or when they come from language backgrounds with a non-Roman script.

Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and receiving and processing information. Its forms and meaning are dependent on the context in which it occurs, including the participants themselves, their collective experiences, the physical environment, and the purposes for speaking. It is often spontaneous, open-ended and evolving. However, speech is not always unpredictable language functions that tend to occur in certain discourse situations can be identified and charted. For example, when a salesperson asks, "May I help you?" the expected discourse sequence includes a statement of need, response to the need, offer of appreciation, acknowledgement of the appreciation, and a leavetaking exchange. Speaking requires that learners not only know how to produce specific points of language such as grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary (linguistic competence), but also that they understand when, why, and in what ways to produce language. Finally, speech has its own skills structures, and conventions different from written language. A good speaker synthesizes knowledge to succeed in a given speech act.

A speaker's skills and speech habits have an impact on the success of any exchange. Speaking requires that learners not only know how to produce specific points of language and speakers must be able to anticipate and to produce the expected patterns of specific discourse situations. They must also manage discrete

elements such as turn-taking, rephrasing, providing feedback, or redirecting. For example, a learner involved in the exchange with the salesperson described previously must know the usual pattern that such an interaction follows and access that knowledge as the exchange progresses. The learner must also choose the correct vocabulary to describe the item sought, rephrase or emphasize words to clarify the description of the clerk does not understand, and use appropriate facial expressions to indicate satisfaction with the service. Other skills and knowledge that instruction might address include the following:

- Producing the sounds, stress patterns, rhythmic structures, and intonations of the language;

- Using grammar structures accurately;

- Assessing characteristics of the target audience, including shared knowledge and shared points of reference, status and power relations of participants, interest levels, or differences in perspectives;

- Selecting vocabulary that is understandable and appropriate for the audience, the topic being discussed, and the setting in which the speech act occurs;

- Using gestures or body language;

- Paying attention to the success of the interaction and adjusting components of speech such as vocabulary, rate of speech, and complexity of grammar structures to maximize listener comprehension and involvement.

Teachers should monitor learner's speech production to determine what skills and knowledge they already have and what areas need development. Bailey and Sovage's *New Ways in Teaching Speaking* and Lewis's *New Ways in Teaching Adults* offer suggestions for activities that can address different skills. Speaking lessons can use the preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and extension. The teacher can use the preparation step to establish a context for the speaking task and to initiate awareness of the speaking skill to be targeted. In presentation, the teacher can provide learners with a production model that furthers learners' comprehensions and helps them because more attentively observes of language use. Practice involves learners in

reproducing the targeted structure, usually in a controlled or highly supported manner. Evaluation involves directing attention to the skill being examined and asking learners to monitor and assess their own progress. Finally, extension consists of activities that ask learners to use the strategy or skill in a different context of authentic communicative situation, or to integrate use of the new skill or strategy with previously acquired ones.

Although dialogues and conversations are the most obvious and most often used speaking activities in language classrooms, a teacher can select activities from a variety of tasks.

When presenting tasks, teacher should tell learners about the language function to be produced in the task and the real contexts in which it usually occurs. They should provide opportunities for interactive practice and build upon previous instruction as necessary. Teachers should be careful not to overload a speaking lesson with other new material such as numerous vocabulary or grammatical structures. This can distract learner from the primary speaking goals of the lesson. Speaking is the key to communication. By considering what good speakers do, what speaking tasks can be used in class, and what specific needs learners, report teachers can help learners improve their speaking and overall oral competency.

The further, and very important point to be considered is that the development of communicative self-confidence in learners is perhaps crucial to their further linguistic development while it is undoubtedly true that some learners will respond well to strictly “language” courses in circumstances where they also have pressing communication needs, it seems intuitively reasonable to suggest that the strain on most learners will be considerable, if they’re faced with the twin problems of developing linguistic accuracy and achieving communicative self-confidence, but only receiving help with the first of the two.

The two keys to improving our communication skills are awareness and change. To start, we must evaluate our own strengths and weaknesses as communicator. What are we presently doing well? What not so well? What do we

understand about our own personality and how it relates to communication? Are we knowledgeable about current theories of communication? Once this honest inventory begin behavioral change to improve our skills. Like the Olympic athlete (I have said this above) in training, you we can set our goals and begin working to archive them.

It wasn't too long ago that the common belief was that our the time we finished adolescence and little fundamental change occurred after that point in our lives. That idea has now been set aside. While it is still recognized that the most significant socialization occurs during childhood and adolescence, there is now widespread agreement that change and development continue into old age. We can add two points are of special importance to us as we prepare to barn the communication skills that are necessary to career success. "Adult socialization is more likely to change outward behavior, whereas childhood socialization molds basic internal values. Adult socialization is designed to help a person gain specific skills; childhood socialization deals more with motivation"⁶

Our effort to develop communication skills that will contribute to a successful career, must start with self – evaluation. Before we go forward we must look backward. We have already lived a significant span of our life and, in the process, formed a personality that directly influences the way we interact with others. It is necessary that we reflect for a while on just how we became the person we are and why each of us has a personality distinct from one another.

Social scientists define personality as a system of beliefs, attitudes, behaviors that are the particular qualities and characteristics of a person.

There are many theories explaining how personalities develop, but it is not our purpose to theories. That is more the function of a psychology or sociology. However we can generalize by nothing that these theories take one of two broad approaches; biological determinism or cultural deterministic theories suggest that genetic factors have a greater impact on human behavior than was previously taught. Culturally deterministic theories claim that environment, the things we are exposed to in our

⁶Orville Brim and Stanton wheel. "Socialization after childhood" N/ York Inc 1996 page 26

lives, is the primary influence that molds our personalities. The truth probably lies somewhere between the two theories and there is still much that we have to learn. We can however acknowledge the biological theories and still claim that result of the cultural stimuli we receive during communication. Communication is the way that we acquire our human personality: that is the process in which we learn the skills values, attitudes and role behaviors that we use in life. For most of us, the most important were our parents, the teachers in the schools we attended, or religious education, the friends we have and today more than ever before television and views. It might be useful at this point for us to try to connect some of our positive personality characteristics with the communicating factor we consider most responsible for each characteristic.

Another method of identifying the person we really are is to try to place ourselves in one of the broad categories of communication types characterized below: the cooperative Communicator, the Dominating communicator and the Yielding Communicator. While it is true that our behavior as communicators will vary depending on the people we are with and the situation we are in, it is probably equally true that certain patterns or habits tend to characterize our behavior most of the time. Whatever our own repetitive patterns are will determine which category we belong to. Next to the terms below, write “yes” after the characteristic that describes our communications behavior, most of the time and “no” where the characteristic occurs infrequently or not at all. The category with the most “yeses” may in fact be the one to which we presently belong.

The Cooperative communicator

- Encourages dialogue and is willing to listen to another person’s point of view.
- Works for joint understanding and solutions to problems so that goals may be attained.
- Offers new ideas and suggestions willingly.

- Recognizes that he/she is not always right and that to be wrong is, indeed quite human.
- Looks for new ways of doing things and is not reluctant to “stick one’s neck out” by experimentation.

The dominating Communicator.

- Is strictly a one way communicator.
- Feels that his/her own ideas are best and does not listen to others.
- Imposes his/her own point of view on other whenever possible.
- Is not open to alternative approaches to accomplishing objectives.
- Tries to preserve the status quo and does not encourage experimentation.

The Yielding communicator.

- Is passive and shifts the responsibility for communication to the other person.
- Believes that other people have more to contribute they do.
- Allows them to be manipulated by other people even when they know what is happening.

Once we have studied the three types of communicators which of the three do we feel describe as best? It summed in today’s “informational” society, the more “cooperative” characteristics we possess the better prepared we shall we to participate in the new wave that is sweeping.

Education – employee relations in our informational society. The “dominating” communicators are still to be found but, like the dinosaurs of the Mesozoic era, they are a vanishing breed who will soon be extinct. Finally, it is self – evident that the “yielding” communicator is one who is not going to share in to potential rewards if a successful business and our future career. As was discussed earlier, change is possible. We must work to become “cooperative” communicator. I think we have enough condition to be the in every sphere of life.

The advantages of teaching communication skills in our informational society.

We live in a developing century and our society full of information, If we are lack of information, to receive and give information we shall come across many difficulties. So rich of us are future teachers so we must and sometimes have to be the best in communication with others. Besides we'll educate young people in future on the other hand our every student must be good at all skills: listening, writing, reading and you "teaching oral communication. I'm eager to explain you "teaching oral and writing communication skills" in an informational society.

From a communicative, pragmatic view of the language, listening and speaking skills are closely intervened. More often than not English as the second language curricula that treat oral communication skills will simply be labeled as "Listening and speaking" courses. The interaction between these two models of performance applies especially strongly to the most popular discourse category in the profession: conversation. And, in the classroom, even relatively unidirectional types of spoken language input (speeches, lectures) are often followed or preceded by various forms of oral production on the part of students.

Some of components of the teaching spoken language were covered in my previous point of view. These opinions will build on those considerations as we investigate the teaching of oral communication skills. A review of some of the current issues in teaching oral communication will help to provide some perspective to the more practical considerations that follow in this point.

The place of pronunciation teaching. There has been some controversy over the role of pronunciation work in communicative, interactive course of study. Because the overwhelming majority of adult learners will never acquire an accent free command of a foreign language, then. Should a language paradigm that emphasizes whole language, meaningful contexts, subconscious acquisition focus on the teeny pronunciation details of language? The answer is "yes" but in a different way from what was perceived to be essential a mere decade or two ago. More on this later in my next point of view . About accuracy and fluency. An issues that pervades all of language performance centers on the distinction between accuracy and fluency. In as

teachers is. How shall we prioritize the two clearly important speaker goals of accurate (e.g: clear, articulate, grammatically and phonologically correct) language and fluent (flowing, natural) language?

III. DESIGNING AND IMPLEMENTING CLASSROOM TECHNIQUES. TECHNIQUES AND MATERIALS.

1. Principled teaching. Our teaching is derived from, and gives feedback to, a set of principles that form the skeleton of an overall approach to language learning and teaching. At this you should have reasonably stable and comprehensive approach of how learners learn and how teachers can best facilitate that process. At the same time, your approach should be dynamic; it should change and grow as you teach students, study professional material, and observe yourself in the classroom.

2. Contexts of learning. Part of your principled approach to learning and teaching involves an understanding of who your learners are. How old are they? How proficient are they? What are their goals in language learning? What effect do sociopolitical factors have on their eventual success

You can not even begin to design techniques in the classroom without considering this two important backdrops that set the stage for classroom activity. The choices that you make about what to do in the classroom are enlightened by these two major factors. Those choices are also enlightened by several other factors: the overall curricular plan, objectives of a particular lesson, and classroom management variables.

From manipulation to communication.

The techniques can be thought of as falling into a continuum of possibilities between highly manipulative and very communicative in their nature. At the extreme end of the manipulative side, a technique would be totally controlled by the teacher and require a predicted response from the student(s). Choral repetition drills are examples of oral techniques at this extreme. Other example are dictation (listening, writing) and reading aloud.

At the communicative extreme, student response would be completely open ended and therefore unpredictable. Examples include story-telling, brainstorming, role-plays, certain games, etc. Teachers are usually put into a less controlled role here, as students become free to be creative with their responses and interactions with

other students. However, keep in mind that a modicum of teacher control, whether overt or covert should always be present in the classroom.

It is most important to remember that the manipulation-communication scale does not correspond to the beginning –advanced proficiency continuum! For too many years the language teaching profession labored under the incorrect assumption that beginners must have mechanical, unmeaningful bits and pieces of language programmed into them (typically through a memorized audiolingual drill) and that only later could “real” communication place.

The extent which a communicative technique can sustain itself in the classroom will indeed often be a factor of the overall proficiency level of your class. Communicative techniques for beginners need to have appropriately small chunks of language for students to deal with and to build in some repetition of patterns for establishing fluency. In one of the very first days of class, for example, students could be taught to ask and respond to question like:

What is your name?

Where do you live?

How old are you (for children)? Or what do you do (for adults)?

A communicative technique would involve students in a “mixer” in which the room getting information from, say, four or five other students. At the more advanced levels, of course, a simple question or problem posed by the teacher can lead to sustained meaningful student communication between student and teacher, in pairs or small groups.

Mechanical, meaningful, and communicative drills. In the decades of the 40s, 50s, 60s, language pedagogy was consumed with the drill. Often great proportions of class time were spent drilling: repeating, repeating, repeating. Today, thankfully, we have developed teaching practices that make only minimal-or optimal-use of such drilling.

A drill may be defined as a technique that focuses on a minimal number of language forms (grammatical or phonological structures) through some type

repetition. Drills are commonly done chorally (the whole class repeating in unison) or individually. And they can take the form of simply repetition drills, substitution drills, and even the rather horrifying aberration known as moving slot substitution drills.

In referring to structural pattern drills,⁷ there are 3 categories: mechanical, meaningful, and communicative. Mechanical drills have only one correct response from a student, and have no implied connection with reality. Repetition drills, for instance, simply require that the student repeat a word or phrase whether the student understands it or not :

T: The cat is in the hat.

S: The cat is in the hat.

T: The wug is on the gling.

S: The wug is on the gling.

VI. Those three categories were used by Paulston and Bruder. 1976.

A meaningful drill may have a predicted response or a limited set of possible responses, but it is connected to some form of reality:

T: The woman is outside.(pointing out the window at a woman) where is she, Hiro?

S₁: The woman is outside.

T: Right, she's outside. Keiko, where is she?

S₂: She's outside.

T: Good, Keiko, she's outside. Now, class, we are inside. Hiroko where are we?

S₃: We are inside.

And the process may continue on as the teacher reinforces certain grammatical or phonological elements.

Frankly, I see no reason to refer to such a technique as a drill at all. It is quite legitimately a form of meaningful practice, useful in many communicative classrooms.

⁷ Those three categories were used by Paulston and Bruder. 1976.

Now, while Paulston and Bruder referred to “communicative” drills almost 2 decades ago, as we know understand and use the term, a communicative drill is indeed an oxymoron. If the exercise is communicative, that is, if it offers the student the possibility of an response and negotiation of meaning, then it is surely no longer a drill. So there is what is called quasi-communicative practice that might go something like this, if you were trying to get students to practice the past tense:

T: Good morning, class. Last weekend, I went to a restaurant and I ate salmon.
Juan, what did you do last weekend?

Juan: I went to the park and I played soccer.

T: What did you do?

Ying: I watched a lot of TV.

T: Great, and what did you do, Fay?

This exercise was an attempt to force students to use the past tense, but allowed them to choose meaningful replies. Juan chose the safety of the teacher’s patter while Ying, perhaps because she was more focused on communicative reality than on past tense formation, initially broke out of the pattern before returning.

3.1. Task- based teaching and oral communication practice.

As you will recall, there are a number of different interpretations in the literature on what, exactly, a task is. What these various understandings all emphasize, however, is the centrality of the task itself in a language course and, for task-based teaching as an overall approach, the importance of organizing a course around communicative tasks that learners need to engage in outside the classroom.

⁸The five characteristic of a task-based approach to language teaching:

(1). An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.

(2). The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.

⁸ Those characteristics were give by David Nunan. 1991 a: 279.

(3). The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language but also on the learning process itself.

(4). An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.

(5). An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom.

Task-based teaching makes an important distinction between target tasks, which students must accomplish beyond the classroom, and pedagogical tasks, which form the nucleus of the classroom activity. Target tasks are not unlike the functions of language that are listed in notional-functional syllabuses, however, they are much more specific and more explicitly related to classroom instruction. If, for example, "giving personal information" is a communicative function for language, then an appropriately stated target task might be 'giving personal information in a job interview'. Notice the task specifies a context. Pedagogical tasks include any of series of techniques designed ultimately to teach students to perform the target task; the climatic pedagogical task actually involves students in some form of simulation of the target task itself (say, through a role-play simulation in which certain roles are assigned to pairs of learners).

Pedagogical tasks are distinguished by their specific goals that point beyond the language classroom to the target task. They may, however, include both formal and functional techniques. A pedagogical task designed to teach students in a job interview might, for example, involve;

1. Exercises in comprehension of wh-questions with do-insertion ("When do you work at Macy's?").
2. Drills in the use of frequency adverbs ("I usually work until 5 o'clock").
3. Listening to extracts of job interviews.
4. Analyzing the grammar and discourse of the interviews.
5. Modeling an interview: teacher and one student.

6. Role-playing a simulated interview: students in pairs,

While you might be tempted only to consider the climatic task (6) as the one fulfilling the criterion of pointing beyond the classroom to the real world, all five of the other techniques build toward enabling students to perform the final technique.

A task-based curriculum, then, specifies what a learner needs to do with the English language in terms of target tasks and organizes a series of pedagogical tasks intended to reach those goals. Be careful that you don't look at task-based teaching as a hodge-bodge of useful little things that the learner should be able to do, all thrown together haphazardly into the classroom. In fact, a distinguishing feature of task-based curricula is their insistence on pedagogical soundness in the development and sequencing of tasks. The teacher and curriculum planner are called upon to consider carefully the following dimensions of communicative tasks:

- Goal
- Input from the teacher
- Techniques
- The role of the teacher
- The role of the learner
- Evaluation

In task-based instruction, the priority is not the bits and pieces of language but rather the functional purposes for which language must be used. While content-based instruction focuses on subject-matter content, task-based instruction focuses on a whole set of real-world tasks themselves. Input for tasks come from a variety of authentic sources:

- Speeches
- Conversation
- Narratives
- Public announcements
- Cartoon strips
- Letters

- Poems
- Direction
- Invitations
- Textbooks
- Interviews
- Oral description
- Media extracts
- Game and puzzles
- Photos
- Menus
- Diaries
- Songs
- Telephone directories
- Labels

And the list goes on and on. The pedagogical task specific exactly what learners will do with the input, what the respective roles of the teacher and learners are, and the evaluation there of forms an essential component that determines its success and offers

Task-based curricula differ from content-based, theme-based, and experiential instruction that the course objectives are somewhat more unabashedly language-based. While there is an ultimate focus on communication and purpose and meaning, nevertheless goals are linguistic in nature. They are not linguistic in the traditional sense of just focusing on grammar or phonology, but by maintaining the centrality of functions like greeting people, expressing opinions, requesting information, etc., the course goals center on learners' pragmatic language competence. So we have in task-based teaching a well integrated approach to language teaching that asks you to organize your classroom around those practical tasks that language users engage in "out there" in the real world. These tasks virtually always imply several skill areas, not just one, and so by pointing toward tasks we disengage ourselves from thinking only in terms of the separate 4 skills.

Before we learned about task – based teaching, two main problems in class were to find more time for students to communicate and to motivate them to talk. If activities are primarily focused on drilling and studying grammatical forms, it is difficult for student to communicate since the language situation they are put in is rather unnatural, and their roles do not demand the use of authentic language. They

therefore treat language learning as routine and simply go through the motions. Task – based learning produces the opposite affect, as is evident by the definition of task given by Willis (1996, 36):¹ is “a goal – oriented communicative activity with a specific outcome, where the emphasis is on exchanging meanings, not producing specific language forms”. Tasks based on relevant student interests and aspirations increase the meaningful use of language, and when tasks are focused on meaning, learners have better “opportunities in the classroom to use the language for genuine communication” (Willis and Willis 2007, 4).²

Task – based activities set up social situations that students can have meaningful discussions with one another. When students use English to cooperate and interact with each other, classes are more effective. According to Brown (1994), interactive classes have the following beneficial features:

- There is a large amount of pair and group work.
- Students engage in spontaneous and authentic conversations.
- Students write for actual audiences and purposes, not artificial ones
- Tasks prepare students for the real world outside of the classroom.

Group and pair work

Group and pair work are indispensable to task – based teaching. This type of classroom arrangement creates a completely different atmosphere from that of a

¹ Willis J. A framework for tasks – based learning. Harlow; UK: Addison Wesley. 1996, p.27

² Willis D. and Willis J. Doing task – based teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 2007, p.41

traditional teacher – centered class; instead of strictly controlling the students, the teacher coordinates their work. According to Brown (1994), group work creates a favorable climate for communication by relieving students of the anxiety of having to

talk in front of the whole class. Brown reports miraculous changes in students who had been too shy to talk until they worked in groups. In addition, group work makes students more responsible and autonomous – they have equal responsibility for performing a task and find it “difficult to ‘hide’ in a small group” (Brown 1994, 174).

Group and pair work also increase the speaking time for each student in a class. According to Byrne (1988, 31), “unless you have a very small class, you will never be able to give your students enough oral practice through whole class work”. For example, if you have 30 students and 30 minutes of oral work, each student will at most have only one minute to talk; “on the other hand, if you divide your students into pairs for just five minutes, each student will get more talking time during those five minutes than during the rest of the lesson” (Byrne 1988, 31).

Organizing group work

A fundamental consideration is how to arrange the students to perform a task in pairs and groups, and teachers must find solutions to problems such as cramped classrooms and having to pair up students of different language levels. Although a classroom with moveable tables and chairs is ideal, many classrooms have rows of desks that are permanently attached to the floor. In this case, one solution is to ask the students in one row to turn around and talk to the students sitting in the row behind them. In this way, they can face each other during their conversation, which is better than talking to the student sitting next to them. This method also works when dividing students up into groups of four: two students who sit next to each other can turn around and work with the two students sitting behind them. Sometimes students to leave their desks and find partners themselves. However, if it takes them too much time to decide, pair them up

myself or number off the students and assign each pair a place in the classroom.

Some teachers avoid doing group and pair work in class because it is noisy. But how is it possible to learn a language silently? If students are noisy but they are

speaking English, you feel satisfied. In some cases, when there is too much noise in the classroom, use a simple but efficient technique with stoplight cards described by Jacobs and Hall (2002, 55): “A green card goes on the desk of groups if they are working together quietly. A yellow card indicates they need to quiet down a bit. When a red card is put on their desk, the group should become completely silent, and all should silently count to ten before starting work again.” With time, as students regularly practice group and pair work, they learn to work more quietly.

A series of language learning tasks

You first encounter the amazing possibilities of interactive techniques for preparing students for real – world language use when you discover the following six tasks categorized by Willis (1996) that form a chain in advanced order of complexity:

1. *Listing*. Students work individually or in groups to gather facts about a topic by brainstorming, researching, and interviewing. This provides plentiful data and activates their background knowledge and experience of the topic.
2. *Ordering and sorting*. Students sequence or rank the facts, vocabulary, or ideas about a topic in a meaningful order.
3. *Comparing and contrasting*. Students point out the similarities and differences in the information they have gathered.
4. *Problem – solving*. Students create and evaluate a hypothesis related to a problem and analyze possible solutions
5. *Sharing personal experiences*. Students engage in conversations and discussions about topics that have personal relevance.
6. *Creative tasks and projects*. Students collaborate to produce a written, oral, or multimedia project that summarizes the important things they have learned from task – based work.

These techniques are especially valuable for organizing group or pair work, and they can be based on almost any text, adapted to almost any topic, and used

in any class. While performing these tasks, students engage in spontaneous discussions, solve problems, and prepare presentations. These activities help students communicate freely and overcome the psychological barrier to communication that so often occurs in a classroom setting. While it is difficult for teachers to reproduce in a classroom all the situations in which students may need to use English in real life, these kinds of tasks will help students be better prepared to undertake real – life challenges. They will train learners to use language spontaneously outside the classroom, and allow them to use important language functions correctly, including “agreeing and disagreeing, interrupting, asking for repetition and clarification, changing the subject or the emphasis, highlighting the important part of the message, guessing at meanings and making inferences and so on” (Willis and Willis 2007, 136). One of the students once told me that he had been able to give directions to a foreign visitor in English. The visitor was very grateful because until he met the student, he had not been able to find anyone in the street who could speak English. The student said that the communication in groups and pairs in class helped him in that situation, even though we had never practiced giving directions in our lesson.

Task – based teaching in action

Using Willis’s (1996) series of tasks is convenient and practical because implementing them does not take much time or require many resources. When implemented together they form a task chain of increasing complexity that is an excellent method for creating communicative activities for any topic. However, this does not mean that teachers have to use them all for every topic, or even use them in the given order. It is possible to use only one or two if a teacher is short on time or has difficulties developing six tasks for the same project. In addition, as was my case, the type of project may require switching the order of the six tasks.

We adept the tasks for a project based on a reading passage from an ESP textbook titled *The Language of Mechanical Engineering in English* (Hall 1977). The project is made relevant and interesting by focusing on the environmental problems caused by engineered devices used in our everyday lives and the students' reasons for choosing engineering as a career. Combining these relevant topics with tasks – based teaching is a way to “involve learners in different types of extended discourse. It provides an arena for informal spontaneous interaction” (Willis and Willis 2007, 136).

Although task – based teaching exposes students to all four skills, you are sure two supplement all the tasks with meaningful writing that was used to inform the class. According to Willis and Willis (2007), writing complements oral activities and provides opportunities for language focus because “speaking is a real – time activity, in which there is normally no time for careful consideration of language. Writing on the other hand, allows time to think about language” (107).

The following tasks are performed as post – reading activities to elicit further discussion of the text's main aspects, although the same tasks could easily be adapted for pre – reading activities. The students do the following activities in two subsequent 90 – minute lessons. However, other teachers can adapt the tasks to their own class schedules.

Task 1: Listing and ordering

(Time required: 20 minutes)

The first task is listing and ordering, which allows students to review and activate what they know about the topic and related vocabulary. First, students brainstorm about the words they need to talk about the ecological and social consequence of cars, computers, and cell phones, products that are part of our everyday lives. This task is especially suitable for making words and phrases

available that the students will need to discuss and write about the environmental and social consequences of technology. As students brainstorm and volunteer words, the teacher writes them on the board. Students are allowed to ask the teacher the other students the meaning of words they do not know.

Then, the class chooses the most essential vocabulary and the teacher circles the words. Students then form groups and organize the chosen words into three columns labeled *Nouns*, *Verbs*, and *Adjectives* as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Listening and Ordering Nouns, Verbs, and Adjectives

NOUNS	VERBS	ADJECTIVES
environment	cause	dangerous
diseases	pollute	electromagnetic
waves	waste	uneconomical

Finally, the students create phrases by combining the adjectives and the verbs in different ways with the nouns. Some examples are, “pollute the environment”, and “cause diseases”, “dangerous diseases”, and “dangerous electromagnetic waves”. The teacher writes these word combinations on the board.

Task 2: Problem solving

(Time required: 40 minutes)

In groups, students record two problems each caused by cars, computers, and cell phones. Then they suggest a solution for each one of the problems. Next, a

representative of each group reports to the whole class what problems and solution they recorded, and the teacher compiles the list, as is illustrated in

Table 2.

Table 2: Identifying Problems and Solutions

PRODUCT	PROBLEMS	SOLUTIONS
A. Cars	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. pollute the air 2. waste energy 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. use filters, ecological fuel, solar batteries, and electric engines 2. make economical hybrid engines that work on mixture of petrol and biomass
B. Computers	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. ruin people's eyes 2. cause carpal tunnel syndrome 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. use modern LCD monitors and glasses with filters 2. improve design of the computer keyboard and mouse
C. Cell phones	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. emit microwaves that influence the brain 2. produce chemical waste when batteries are thrown away 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. use Bluetooth earphones 2. improve recycling technology

Task 3: Sharing personal experiences

(Time required: 50 minutes)

In Task 3 students individually write a short paragraph (110 to 140 words) explaining why they have chosen the profession of an engineer, why they are attending this particular university, what they would like to do after graduation, and how English will help them in their future career. Then, in pairs, they read their paragraph to their partner. Finally, students exchange papers and report their partners' information to the class. Following are the paragraphs written by one classroom pair.

Task 4: Comparing and contrasting

(Time required: 25 minutes)

In pairs, students exchange the paragraphs and write down three similarities and/or differences between their paragraph and their partner's paragraph. Then, they report the differences to the whole class. Following are examples of the differences Student 1 and Student 2 found in each other's paragraphs:

Student 1's observations:

1. My partner wanted to study at KPI because it was his dream, and I wanted to study at any good university.
2. My partner wants to be a teacher at the university, but I want to be an engineer in a car racing team.
3. English can help my partner to communicate with his colleagues, and it can help me to improve new technologies.

Students 2's observations:

1. My partner wants to study in KPI because he wants to work with cars. I want to study in KPI because it was my dream.
2. My partner wants to work in the future with a sport car racing team. I want to work at my University.

3. My partner wants to work abroad. I want to work in the Ukraine.

Task 5: Creative task and project

(Time required: 45 minutes)

Students are directed to write a paragraph (140 to 160 words) about three new things that they think will happen in engineering over the next fifty years. These paragraphs are then displayed in the classroom so that all the students can read them. Following is an example of one student's paragraph:

As we know, technical progress and the development of engineering is the same. So I think that in the future there may be some changes in technology as:

- The reduced influence of petroleum and gas and an increase of using new types of energy (more economic, safer for the environment) and the development of the new branches of engineering to deal with their products
- The increase of computer technologies in manufacturing and in daily life. People will stop working so much as executives and will begin to work more as operators who control the work of computers.
- The rapid development of aerospace engineering, the exploration of space, creating new kinds of spaceships, the building of the new space stations to improve communications, and the start of the regular flights to the moon. That will be the new stage of the engineering and human evolution.

3.2 Total –physical response activities.

Physical response activities reflect a grammar –based view of language. Asher states that “most of the grammatical structure of the target language and hundreds of

vocabulary items can be learned from the skillful use of the imperative by the instructor⁹.

He views the verb, and particularly the verb in the imperative, as the central linguistic motif around which language use and learning are organized.

The general objectives of physical response are to teach oral proficiency at a beginning level. Comprehension is a means to an end, and the ultimate aim is to teach basic speaking skills, to produce learners who are capable of an uninhibited communication that is intelligible to a native speaker.

8. Asher, J. Learning another Language through Actions 1997. The complete Teacher's Guide Book.

Imperative drills are the motor classroom activity in physical Response. They are typically used to elicit physical actions and activity on the part of the learners. Class activities include roles plays and slide presentations. Role plays center on every day situations, such as at the restaurant, supermarket, or gas station.

Learners in physical response have the primary roles of the listener and performer. They listen attentively and respond physically to commands given by the teacher.

Learners are also expected to recognize and respond to novel combinations of previously taught items. They are encouraged to speak when they feel ready to speak -that is, when a sufficient basis in the language has been internalized. The teacher plays an active and direct role in physical Response. It is the teacher who decides what to teach, who models and presents the new materials, and who selects supporting materials for classroom use. Materials and media play an increasing role, however, in later learning stages. For absolute beginners, lessons may not require the use of materials, since the teacher's voice, actions, and gestures may be a sufficient

⁹ Asher, J. Learning another Language through Actions. 1977. The complete Teacher's Guide Book.

basis for classroom objects, such as books, pens, cups furniture. As the course develops, the teacher will need to make or collect supporting teaching points. There may include pictures, slides, relia and word charts.

Meaning in the target language can often be conveyed through actions. Memory is activated through learner response. Beginning foreign language instruction should address the right hemisphere of the brain, the part which controls non-verbal behavior. The target language should be presented in chunks, not just by word.

The students' understanding of the target language should be developed before speaking.

They can initially learn one part of the language rapidly by moving their bodies.

The imperative is a powerful linguistic device through which the teacher can direct student behavior. Students can learn through observing actions as well as by performing the actions themselves.

The teacher interacts with the whole group of students and with individual students. Initially the interaction is characterized by the teacher speaking and the students responding non-verbally. Later on the students become more verbal and the teacher responds nonverbally.

Teacher will immediately whether or students understand observing their student's actions.

Formal evaluation can be conducted simply by commanding individual students to perform a series of actions.

It is expected that students will make errors when they first begin speaking. Teachers should be tolerant of them and only correct major errors. As student get advanced, teachers can be strict- correct more minor errors.

3.3. Sustaining interaction through group work.

What is group work? It is a generic term covering a multiplicity of techniques in which two or more students are assigned a task that involves collaboration and a self-initiated language. Note that what we commonly call pair work is simply group work in groups of two. It is also important to note that group work usually implies “small” group work, that is, students in groups of perhaps six or fewer. Large groupings defeat one of the major purposes for doing work: giving students greater opportunities to speak.

1. Group work generates interactive language.

In so-called traditional language classes, teacher talk is dominant. Teachers lecture, explain grammar points, conduct drills, and at best lead whole class discussions might get a few seconds of a class period to talk.

Group work helps to solve the problem of classes that are too large to offer opportunities to speak. By one estimate, if just half of your class time were spent in group work, you could increase individual practice time five-fold over whole-class traditional methodology.

Closely related to the sheer quantity of output made possible through group work is the variety and quality of interactive language. With traditional methodology, language tends to be restricted to initiation only by the teacher in an artificial settings where the whole class becomes a “group interlocutor”. Small groups provide in negotiation of meaning, for extended conversational exchanges, and for student adoption of rules that would otherwise be impossible.

2. Group work offers an embracing affective climate.

The second important advantage offered by group work is the security of a smaller group of students where each individual is not so starkly on public display, vulnerable to what the student may perceive as criticism and rejection. In countless observations of classes, there have been seen the magic of small groups. Quite suddenly, reticent students become vocal participants in the process.

The small groups become a community of learners cooperating with each other in pursuit of common goals. A further affective benefit of small group work is an increase in student motivation. With Maslow's "security /safety" level satisfied through the cohesiveness of the small group, learners are thus freed to pursue higher objectives in their quest for success.

3. Group work promotes learner responsibility and autonomy.

Even in a relatively small class of 15 to 20 students, whole class activity often gives students a screen to hide behind. I remember a college English class I took in which the teacher's single teaching technique was to call on students one by one to translate a sentence in our reading passage of the day. My way of the playing that game was simply to keep one sentence ahead of the teacher so that when my name came up, I was ready. I paid no attention to what was currently being translated, to the meaning of the whole passage, to comments by the teacher, or to fellow classmates. An extreme case, to be sure !but even in less deadly classroom climates, students can "relax" too much in whole -class work. Group work places responsibility for action and progress upon each of the members of the group somewhat equally. It is difficult to "hide" in a small group.

4. Group work is a step toward individualizing instruction.

Each student in a classroom has needs and abilities that are unique. Usually the most salient individual difference that you observe is a range of proficiency levels across your class and, even more specifically, differences among student in their speaking, listening, writing, and reading abilities. Small groups can help students with varying abilities to accomplish separate goals.

The teacher can recognize and capitalize upon other individual differences (age, cultural heritage, field of study, cognitive style, to name a few) by careful selection of small groups and by administering different groups.

Selecting appropriate group techniques.

Differences between pair work and group work have not been emphasized. There are, in fact, some important distinctions. Pair work is more appropriate than

group work for tasks that are (a) short, (b) linguistically simple, and (c) quite controlled in terms of the structure of the task. Appropriate pair activities (that are not recommended for groups of more than two) include:

1. Practicing dialogues with a partner;
2. Simple question and answer exercises;
3. Performing certain meaningful substitution “drills”
4. Quick (one minute or less) brainstorming activity;
5. Checking written work with each other;
6. Preparation for merging with a larger group;
7. Any brief activity for which the logistics of assigning groups, moving furniture, and getting students into the groups is distractive

Pair work enables you to get students engaged in interactive (or quasi interactive) communication for a short period of time with a minimum of logistical problems.

IV. CONCLUSION.

The theme of my graduation paper was very important and also interesting. It gave me much opportunities to research in the are of teaching. In my graduation paper I wanted to say, as you begin your teacher education journey, it is appropriate for you focus on what we do know, what we have learned, what we can say with some certainty, about second languageacquisition. We can then come to grips with this notion that a great many of a teacher's choices spring from established principles of language learning and teaching. By perceiving and internalizing connections between practice (choices you make in the classroom) and theory (principles derived from research), your teaching is likely to be "enlightened". You will be better able to see why you have chosen to use a particular classroom technique (or set of techniques), to carry it out with confidence, and to evaluate its utility after the fact.

In my practice at school I met a lot of difficulties with oral speech of my pupils. I thought 9th form and also other forms, as you know, educational program for these forms are compiled for improving speaking skills and critical thinking and listening comprehension understanding by listening. And also there such kind of activities which is for improving interactive skills, and make pupils to speak each other, using dialogues and conversations.

Perhaps the greatest contribution of the communicative approach is asking teachers to look closely at what is involved in communication. If teachers intend students to use the target language, then they must truly understand all that being communicatively competent entails.

Do you agree with this expanded view of communicative competence?

When I had a practice at school, I began to use many techniques for interesting and encouraging them to improve my pupils' communication English. In the third chapter I have written widely about these techniques.

In my opinion, the teacher's role while the students are performing the activities is to be on understanding listener, without demanding perfect responses, not to be rude to student's mistakes, and also encourage fluent speaking, and to create

situations and exercises that provide opportunities for oral communication and stimulate the students to try to engage in such communication, overcoming all the obstacles that hinder them. In this case, teacher can try to improve thinking in English in students and giving their opinions easily.

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