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Lecture One

Integrated Skills in the ESL/EFL Classroom

Plan:

- ✚ Overviewing the usage of integrated skills in FLT
- ✚ Segregated skills
- ✚ Content-Based Instruction
- ✚ Task-based Instruction
- ✚ Advantages of the Integrated-Skill Approach
- ✚ Focusing on classroom performance
- ✚ Improving personal competence

One image for teaching English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) is that of a tapestry. The tapestry is woven from many strands, such as the characteristics of the teacher, the learner, the setting, and the relevant languages (i.e., English and the native languages of the learners and the teacher). For the instructional loom to produce a large, strong, beautiful, colorful tapestry, all of these strands must be interwoven in positive ways. For example, the instructor's teaching style must address the learning style of the learner, the learner must be motivated, and the setting must provide resources and values that strongly support the teaching of the language. However, if the strands are not woven together effectively, the instructional loom is likely to produce something small, weak, ragged, and pale— not recognizable as a tapestry at all.

In addition to the four strands mentioned above— teacher, learner, setting, and relevant languages— other important strands exist in the tapestry. In a practical sense, one of the most crucial of these strands consists of the four primary skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing. This strand also includes associated or related skills such as knowledge of vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, syntax, meaning, and usage. The skill strand of the tapestry leads to optimal ESL/EFL communication when the skills are interwoven during instruction. This is known as the integrated-skill approach.

If this weaving together does not occur, the strand consists merely of discrete, segregated skills— parallel threads that do not touch, support, or interact with each other. This is sometimes known as the segregated-skill approach. Another title for this mode of instruction is the language-based approach, because the language itself is the focus of instruction (language for language's sake). In this approach, the emphasis is not on learning for authentic communication.

By examining **segregated-skill** instruction, we can see the advantages of integrating the skills and move toward improving teaching for English language learners.

Segregated- Skill Instruction.

In the segregated-skill approach, the mastery of discrete language skills such as reading and speaking is seen as the key to successful learning, and language learning is typically separate from content learning (Mohan, 1986). This is contrary to the integrated way that people use language skills in normal communication, and it clashes with the direction in which language teaching experts have been moving in recent years.

Skill segregation is reflected in traditional ESL/EFL programs that offer classes focusing on segregated language skills. Why do they offer such classes? Perhaps teachers and administrators think it is logistically easier to present courses on writing divorced from speaking, or on listening isolated from reading. They may believe that it is instructionally impossible to concentrate on more than one skill at a time. Even if it were possible to fully develop one or two skills in the absence of all the others, such an approach would not ensure adequate preparation for later success in academic communication, career-related language use, or everyday interaction in the language. An extreme example is the grammar-translation method, which teaches students to analyze grammar and to translate (usually in writing) from one language to another. This method restricts language learning to a very narrow, non- communicative range that does not prepare students to use the language in everyday life.

Frequently, segregated-skill ESL/EFL classes present instruction in terms of skill-linked learning strategies: reading strategies, listening strategies, speaking strategies, and writing strategies (see

Peregoy & Boyle, 2001). Learning strategies are strategies that students employ, most often consciously, to improve their learning. Examples are guessing meaning based on context, breaking a sentence or word down into parts to understand the meaning, and practicing the language with someone else.

Very frequently, experts demonstrate strategies as though they were linked to only one particular skill, such as reading or writing (e.g., Peregoy & Boyle, 2001). However, it can be confusing or misleading to believe that a given strategy is associated with only one specific language skill. Many strategies, such as paying selective attention, self-evaluating, asking questions, analyzing, synthesizing, planning, and predicting, are applicable across skill areas (see Oxford, 1990). Common strategies help weave the skills together. Teaching students to improve their learning strategies in one skill area can often enhance performance in all language skills (Oxford, 1996).

Fortunately, in many instances where an ESL or EFL course is labeled by a single skill, the segregation of language skills might be only partial or even illusory. If the teacher is creative, a course bearing a discrete-skill title might actually involve multiple, integrated skills. For example, in a course on intermediate reading, the teacher probably gives all of the directions orally in English, thus causing students to use their listening ability to understand the assignment. In this course, students might discuss their readings, thus employing speaking and listening skills and certain associated skills, such as pronunciation, syntax, and social usage. Students might be asked to summarize or analyze readings in written form, thus activating their writing skills. In a real sense, then, some courses that are labeled according to one specific skill might actually reflect an integrated-skill approach after all.

The same can be said for ESL/EFL textbooks. A particular series might highlight certain skills in one book or another, but all the language skills might nevertheless be present in the tasks in each book. In this way, students have the benefit of practicing all the language skills in an integrated, natural, communicative way, even if one skill is the main focus of a given volume.

In contrast to segregated-skill instruction, both actual and apparent, there are at least two forms of instruction that are clearly oriented toward integrating the skills.

Two Forms of Integrated-Skill Instruction

Two types of **integrated-skill** instruction are content-based language instruction and **task-based** instruction. The first of these emphasizes learning content through language, while the second stresses doing tasks that require communicative language use. Both of these benefit from a diverse range of materials, textbooks, and technologies for the ESL or EFL classroom.

Content-Based Instruction. In content-based instruction, students practice all the language skills in a highly integrated, communicative fashion while learning content such as science, mathematics, and social studies. Content-based language instruction is valuable at all levels of proficiency, but the nature of the content might differ by proficiency level. For beginners, the content often involves basic social and interpersonal communication skills, but past the beginning level, the content can become increasingly academic and complex. The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), created by Chamot and O'Malley (1994) shows how language learning strategies can be integrated into the simultaneous learning of content and language.

At least three general models of content-based language instruction exist: theme-based, adjunct, and sheltered (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). The theme-based model integrates the language skills into the study of a theme (e.g., urban violence, cross-cultural differences in marriage practices, natural wonders of the world, or a broad topic such as change). The theme must be very interesting to students and must allow a wide variety of language skills to be practiced, always in the service of communicating about the theme. This is the most useful and widespread form of content-based instruction today, and it is found in many innovative ESL and EFL textbooks. In the adjunct model, language and content courses are taught separately but are carefully coordinated. In the sheltered model, the subject matter is taught in simplified English tailored to students' English proficiency level.

Task-Based Instruction. In task-based instruction, students participate in communicative tasks in English. Tasks are defined as activities that can stand alone as fundamental units and that require comprehending, producing, manipulating, or interacting in authentic language while attention is principally paid to meaning rather than form (Nunan, 1989).

The task-based model is beginning to influence the measurement of learning strategies, not just the teaching of ESL and EFL. In task-based instruction, basic pair work and group work are often used to increase student interaction and collaboration. For instance, students work together to write and edit a class newspaper, develop a television commercial, enact scenes from a play, or take part in other joint tasks. More structured cooperative learning formats can also be used in task-based instruction. Task-based instruction is relevant to all levels of language proficiency, but the nature of the task varies from one level to the other. Tasks become increasingly complex at higher proficiency levels. For instance, beginners might be asked to introduce each other and share one item of information about each other. More advanced students might do more intricate and demanding tasks, such as taking a public opinion poll at school, the university, or a shopping mall.

Advantages of the Integrated-Skill Approach

The integrated-skill approach, as contrasted with the purely segregated approach, exposes English language learners to authentic language and challenges them to interact naturally in the language. Learners rapidly gain a true picture of the richness and complexity of the English language as employed for communication. Moreover, this approach stresses that English is not just an object of academic interest or merely a key to passing an examination; instead, English becomes a real means of interaction and sharing among people. This approach allows teachers to track students' progress in multiple skills at the same time. Integrating the language skills also promotes the learning of real content, not just the dissection of language forms. Finally, the integrated-skill approach, whether found in content-based or task-based language instruction or some hybrid form, can be highly motivating to students of all ages and backgrounds.

Integrating the Language Skills

In order to integrate the language skills in ESL/EFL instruction, teachers should consider taking these steps: Learn more about the various ways to integrate language skills in the classroom (e.g., content-based, task-based, or a combination).

Reflect on their current approach and evaluate the extent to which the skills are integrated.

Choose instructional materials, textbooks, and technologies that promote the integration of listening, reading, speaking, and writing, as well as the associated skills of syntax, vocabulary, and so on. Even if a given course is labeled according to just one skill, remember that it is possible to integrate the other language skills through appropriate tasks.

Teach language learning strategies and emphasize that a given strategy can often enhance performance in multiple skills.

1. *Active Engagement.* Learners play enjoyable, engaging, active roles in the learning experience.
2. *Cultural Relevance.* Classrooms respect and incorporate the cultures of the learners and their families in the classroom while helping them to understand the new culture of the community, the school, and the classroom.
3. *Collaboration.* Learners develop and practice language in collaboration with one another and with teachers.
4. *Learning Strategies.* Learners use a variety of learning strategies to maximize learning in the classroom, to expand their learning beyond the classroom, and to become independent, lifelong learners.
5. *Differentiation.* Learning activities accommodate different language, literacy and cognitive levels and also incorporate many dimensions of learning: different learning styles, intelligences, and preferences.
6. *Comprehensible Input with Scaffolding.* Teachers provide rich input with appropriate context and support to make that input comprehensible to learners as well as appropriately and increasingly more challenging.

7. *Prior Knowledge*. Teachers help learners use their prior knowledge of language, content, and the world to develop new language and increase knowledge.

8. *Content Integration*. Language learning is integrated with meaningful, relevant, and useful content, generally the same academic content that is appropriate for the age and grade of learners.

9. *Clear, Appropriate Goals and Feedback*. Teachers set and communicate clear attainable goals to learners and provide students with appropriate and consistent feedback on their progress in attaining these goals.

What Is Culturally and Linguistically Appropriate Response to Intervention (RTI)?

The RTI model is designed to meet government expectations for (1) quality instruction based on Scientific research, (2) use of highly qualified teachers in the classrooms, and (3) instruction informed by regular assessment. The comprehensive model includes both regular and special education. RTI uses three tiers of instruction: Tier 1 includes research-based instruction in the general education classroom, Tier 2 involves intensive assistance as part of the general education support system, and Tier 3 provides special education. Because of this book's focus on the mainstream classroom, our focus will be the first two tiers of instruction (See Figure 1.3, Response to Intervention: Three-Tier Model for ELLs) (Brown & Doolittle, 2008; Baca, 2009), In this book, we focus on Tier 1 and 2 instruction provided by general classroom teachers who may or may not be English language specialists. RTI is designed so that teachers do not wait for students to fail but provide appropriate, quality instruction from the beginning. Culturally and linguistically responsive RTI includes differentiation, accommodations, collaboration, and progress monitoring using appropriate assessment. Characteristics of effective RTI implementation for English learners include the following applications of the ABC model described earlier:

1. Active Engagement

ÉLearners apply concepts to their own lives and to authentic tasks.

2. Cultural Relevance

É Teachers incorporate the native language strategically. The model has been implemented successfully in bilingual settings in which native language is used strategically and/or as a first language for reading instruction (Vaughn et al., 2006).

É Instruction builds on learners' home cultures quiz; by having learners score themselves along a rubric or on a checklist; by keeping checklists of learner accomplishments; by writing portfolios; by using state and national English language assessment instruments; and when learners are ready, by giving district, state, and national criterion-referenced or standardized tests designed for all learners. We have now outlined nine principles included in two dimensions—principles that we hope will guide you toward supporting the learning of English language learners in your setting.

3. Collaboration

ÉLearners have many opportunities to use language for interpersonal and academic purposes.

ÉLearners collaborate to use higher-order thinking and active problem solving as well as to practice what they have learned.

4. Learning Strategies

ÉLearners develop multiple ways to take responsibility for their own learning, including independent reading as well as reviewing and applying previously learned concepts.

5. Comprehensible Input with Scaffolding

É New language is introduced in ways that support learning including rich vocabulary development, pre-teaching and reinforcing learning, and using organizers to build and support concepts and language

6. Prior Knowledge

ÉLearners access prior knowledge, make connections between previous learning and new, and build new knowledge.

7. Content Integration

ÉLearners use authentic content for development and application of language.

8. Clear and Appropriate Goals and Feedback

ÉTeachers use appropriate diagnostic assessments before teaching, formative assessments while teaching to ensure that learners are acquiring concepts and to make them aware of what they are learning; summative assessments at key points in instruction to ensure that instruction is sufficient, appropriate, and well scaffolded and to provide clear feedback to learners on what they have achieved.

IMPROVING PERSONAL COMPETENCE

The effective teacher needs a wide range of subject knowledge and a large repertoire of professional skills. What constitutes professional skills? There have been many attempts to define these, but they are usually inadequate to describe what teachers actually do. In any case, if we were able to describe what knowledge and skills teachers require, we still need to work out how to help novices acquire them and how teachers make the most effective use of them. In every area of human activity it is the very skilled performance that makes things look simple. When we watch a skilled sportsman make a mistake it is very easy to be critical about something we could not even begin to achieve. This is often the case when people see the work, or the results of the work, of a teacher. It is also the case that skills need a lot of practice. This is accepted in most skilled activities, particularly sport and acting, but is less accepted in the case of teaching. Yet it is equally true of teaching. The problem is that while we are practicing we are dealing with people, the children and parents, who care very much that teachers should already be effective. The sort of complaint we might make about, say, an entertainer who does not quite succeed in an otherwise wonderfully skilled performance, is often made about teaching, perhaps about teaching children to read. There are sometimes complaints that teachers need to be more effective in this area and that they need to be taught this in initial training. Of course they should, and they usually are. The problem is that teaching a particular child to read means taking decisions that are sensitive and appropriate to the context. It is not just a case of selecting a set of materials for each type of child: careful selections have continually to be made for individual children throughout their learning. It is precisely because effective teaching requires *interactive* decision making that it must be developed in real teaching situations.

If the teacher's job only involved teaching reading it would be demanding enough. It becomes even more so when we consider the full range of subjects that must be covered and the huge number of topics and skills and concepts within each one. If one sat down and worked out what this involves just to teach one single child, it would be formidable. Yet there is a further complication. Faced with a class of thirty children, teachers cannot replicate exactly what they would do when teaching just one child, nor can they just do it louder or do it thirty times. A class of children is sometimes best thought of as thirty individuals, but when teachers concentrate on an individual there are major problems of class management to be solved. In other contexts the class must be taught in quite different ways, raising problems of how most effectively to capitalize on the social nature of learning. Improving personal competence in teaching involves thinking about how individual children might learn on their own, and how differently from this they learn in real classrooms. It also involves paying specific attention to the way the teacher works in the classroom, paying attention to the performance of the teacher. We want to look at both of these aspects but begin in this unit with the question of performance. The word performance has several meanings and connotations, and can arouse hostility if it is thought to suggest either an industrial model of maximizing output, or playing to the gallery, or behaving in a mechanical, unthinking, uncritical manner. The term is used here simply as a shorthand for what teachers do in the classroom.

Focusing on classroom performance

The days have gone when teaching was seen as an individual and private process; it is now acknowledged that teachers benefit from working together, sharing ideas and discussing methods. A great deal of work of this type goes on in schools. It is quite usual to have team

meetings and staff meetings as a normal part of professional life to improve the experience for the pupils. More and more work is being jointly planned and there is often some sort of team teaching going on. Governors and parents are also involved in the teaching in a variety of ways. These are welcome and important changes but may not be as beneficial as they might be. It is possible in teaching, as in all activities, to improve our own performance by carefully thinking about what we have done and how this might be improved. In teaching, it is often assumed that reflection is the most important way of increasing competence. It is quite common to talk about the need for teachers to be 'reflective' as if this is both easy and guaranteed to change how they act with children. We believe that in order to improve personal competence there is a need to work with one's colleagues. This process of a group of teachers stepping beyond reflection and into individual and collaborative action has been described by Wragg (1994) as being indicative of the 'dynamic school'. It may sound obvious, and it is easy to claim that dynamic change is already common in schools. The telling question is what people need to do together as colleagues in order to improve significantly how they work in the classroom. It may be, of course, that talking about their work with others enhances their ability to think about what they are doing, and this is enough. We do not think that this is sufficient. We believe that learning from each other needs to include some sort of mentor relationship.

This does not mean merely teaming up with somebody who is better than oneself in order to extract tips from the expert. When two fellow teachers work together each may well act as a mentor on different occasions, even within the same conversation. We make this point to emphasize our view that learning about teaching requires some sort of 'assisted performance'. When Bruner (1977: Preface) wrote about assisted performance for young people, he emphasized that it will 'depend massively upon participation in a dialogue carefully stabilized by the adult partner. So much of learning depends on the need to achieve joint attention, to conduct enterprises jointly, to honor the social relationship between learners and tutor.' This reference to the 'adult partner' is equally applicable to any teaching relationship. The important point for us here is how the 'carefully stabilized' dialogue can be achieved when the relationship is between colleagues who are not only busy and have a wide range of other commitments, but are also acting on equal terms as both learner and mentor. This emphasizes the need for a shared commitment to giving a high priority to improving classroom practice, as well as a shared language to help translate good intentions into positive action. It is for this reason that we have constructed a description of teaching, and a vocabulary for teaching, that we describe below. The next section outlines this description of teaching and how it can be put to use in developing personal competence.

Conclusion

With careful reflection and planning, any teacher can integrate the language skills and strengthen the tapestry of language teaching and learning. When the tapestry is woven well, learners can use English effectively for communication.

Questions:

- ✚ Overview the usage of integrated skills in FLT?
- ✚ What is segregated skills?
- ✚ What is Content-Based Instruction?
- ✚ What is Task- based Instruction?
- ✚ What are the Advantages of the Integrated-Skill Approach?
- ✚ How teachers focusing on classroom performance?
- ✚ What is improving personal competence?

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Lecture two. Principles of integrated Language Teaching and Learning

Plan:

- ✚ What are the principles of integrated language teaching and learning?
- ✚ Active Engagement
- ✚ Cultural Relevance
- ✚ Collaboration
- ✚ Learning Strategies
- ✚ Differentiation
- ✚ Comprehensible Input with Scaffolding
- ✚ Prior Knowledge
- ✚ Content Integration
- ✚ Clear, Appropriate Goals and Feedback

What are the principles of integrated language teaching and learning?

ÉWhat principles can we draw from research about language learning and teaching?

ÉWhat are strategies and practices that exemplify research-based principles?

In this chapter, we outline nine principles that apply our best understandings of research on both effective teaching and learning for school-age learners and specific knowledge about how language is most efficiently acquired and best taught. The nine principles are organized along two dimensions:

- ✚ **Activity-based communicative teaching**
- ✚ **Learning model** (or the **ABC model**).

Activity-based teaching and learning focuses on what learners bring to the classroom and the active role that learners play in the language acquisition process. Research on learning and memory (Sprengr, 1999), on language acquisition and language teaching (Cameron, 2001), and on the functions of the brain (Genesee, 2000) shows us that English language learners in elementary and middle school are *not* passive recipients of learning. Rather, they are actively constructing **schema** (organizational structures of language and content) and meaning. Thus, all teaching—even direct teaching—must be planned so that learners play active roles as they learn. Four of the ABC principles describe how classroom instruction can be planned and conducted to promote active student roles in learning.

Communicative teaching and learning focuses on the importance of authentic, comprehensible communication in the learning of language. For teaching and learning to be effective and efficient, language must be used in ways that clearly convey meaning and have communicative purpose. Five of the ABC Principles fall along this dimension and outline how our instruction must include communicative elements. These two dimensions and nine principles are designed as guidelines for organizing and planning instruction for classrooms in which language develops as quickly and smoothly as possible. Although there is necessarily some overlap among the nine activity-based and communicative principles, we have found each to provide unique guidelines and organization for planning and evaluating the instruction of English language learners, and we apply them in the aspects of instruction detailed throughout the book. In the following paragraphs, we introduce each principle, provide a brief theoretical/research foundation for it,

and give an example. These examples offer snapshots of the principles in action in the classroom in various content areas at various grade levels. Although we work to cover the range of school-age learners, we encourage readers, as they study the principles, to transform these examples by thinking about how each might be adapted and revised to best depict their own current or potential teaching situations.

Activity-Based Language Teaching and Learning

Principle 1 Active Engagement

Learners play enjoyable, engaging, active roles in the learning experience.

Language and literacy development are facilitated by a comfortable atmosphere— not only one that values, encourages, and celebrates efforts but also one that provides the appropriate level of challenge to motivate and Language is best developed when it is used in ways that are active, convey meaning, and have a communicative purpose.

When **active engagement** is practiced, language is learned while doing something with it, not just learning it. Language is best viewed as a verb (language as something to use and do) than as a noun (language as a content to be learned). School-age learners develop language and literacy best first by using language as a tool for creating and sharing meanings (Vygotsky, 1986); and later, as they are developmentally ready, by studying language structures and features as they are needed and used in authentic contexts (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

Principle 2. Cultural Relevance

Classrooms respect and incorporate the cultures of learners in those classes while helping them to understand the new culture of the community, the school, and the classroom.

Teachers play the most important role in determining the quality and quantity of participation of ELs in their classrooms. When teachers develop a climate of trust, understand children's social and cultural needs, and model for the rest of the class how they, too, can include English learners in classroom conversations and activities as important members of the classroom learning communities, ELs' active involvement in the classroom and their learning show improvement (Yoon, 2007). Research has also led to a wide consensus concerning the value of parental involvement in students' school achievement and social development (Cummins, 1986; Delpit, 1995), and in literacy development in particular (Bronfenbrenner, 1975; Tizard, Schofield, & Hewison, 1982; Heath, 1983; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Reese, Garnier, Gallimore, & Goldenberg, 2000). Creating a culturally responsive and **culturally relevant** classroom goes beyond "parental involvement" and requires thoughtfulness and effort on the part of teachers to learn about students' cultures from students themselves, families, community members, and library and Internet resources; to value and include what learners bring to the classroom from their cultures; and to take into account the different world views represented in the classroom. Creating such a classroom requires an understanding of culture that is deeper than viewing the "Exotic" differences between cultures, or focusing on holidays, foods, and customs. Instead, it integrates a multicultural perspective on the daily life of the classroom (Derman-Sparks & Edwards, 2010).

Active Engagement in Practice

To help his multicultural, multilingual third-grade students "use" language authentically in studying the food pyramid, Ted Burch had his students keep a written and/or pictorial food diary and then use word source tools (such as a picture dictionary, bilingual dictionary, or Internet search) to list in English the foods they ate. Next the third-graders made word cards of the foods and taught their classmates and teacher names of unfamiliar foods from the various cultures represented in the class. As a final step, students classified all the foods they had eaten two ways: by locating them on a map of the world showing where the foods were grown and by placing word and picture cards next to the appropriate category on a large food pyramid.

Cultural Relevance in Practice

Lydia Achebe knows that her first-graders want to see themselves in the books that they read, and recognizes how they appreciate it when they and others view their home cultures in a positive light. She works closely with the school library media specialist, who tries to acquire

texts from and about the cultures of children in the school. When a new student arrived who was from the Ndebele region of South Africa, the teacher and media specialist found the delightful book, *My Painted House, My Friendly Chicken, and Me* with text by Maya Angelou and photographs by Margaret Courtney-Clarke (1994). All the class enjoyed looking at a globe and discussing the path the new student took to come to the United States from Southern Africa. They shared the book as a read-aloud several times, compared and contrasted schools and homes in different places where they had lived, and then painted their own pictures using elements of the bright designs of the Ndebele

Principle 3. Collaboration

Learners develop and practice language in collaboration with one another and with teachers.

As language is a tool for meaning-making, and communication and thinking are developed through using language to accomplish things (Vygotsky, 1986), and as learning cooperatively has been shown to be effective at improving learning (Kessler, 1991; Slavin, 1995), so instruction should be organized to facilitate interaction and collaboration. Learning should provide two ways experiences through which learners solve problems, negotiate meaning, and demonstrate what they have learned.

Collaboration in Practice

When Kamal Gebril's fifth-grade class studied ancient Egypt, collaboration among peers included a simple "elbow buddy" or "pair-share" activity, in which partners restate to one another something they have learned about burial practices in the time of the pharaohs. Collaboration between teacher and learners included a shared writing activity in which students, after studying pictures in David Macaulay's classic book, *Pyramid* (1975), described and illustrated the process of building a pyramid. Kamal was careful to include discussion of contemporary Egypt as well, describing such family customs as visiting ancient monuments and traveling outside the city on special holidays to visit graves of their forebears and having a family picnic. The assignment was extended to collaboration between school and home when children took home pictures they had drawn and stories they had written about customs of ancient and modern Egypt. First they read the story in English to family members and then they retold the story in the home language. A final collaboration at the end of the unit was a "numbered heads" review of what they'd learned. In this strategy, children, in groups of about four, are each given a number. Kamal asks a question and the groups put their "heads" together to find the answer. Then a number is chosen randomly and the child with that number gives the group's response. Even newcomers are able to participate meaningfully and actively in the review as a result of the coaching and support of their peers to prepare them to answer the questions.

Learning Strategies in Practice

To help her eighth-graders become more independent in learning new vocabulary, Lenore Duink first used modeling, supported practice, and independent practice to develop learners' ability to ask questions when they don't understand—teaching them polite phrases for asking a teacher, peer, or other person appropriately for repetition, clarification, or explanation of vocabulary. Then she taught her students various ways to support their vocabulary learning, including making **word squares** (see Table 1.1 for an example), sorting terms into categories, visualizing meanings, practicing with a peer, drawing pictures, composing and singing songs with new terms, highlighting verb endings, listening for words on the radio and TV, using mnemonic devices, and finding ways to put new terms to use in conversations both in the classroom and beyond.

Principle 4. Learning Strategies

Learners use a variety of language and learning strategies to expand learning beyond the classroom and to become independent, lifelong learners.

Learning strategies (also called *learner strategies*) (Chamot & O'Malley, 1996; Nunan, 1996; Oxford, 1996; Lessard-Clouston, 1997) are steps taken by learners to enhance their learning and develop their language competence. These strategies can be observable behaviors, steps, or

techniques, such as **SQ3R** (**survey, question, read, recite, review**) (Robinson, 1970), a reading strategy, or non-observable thoughts or mental practices, such as visualization or positive thinking. Although learners do use strategies unconsciously, the focus in teaching learning strategies is to bring them to the learners' attention and make them consciously part of the learners' repertoire. Learning strategies allow learners to control and direct their own learning. These strategies also expand the role of language teachers beyond teaching language to that of helping learners develop their own strategies. They are generally oriented toward solving problems and can involve many aspects of language to be learned beyond the cognitive.

Principle 5. Differentiation

Learning activities accommodate different language, literacy, and cognitive levels and incorporate many dimensions of learning: different learning styles, intelligences, and preferences.

All learners are not the same: they have different native intelligence, learned intelligence, learning styles, and preferences. Including English learners in a grade-level classroom expands the differences by adding different language backgrounds, educational levels, cultural experiences, experiences of culture change, and sometimes the trauma of war, famine, or poverty. When learners are limited in their comprehension of English, providing input through other means—pictures, gestures, sounds, movement, graphics—helps provide them the hooks they need to be included in the classroom conversation. Effective **differentiation** to include English learners involves expanding the dimensions of learning across different learning styles—verbal, auditory, kinesthetic—and different intelligences. Gardner's (1983, 1996) categories of intelligences include linguistic (language, e.g., writer), logical-mathematical (e.g., mathematician or engineer), musical (guitarist), bodily-kinesthetic intelligence (athlete, dancer), spatial intelligence (artist, designer), interpersonal intelligence (counselor, politician), intrapersonal intelligence (philosopher), and naturalist (oceanographer). Teachers differentiate the language they use and introduce in the classroom, the content they use, the classroom processes, the products that learners are asked to produce, and the assessment of those products. Many states and school districts are implementing a model called *response to intervention* (RTI) to provide early intervention for at-risk learners, but in this book, we also describe how it can be used within a framework of differentiated learning. We will introduce culturally and linguistically responsive RTI in this chapter, and throughout the book, we offer RTI Samplers to illustrate how the principles and practices we propose can be applied through culturally and linguistically responsive RTI.

Differentiation in Practice. Marie Matluck wanted to address a variety of learning styles while helping her kindergarteners learn letter names and sounds, so she provided opportunities for learners to learn these by differentiating the process—inviting children to look at pictures, singing, building with blocks, teaching one another, searching for letters in the environment outside schools, drawing letters and words that included the sounds of the letters, visualizing—making mind pictures—associating letters with key words—and making letter shapes with their bodies. She sometimes gave learners choices as to which activities they used to practice their skills. With sounds that are used in both English and students' home languages, Marie provided pictures of key words that begin with the letter in both languages to take advantage of what children already knew and enhance transfer of learning from one language to another.

Principle 6. Comprehensible Input with Scaffolding

Teachers provide rich input with appropriate context and support, to make that input comprehensible to learners, and appropriately and increasingly more challenging.

English learners cannot learn from language they do not understand. **Comprehensible input** is a term first used by Steven Krashen (2003) that refers to language used by teachers and others in ways that English learners can understand as their language ability is developing. It ties back to Vygotsky's (1986) thinking about the social nature of learning. Oral and written input from teachers can be adapted to convey meaning to language learners at various levels and to be more understandable in a variety of ways. To make learners better understand oral language in the

classroom, teachers make sure they face students when they speak (so that students can watch their mouths and facial expressions), speak slowly, and articulate clearly (so that students can hear the separate words), and increase **wait time** (the time after a question is asked before a student or students are asked to respond).

Ll
lion
león

õLionõ / õLeonõ Is a Key Word That Begins with the Same Letter in Both English and Spanish. A scaffold is a metaphor for the way teachers provide support for language learners as they acquire English. To improve the comprehensibility of written input, teachers choose texts with rich graphic elements and teach students how to understand and use these graphics; teach learners to use a variety of print and online sources to find word meanings, pronunciations, and examples of use; teach learners to organize and keep their own vocabulary notebooks or personal dictionaries (see example in Figure 1.2); provide alternate texts when texts are clearly beyond student comprehension; and use a variety of strategies to help students access texts that are near their instructional level.

Comprehensible Input with Scaffolding in Practice

When Jim Stalzer's sixth-grade class was studying the life cycle in science, he invited an ornithologist to come to speak to the class on the life cycle of birds. Jim wanted to make sure that all the students in his class, including newcomers who were beginning learners of English, could enjoy the visit. After the ornithologist accepted his invitation, Jim asked him for a short set of terms that he could pre-teach before the visit and supplied the speaker with a short list of suggestions that might help the ornithologist to be more easily understood in the multilingual, multicultural classroom. Jim also pre-taught some of the terms to the newcomers and helped them practice questions to ask the guest.

Principle 7. Prior Knowledge

Teachers help learners use their prior knowledge of language, content, and the world to develop new language and increase learning.

If we already know a lot about a topic—global warming, for example—we will find television programs, lectures, or written materials on global warming much easier to follow. If a student has learned a lot about a topic in his home language, it is easier to develop new language about that topic. **Prior knowledge** or background knowledge is key to comprehension for all learners (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2004), but it is of particular importance for English learners. If learners are less familiar with a topic and structures of the oral discussion or written text, they will have more difficulty with comprehension (Upala et al., 2007; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1988).

- ✚ Select topics that are familiar to learners and/or make connections between learners' prior knowledge and information they will read.
- ✚ Check comprehension often (use signals, cards, choral responses, questions, slates). When learners do not understand, demonstrate, explain, or rephrase.
- ✚ Use translation when this is the most efficient way to convey meanings of new words.
- ✚ Adapt language of input to help learners understand:
 - ✚ Face students.
 - ✚ Speak slowly (but naturally) and articulate clearly.
 - ✚ Pause frequently and increase wait time.
 - ✚ Use gestures, mime, facial expressions, pictures, props, and real objects to enhance meaning.
- ✚ Model and provide student models of language to be used.
- ✚ Monitor use of idioms and figurative language and explain them when needed.
- ✚ Use more direct sentence structures, articulate carefully, and adjust vocabulary.
- ✚ Point out key ideas and vocabulary.
- ✚ Use terms consistently; avoid overuse of synonyms for key terms.

- ✚ Select topics that are familiar to learners and make connections between learners' prior knowledge and information they will read.
- ✚ Use pictures, maps, and graphic organizers.
- ✚ Pre-teach and reinforce key vocabulary.
- ✚ Use and teach learners to use dictionaries and other word sources: picture dictionaries, learner dictionaries, translation dictionaries, and word source software.
- ✚ Teach learners to find and use picture, translation, and dictionary resources on the Web.
- ✚ Provide alternate texts at appropriate levels.
- ✚ Teach learners to select texts at appropriate reading/language levels.
- ✚ Assign key selections from texts when entire text is out of reach.
- ✚ Use audio texts.
- ✚ Include reference links (to pronunciation, translation, pictures, background, etc.) in digital texts (McCloskey & Thrush, 2005).
- ✚ Use scaffolding strategies to support reading (e.g., reciprocal teaching, shared reading, and guided reading).

A teacher engages learners in a dialogue about nature with cognitive difficulty, unfamiliarity, and lack of context. So, when developing language with English learners, teachers must work to *start where students are*. This includes finding out what students already know about a new topic and helping them to make connections between what they already know and what they are learning. It includes making connections between learners' cultures and cultural knowledge and the new culture of the school and the community. It also may include, at beginning levels, selecting topics that learners are likely to be familiar with, providing necessary background information on new topics in home languages, pre-teaching key vocabulary to expand background knowledge before studying a topic, or helping learners make connections between what they know about language in their home language (L1) to uses of this knowledge in English (L2). It also might include providing background information in L1 before proceeding to study a theme or topic in L2. In a bilingual classroom, content could be taught in two languages. In a monolingual classroom teachers might, for example, have learners read or listen to a home language summary of a text before they will be reading it in English.

Principle 8. Content Integration

Language learning is integrated with meaningful, relevant, and useful content—generally the same academic content and higher-order thinking skills that are appropriate for the age and grade of learners.

Teaching language along with age-appropriate academic content has several advantages: it is efficient because two goals—acquisition of language. Liz Bigler is introducing a lesson to her fourth-graders on Rosa Parks and the Montgomery bus boycott. She wants her beginning learners to understand the meaning of the word *fair* that is key to understanding the motivation for the boycott. She takes a bag of pennies and gives them out to a group of students. Three students get 10 pennies. The fourth gets 1. The children look puzzled, and Liz explains to them (with repetition, rephrasing, and gestures) that this is an example of something that is *not fair*. The students then proceed with their total physical response (TPR) lesson, which includes acting out the boycott as the teacher tells the story. (See Bigler, 2006, for a complete description of this lesson.) Children reenact the story of Rosa Parks and the Montgomery bus boycott.

Content Integration in Practice

Julia Raca teaches in a multicultural, multilingual second grade with several English learners at different levels. She wants to make sure that everyone benefits from her science curriculum, including the new arrivals in her classroom, so she includes both language objectives and science objectives in all her lesson plans. When she teaches her *How Things Work* unit, her goals include students' understandings about tools, machines, and magnets, and she adds to them language goals including key vocabulary, giving instructions, and using verbs in the command form and future tense form. Julia started objectives that she thought were appropriate for newcomers to achieve and others she expected them to work toward. Content learning are

accomplished at once. It is effective first because language is learned better when learners are doing something purposeful and important to them and learning the content for their grade level is very important. It is also necessary because learners cannot afford to take a year or two off from content learning while they develop language: they will end up only further behind their peers. Content-based language learning can happen in a variety of settings: in a pull-out English language development (ELD) class (also called an *ESL class*), in which the teacher introduces content through integrated themes (this is often used with newcomers/ beginners); in a special section of a content class with a grade-level teacher with training in teaching ELD who teaches the content using approaches that make the content comprehensible to language learners and promote language development (this is sometimes done in middle and high schools with significant numbers of English learners); or in grade-level classes that include both English proficient learners and English language learners. Learners name uses of various simple machines and explain/demonstrate how they work.

ÉLearners identify certain machines and their parts (e.g., bicycle, gears, and wheels).

ÉLearners demonstrate and label the workings of simple machines (screws, wheel and axle, lever, and pulley) on a compound machine, the bicycle.

Key Vocabulary

wheels, gears, machine, parts, work*

Oral Language

ÉNaming*

ÉRetelling

ÉReporting

ÉAsking for explanations

Grammar

ÉFuture tense with *going to*

ÉHelping verb *can/can't*

ÉCommands*

Comprehension

ÉVisualization and description of information from text and charts

Literacy

ÉUse of alphabet to find information*

Writing

ÉLabeling of a diagram

ÉWriting about how bicycles work

Learners in which teachers have training to attend to both content and language needs of learners and to differentiate instruction to include learners at different language and learning levels. These integrated models are used because research findings have shown that they are the most effective at both language learning and content learning for English learners (Cummins, 1986; Thomas & Collier, 2003). Teachers can differentiate through adapting the language, content, process, or product in classrooms (Tomlinson, 1999).

Principle 9. Clear, Appropriate Goals and Feedback

Teachers set and communicate attainable goals for learners and provide students appropriate and consistent feedback on their progress in attaining these goals.

Setting clear goals helps both teachers and learners have a much greater chance to attain those goals. Goals begin our curriculum, inform our curriculum, and new, more advanced goals are the outcome of our curriculum. As John Dewey once said, "Arriving at one goal is the starting point to another." We want English learners to attain the same high goals as their English-proficient peers, but to do this; we must set the right goals—goals that comprise the next step forward for individual learners. Learners want to do well, and will do much better when they understand what is expected of them and when our expectations are appropriate. We must establish clear language and content goals for learners and provide them feedback on their progress toward those goals. We can also, in developmentally appropriate ways, encourage learners to begin

to evaluate their own progress toward accomplishing goals to help them become independent, self-motivated learners. We must determine intermediary steps toward grade-level standards that are attainable at learners' language level. World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA), a consortium of states dedicated to the design and implementation of high standards and equitable educational opportunities for English language learners, collaborated with the standards of the professional organization Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages International Association (TESOL) for school-age learners of English (Gottlieb, Cranley, & Cammilleri, 2007; TESOL, 2006). These *English language proficiency standards in the core content areas for grades PK-12* outline standards for teaching English learners the language they need to develop essential content concepts. The standards document offers expectations in the areas of language arts, science, math, and social studies for learners at five grade-level clusters of English language proficiency across the domains of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Many states and districts have determined their own standards for English learners and selected instruments to assess their achievement. But good assessment goes far beyond summative tests at the beginning or end of the year. Good assessment includes multiple assessments. Good teaching includes assessment as Good teaching involves making assessment an integral part of every lesson. English language learners communicate for *social and instructional* purposes within the school setting an integral part of every lesson so that children and teachers can clearly see the progress they are making. Teachers may assess in many ways that range from informal to formal: by asking questions of individuals, groups, and the whole class; by having learners give signs or signals; by having learners demonstrate their understanding with responses on slates.

Questions for Reflection

1. How is what a teacher believes about teaching reflected in how that teacher performs in the classroom?
2. What do you believe is important to best promote learning for all learners? What do you believe is important for enhancing the academic language of English language learners in particular?
3. Reflect on your own experiences of studying a new language. Were you successful? What was most helpful? What was least helpful? What classroom principle and characteristics promoted your learning? Compare and contrast these principles with the ones outlined in this chapter.
4. Which of the principles outlined do you think is the most important? Why? Did any principle surprise you? If so, how?

Activities for Further Learning

1. Each principle in practice in this chapter describes teaching English learners in a particular grade-level classroom. Rewrite one of these vignettes to describe how this principle in practice might be changed to meet the needs of students at a different grade level.
2. Develop a lesson for a grade level that you teach or may teach. Focus your lesson on meeting one or more of the principles named in order to include learners of English. Exchange lessons with a partner and discuss how you have succeeded in teaching according to the principles and how you might take the lesson even further in that direction.
3. Observe an English learner in a content classroom over several days. Note what the student is doing, saying, and attending to during your observation. Does that learner seem to comprehend? the language and expectations of the classroom? What does the learner seem to comprehend? What evidence from your observation indicates that the learner comprehends? What does the learner not seem to understand? What evidence from your observation indicates that the learner does not comprehend?
4. If a new student entered your class from a culture with which you were unfamiliar, outline preparation and processes that you might use to provide cultural relevance for that student in your classroom.
5. Interview two adults who learned English after starting school. Ask your interviewees about their educational history and experiences as early, intermediate, and advanced learners. Ask

about the difficulties they faced and what people, processes, materials, or strategies they feel helped them to learn English. How do these connect with the principles in this chapter?

6. Visit a community center, farmers' market, place of worship, or other location frequented by members of language minority groups in your area and where another language or languages are often spoken. Spend some time listening and observing. Reflect: What does it feel like to be the one who does not understand? If you can, begin a conversation with some individuals. Ask them how people in their community go about learning English and about challenges they face. Ask them what they wish for their children.

7. Choose a language that you do not know much about and that is spoken by one of your students/potential students. Search for information on the language you selected. See how much you can learn about that language in 20 to 30 minutes—just a little about pronunciation, writing system, grammar, vocabulary, related languages, words for greeting, and so on. What might speakers of that language find difficult when learning English? What connections to English might you capitalize upon?

Suggested Reading

Ariza, E. N. W. (2006). *Not for ESOL teachers: What every classroom teacher needs to know about the linguistically, culturally, and ethnically diverse student.* Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon. Teachers of diverse learners are offered essential concepts for fully including those English learners in the mainstream classroom. Using many examples in the voices of students and teachers, Ariza considers the classroom settings, learning about cultures, specific information about cultural groups, language acquisition, and learning English through academic content, assessment, and connecting to the community.

Brown, H. D. (2000). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson ESL. This popular methodology text surveys a variety of language teaching options grounded in accepted principles of language learning and teaching.

Gibbons, P. (2002). *Scaffolding language, scaffolding learning: Teaching second language learners in the mainstream classroom.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. Gibbons introduces the theory behind second-language learning in readable language and provides concrete classroom examples of applications along with classroom activities to implement to help English learners speak, listen, read, and write.

Questions:

- ✚ What are the principles of integrated language teaching and learning?
- ✚ What is Active Engagement?
- ✚ What is Cultural Relevance?
- ✚ What is Collaboration?
- ✚ What is Learning Strategies?
- ✚ What is Differentiation?
- ✚ What is Comprehensible Input with Scaffolding?
- ✚ What is Prior Knowledge?
- ✚ What is Content Integration?
- ✚ What is Clear, Appropriate Goals and Feedback?

Lecture Three. Integrated Language Study in English language lexics.

PLAN:

- + Integrated Language Study.
- + A note on methods.
- + Synonyms and Antonyms.

Integrated Language Study

The goal of integrated language study is to extend each student's ability to understand and communicate meaning effectively. Instruction about language knowledge and skills, spelling, grammar, usage, and mechanics should be provided to students within the context of their daily language use and experiences. It is the intention of this curriculum that students' facility with language develops through authentic and relevant language experiences. **Language study does not comprise a separate unit or topic of study. Rather, language study is integrated into the language processes and language use.** Students are provided with opportunities to learn to use language in a variety of meaningful situations for a variety of purposes and audiences; to learn about language in ways that help them to discover that language is a necessary tool for effectively communicating in their daily lives; and to learn through language by applying their knowledge of language to their speaking, listening, writing, and reading experiences.

Mini-lessons

Teachers are encouraged to use brief, to-the-point mini-lessons which are immediately meaningful because they connect the language concept or skill directly to the students' current speaking, listening, writing, or reading experience. Mini-lessons can be provided at any time during a lesson, depending upon the students' needs and the lesson objectives. Following is one strategy for structuring a mini-lesson.

Introduce

Introduce the language concept (skill or knowledge) using examples from material students are presently listening to or reading, or from students' own speaking or writing.

Explain

Provide students with any additional, relevant information about the concept and use more samples, if necessary, to explain further or exemplify the concept.

Practice

Provide a brief interactive activity to help students establish relationships between the new skill or knowledge and their current language use. Activities in which students work in pairs or small groups are useful because, as students talk, they clarify their own and others' understanding. Activities should make use of language experiences in which students are currently engaged in order for learning to be relevant (e.g., have students locate examples of compound sentences in the novel they are reading or in their own writing).

Review and Record

Review the major points made during the mini-lesson and record the information with some examples. Post the information in a prominent place in the classroom or have students take brief notes for future reference.

Apply and Reinforce

Have students immediately apply the new knowledge or skill in their own speaking, listening, writing, or reading experiences. For example, following a mini-lesson about sentence combining, have students combine several sentences in a draft of their own writing.

Mini-lessons may be taught to the whole class, to small groups, or to individual students, depending upon their assessed needs. The lesson objectives and student needs will determine the

type of language study instruction required at any given time. Teachers can identify the language concepts they need to teach by observing students' language use, noting their abilities, and keeping track of the types of errors they make.

Spelling

The ultimate goal of learning how to spell is to develop and extend one's ability and confidence to communicate effectively in writing. Students should be encouraged to experiment with language and take risks in draft writing when spelling unfamiliar words.

Conventional spellings of words have evolved over time and continue to evolve. However, there are standard ways of spelling words so that readers are able to understand what writers mean. Standard spelling is developmental; growth in the ability to use standard spelling occurs continually and gradually as students' knowledge about word patterns and spelling rules increases, along with their ability to apply this knowledge when interpreting and constructing words. Standard spelling is most effectively developed within the context of students' own writing. Instruction should focus on the words that individual students need in order to express themselves precisely and clearly.

Individual spelling and vocabulary lists can help students keep track of those words which are of particular difficulty or relevance to them, and of new words that appear in specific units of study. Integrated spelling instruction includes a variety of teaching and learning strategies and incorporates spelling instruction into students' daily listening, speaking, reading, and writing processes. Competent spellers have a base of word knowledge, an understanding of word patterns, and a repertoire of strategies from which to select when they attempt to spell an unknown word. As students grow in their knowledge and strategies, they are more willing to take risks to increase the number of words that they can spell correctly and automatically.

Spelling Principles

1. Learning to spell is a developmental process and competence in spelling occurs over time. Students' progress at various rates through a series of stages from pre-phonetic to standard spelling will give opportunity to students to practice them well. Spelling instruction should help students to recognize that it is acceptable and appropriate to use developmental "temporary" spellings of unknown words as they extend their understanding of standard spelling rules and strategies.
2. Spelling growth is enhanced when instruction is integrated into students' daily language experiences. Spelling instruction cannot be treated as a separate and isolated subject. Research shows that knowledge and skills are transferred most readily when they are relevant and learned in the context of what the students are striving to achieve. For spelling instruction to be meaningful, it must relate to the students' own reading and writing. When students understand that spelling is a tool for facilitating clearly written communication, they are more motivated to learn to spell in standard ways and appreciate the need to strive for standard spellings of words.
3. Spelling instruction should help students acquire a variety of strategies with which to analyze, remember, and figure out spellings. Competent spellers use a variety of strategies to help them determine the standard spelling of unfamiliar words (e.g., knowing when to apply spelling rules or patterns, or knowing when and how to use a dictionary). When such strategies become part of their repertoire, students can apply them to their own writing.
4. Assessment and evaluation of spelling should be continuous and have instructional implications. Assessment of students' spelling knowledge and abilities requires continuous and careful observation by teachers and by the students themselves. Observation checklists, anecdotal notes, and conferences are some ways of gathering and recording students' spelling abilities and knowledge, and their instructional needs. Analysis of written products such as rough drafts, final drafts, and journal entries can provide further information about students' spelling knowledge and strategies (see the chart in this section). Assessment and evaluation should take into consideration the developmental nature of learning to spell by focusing on individual growth

over time.

Managing an Integrated Spelling Program

Spelling instruction, in an integrated program, takes place within the context of students' own reading and writing experiences. Instructional needs should be determined through continuous assessment and from the course objectives. It is important those teachers:

Engage students in meaningful language experiences.

When students are involved in a variety of reading activities (e.g., literature circles, silent reading, and author studies) they develop an understanding of word patterns and increase their vocabulary. As well, through a variety of regular, purposeful writing experiences (e.g., letters, stories, poems, response journals), students develop an awareness of the need for standard spelling to communicate their ideas and information accurately.

Engaging regularly in writing experiences promotes spelling growth, and teachers will find many opportunities within the writing program to provide both formal and informal spelling instruction. It is important to help students develop strategies for proofreading their own and others' writing during the editing stage of their writing processes. During the editing stage, when it is appropriate to focus on correcting spelling, teachers can help students to discover errors by encouraging them to:

- read their work out loud to themselves or a peer
- have a peer read their writing and underline misspellings
- during first proofreading underline or highlight words they think may be misspelled
- try misspelled words in different ways, or check with a peer or resource book after identifying misspelled words
- keep dictionaries and their own personalized spelling lists nearby during proofreading
- be aware of the types of errors they make most often and proofread specifically for these
- read from the bottom to the top of the page so that they focus on individual words rather than meaning as they proofread
- use computer spell checks to shorten the process of proofreading, being aware of the limitations of such programs (e.g., typographical errors such as *though* instead of *thought*, and homophones such as *their* and *there* will be missed by a spell checker).

Create a classroom environment that values students' willingness to take risks and develops their interest in words and word patterns.

Encourage students to expand their vocabulary and their spelling knowledge by taking risks with unfamiliar words, rather than simply sticking to the known. Involve students in a variety of word study activities (e.g., word derivatives, patterns, rhymes) that are clearly related to their own reading and writing experiences and spelling needs. Teaching students to use mnemonics and other strategies can be fun and beneficial. As well, games such as Scrabble, Spill and Spell, and Probe immerse students in word creation, vocabulary development, and problem solving.

Determine students' spelling needs through continuous assessment, and provide instruction as required and appropriate to students' developmental levels.

Continuous assessment of students' written work provides information about their spelling knowledge and strategies, and determines the instruction needed. Assessment or evaluation of students' spelling growth can be done through peer checks of personal spelling lists. Encourage students to review their lists and test each other on a weekly or bi-weekly basis. Have individual students plot their growth by keeping a list of new words, rules, and strategies learned.

Instruction is most effectively provided in the context of students' writing through mini-lessons.

These formal or informal instructional sessions should be based on student needs as determined through observation. Mini-lessons involve 3-10 minutes of direct instruction with opportunities for students to interact and participate. They should make clear connections to students' own reading and writing experiences. Instruction may be pre-planned or spontaneous and may be conducted with students as individuals, as a small group, or as an entire class, depending upon student needs and abilities. Language texts and commercial spelling programs can be useful tools for teachers as sources of information for mini-lessons and for students as sources of information about spelling rules, patterns, and strategies. Lessons in texts need not be followed sequentially, nor is it necessary to cover all lessons. Select the lessons that address students' spelling needs and use them as starting points for reviewing or learning knowledge and strategies.

Discuss the nature or causes of misspellings with students. Middle Level students are capable of recognizing and analyzing most common spelling errors.

Types of common errors include:

- omission of letters (often silent letters)
- inattention to word meaning (*no* for *know*)
- letter reversals (*becuase* for *because*)
- phonetic spelling or mispronunciation (*Febyuary* for *February*)
- confusing past tense marker *ed* with related homophones (e.g., *guest* with *guessed*)
- patterns related to doubling consonants (e.g., *fadding* for *fading*)
- irregular letter combinations (*prison* for *prism*)
- inattention to word root/base or source
- transfer of speech patterns from another language or dialect.

The Spelling Error Analysis Chart that follows is useful for keeping a running record of the type of spelling errors students make so that appropriate instruction can be provided.

Select spelling words for study from a variety of sources.

Students' individual or personalized spelling lists will contain both teacher-selected and student-selected words. All students will have some words in common in their lists and other words that are relevant only to themselves. Individual students' spelling lists may be written in a separate notebook, in a section of their language arts binder, or on file cards. Teachers and students may select words for study from a variety of sources including:

- words students misspell in their own written work
- words about which students are curious
- words identified by the teacher as ones students need to know (e.g., developmentally appropriate)
- words relevant to a specific topic, theme, activity, or subject.

Teachers should attend to each student's individual spelling list when assessing written work. As well, teachers may structure regular class time for peer testing of the words on individual spelling lists. The results of these assessments will provide data about students' growth and about their instructional needs.

Emphasize spelling strategies that competent spellers use.

In an integrated program it is important for students to learn and apply spelling strategies within the context of their own writing. See the charts that follow for a list of spelling strategies that Middle Level students should be able to use. As well, they should be able to:

- apply knowledge of spelling rules (e.g., *i* before *e* except after *c* gives the *e* sound)
- apply knowledge of common word patterns (sound, function, meaning)
- relate sounds in unfamiliar words to similar sounds in familiar words
- use memory devices (e.g., mnemonics)
- visualize (Does it look right?)
- apply knowledge of syllabication (e.g., carefully pronouncing words and syllables), pluralization (e.g., adding *s*, *es*), root words, prefixes, and suffixes
- identify misspellings in their own and others' written work
- proofread during the editing stage (e.g., during drafting have students underline words that they need to check)
- consult dictionaries, computer spell checks, and other resources.

Set up classroom routines and expectations.

It is helpful to set up a structure of classroom routines with regard to spelling practices and expectations because routines encourage independence. When students become familiar with how their class day is structured, most will be able to work independently and co-operatively within the parameters set. Teachers will need to model routines and expectations, and provide time for students to learn and use them. Some considerations regarding routines and expectations include:

- use of classroom resource material
- use of individual, personal word lists (e.g., notebook, file cards)
- selection of words for study (e.g., words to be identified by the teacher and those to be identified by the student)
- proofreading and editing procedures
- peer testing, using individual word lists
- scheduled and impromptu conferencing
- regular writing time.

Provide access to, and instruction in the use of, a variety of appropriate resource materials.

Some useful resources that students should have access to and know how to use are dictionaries, language texts, and thesauri. By placing appropriate resources on a classroom shelf for student use and by referring to these resources themselves, teachers model their use and usefulness. As well, students may find it helpful to have available visual aids such as posters that contain word lists, spelling rules, patterns, and strategies. Teachers should involve students in creating a variety of their own resources including posters and personal dictionaries, when appropriate.

Make it clear to students when spelling counts.

There is a place for standard spelling in final drafts prepared for audiences, but it is not necessary that every word in rough drafts or personal writing be spelled in the standard way, particularly if such attention to "correct" spelling limits the writer's ideas in initial drafts. During composing, students should be encouraged to let their ideas flow freely and to use "temporary" spellings in early drafts to allow them to get their ideas down. This encourages them to use new and unfamiliar words. They can proofread and correct for standard spelling during the editing stage of the writing process. The more those students write for real purposes and audiences, in and beyond the classroom, the more motivated they will be to attend to their spelling.

Inform parents about the integrated spelling program and about their child's progress.

Because spelling is one of the most visible language skills, it is often used as a yardstick by which parents and others judge students' language abilities. Therefore, it is important that parents are made aware of the developmental nature of learning to spell and how spelling instruction is being provided within the English language arts program. Through regular meetings, parent nights, and newsletters, teachers can keep parents posted about their children's progress and make suggestions about what parents can do to help their children become competent spellers.

Supporting Weak Spellers

Students who are competent spellers have internalized correct spelling to the extent that they seldom have to spend any conscious effort on the actual words and they can focus on the meaning that they are trying to convey. However, for a small percentage of students, the norm of the developmental process of learning to spell may not apply and they often must put so much effort into forming each word that they are unable to focus on whether they have communicated their ideas effectively. For those students, teachers may have to plan remedial instruction and increase the intensity of that instruction. Teachers can identify weak spellers by analyzing their error patterns and subsequently identifying their instructional needs. The following steps may be useful when analyzing students' spelling errors.

- Collect numerous samples of the student's spelling errors from a variety of sources (e.g., the student's own writing, personal spelling lists, dictated tests) which will provide the diagnostic information.
- Interview the student to determine the cause of those errors (e.g., phonetic difficulties, inability to visualize, lack of knowledge about word patterns or spelling rules).
- Classify the errors, sorting them into types and frequencies.
- Select instructional strategies to remediate the student's spelling deficits (e.g., phonetic information, spelling rules or patterns).

Sample Spelling Mini-lesson

If, when observing students' written work (see the sample of writing below), the teacher recognizes that several students need a review of the spelling rule *i* before *e* except after *c*, the teacher may prepare a mini-lesson similar to the following.

Introduce

Never I couldn't beleive it. I just couldn't beleive it. In a few short moments we (the band) would be on the feild marching for all that we were worth to win the Canadian fiel marching championships. We just had to ...

Explain

State the rule (*i* before *e* except after *c*) and explain that the rule only works in syllables with a long *e* sound. Explain that, like most rules, this one has exceptions; but that remembering it will help students spell most *ie* words.

Practise

Have students pair up to create a list or help the teacher create a list of familiar *ie* words from their current writing or reading projects. Some words students or the teacher may suggest include wiener, field, believe, grieve, achieve, shriek, pier, and piece. Discuss any suggested words that are exceptions.

Review and Record

Record the rule and examples on chart paper and read this aloud to/with students. Post the chart paper for further reference or have students record the information in a separate language study section of their notebooks.

Apply and Reinforce

Have students pair up to read each other's most recent written work and to identify any *ie* words. They should check the words to determine if they are spelled correctly and add those that are spelled incorrectly to their personal spelling lists.

Grammar

Grammar, another aspect of language study, refers to the patterns in which words are arranged to convey meaning. Because it is not necessary to discuss consciously the structure of language in order to use it, children who enter school at age five or six already speak using very complex patterns of language. This intuitive knowledge of sentence structure enables them to generate and understand sentences that contain grammatical complexities which are beyond their intellectual capacity to explain, and provides the basis for further grammar instruction. However, because isolated grammar study often results in students acquiring a body of language facts, definitions, and rules that are distinct from genuine communication, it is of little instructional value. For example, intense practice in analyzing and labeling sentence parts does not guarantee that students will become fluent speakers and writers. **Instruction, then, is most useful and relevant when it is provided in the context of the students' own speaking, listening, writing, and reading experiences so they can see that their knowledge of grammar serves as a tool for producing clear and accurate communication.**

At the Middle Level, attention to grammar should help students develop an awareness of how language parts work together to construct meaning. Language knowledge and ability develop through use; therefore, grammar knowledge and skills are most effectively presented in the context of what the student is striving to achieve at the time that assistance is needed and appropriate. Language study can provide the tools for students to conduct their own appraisals of clarity, force, and accuracy in their writing. Students need to discuss word arrangements and sentence structures as they revise their writing or when they discuss oral presentations and works by other authors.

Grammar Concepts and Knowledge

Integrated grammar instruction has two purposes: to enable students to manipulate language for effective communication and to extend the quality and flexibility of their language use. Teachers should provide students with the following concepts and knowledge when they apply to the students' own language processes, on a need-to-know basis.

- Grammar describes the system or conventional patterns of a language.
- Words and word arrangements are classified according to their use and placement within sentences.
- Every language has unique word orders and patterns. (What is correct and conventional in one language may not be correct or typical in another language.) Such understanding increases students' appreciation of cultural linguistic differences.
- Knowing grammatical terminology provides students with a "language" to talk about their own and others' spoken and written language, and allows them the opportunity to move or manipulate words and sentence parts for the best effect. As well, this knowledge improves students' ability to revise and proofread written work.
- The parts of speech that make up sentences include nouns, pronouns, verbs and auxiliaries, adverbs, adjectives and determiners, conjunctions, and prepositions.
- Sentence parts include subject, predicate, phrase, and clause.
- Types of sentence patterns include simple sentence, compound sentence, complex sentence, and compound-complex sentence.
- Expanding and combining sentence parts and sentence patterns create interest and enhance clarity and understanding. Sentence building and combining activities are best

employed using sentences that the students themselves produce.

- Other structural topics may include the following: object of the verb, object of the preposition, verb tenses, subject-verb agreement, possessive and plural nouns, double negative, and dangling modifier.

The teacher should also address other concepts, knowledge, or terminology which students require in order to extend their ability to use spoken and written language effectively. It is important to guide students to expand and extend their ability to use language effectively in their daily communication inside and outside of school, rather than to study it as a complex system to be memorized.

Suggestions for integrated grammar instruction include the following:

- Provide students with opportunities to use language in a variety of relevant and meaningful situations.
- Limit the use of grammatical terms to those that are useful for immediate discussion and instruction.
- Expose students to well-written and well-spoken material.
- Provide grammar mini-lessons within students' reading and writing (e.g., revision, editing) experiences.
- Conduct grammar instruction incidentally, briefly addressing an individual's or a small group of students' immediate needs.
- Draw students' attention to ways that authors use language for specific purposes or effects (e.g., sentence structures, metaphors, dialogue).
- Use literature that students are reading to provide examples of various grammatical concepts and skills.
- Encourage students to imitate language patterns from literature.
- Use examples of student writing to demonstrate the various grammatical concepts. For example, instruct students individually or in groups as needed using an anonymous student draft projected from an overhead projector to demonstrate the effectiveness of sentence combining.

Assessment and evaluation suggestions include the following:

- Teachers can provide students with checklists or help them develop their own checklists for self-assessment, peer assessment, or teacher assessment and evaluation.
- Students can keep portfolios of their writing over a period of time to demonstrate their growth in ability to use standard grammar.
- Teachers can keep anecdotal notes about each student to indicate areas of growth and need with regard to grammatical concepts and knowledge.

Language Usage

Language study also includes directing attention to language usage. Language usage refers to the word choices, pronunciations, and patterns that speakers and writers typically use. There are standards for different situations, audiences, and purposes. For example, different levels of language usage are expected and required for a casual conversation with a friend and for a formal presentation to an audience of parents and community members. Different levels of written language usage are appropriate for a friendly letter and a job application cover letter. These language habits develop unconsciously within social and cultural milieus, and relate to attitudes and language standards of groups. This curriculum reflects the understanding that language varies according to situation. Cultural backgrounds, home language experiences, and

school language experiences all determine usage. It may help to explain to students that we change our clothing according to the people we are with and the situation or event we are attending. Similarly, our oral and written language choices are also determined by the people we are addressing (audience) and the circumstances or setting (situation). Students must be aware that language choices or levels range from very familiar or informal to very specialized or formal. Appropriateness rather than correctness dictates language choices. Modern usage instruction is flexible and helps students to make appropriate usage choices in oral and written language. Instruction should be aimed at increasing the range of levels of usage available to each student.

Language Mechanics

Language mechanics (capitalization and punctuation skills and concepts) should be developed and integrated as needed, and refined on a continuous basis. At the Middle Level most students will have acquired basic knowledge about the mechanics of language; however, they may need reminders about the application of their prior knowledge.

Language Mechanics Skills and Knowledge

Students may find it useful to be able to name and know the purpose(s) of the following: period, exclamation mark, comma, semi-colon, colon, quotation marks, dash, ellipsis, italics, paragraph indentions, and capitalization. The teacher should also address other mechanical skills, concepts, and terminology that students need to extend their ability to communicate clearly and effectively. These are best addressed on an individual basis or during small group mini-lessons as students are speaking, listening, writing, and reading.

Suggestions for integrating mechanics into instruction include the following:

- Provide instruction on an individual basis as much as possible, although at times small group instruction may be more feasible.
- Keep the learning relevant by using student work-in-progress as the basis for teaching mechanical knowledge and skills (e.g., during the revision stage of the writing process).
- Use samples of student writing to demonstrate or point out the use of specific mechanical skills and concepts.
- Make the purpose for the knowledge/skill/concept clear to the students (e.g., the comma guides the reader to pause when reading, therefore clarifying meaning).

Assessment of Language Mechanics

Checklists and anecdotal notes are most useful for monitoring student knowledge of and ability to use the concepts of punctuation and capitalization. These instruments may serve peer, teacher, or self-assessment purposes. Teachers can carry out diagnostic assessment for each student early in the school year in order to get a sense of the instruction that is necessary. Then, by continuing to monitor the student's use of the skills and knowledge on checklists or as anecdotal notes, teachers will be able to maintain records of each student's progress. Students can monitor their own abilities on a regular basis, becoming aware of their own areas of need and success. A sample form follows.

Completion of checklists should occur over time and in the context of students' language experiences. It is important that teachers determine objectives for gathering particular information from individual students, as observations for each student will vary depending upon abilities and needs. The observations should help to determine the instruction needed by each student.

A NOTE ON METHODS

The suggested learning outcomes for English, as a home language, a first additional language or as a second additional language are:

1. The learner is able to listen for information and enjoyment, and respond appropriately and critically in a wide range of situations.
2. The learner is able to communicate confidently and effectively in spoken language in a wide range of situations.
3. The learner is able to read and view for information and enjoyment, and respond critically to the aesthetic, cultural and emotional values in texts.
4. The learner is able to write different kinds of factual and imaginative texts for a wide range of purposes.
5. The learner is able to use language to think and reason, and to access, process and use information for learning.
6. The learner knows and is able to use the sounds, vocabulary and grammar of the language.

An educator needs to provide for life skills as well as for the general enrichment of the pupils through the language program. An integrated program is most suitable because language is organic. English should, therefore, be taught to conform to this reality. In the same context it should meet the variety of needs that pupils have. In an ideal situation the educator would develop a program around stimulating books and reading. After all, one of the important goals of the new education is to achieve critical & developmental outcomes and such outcomes require extensive reading. In the complex world of daily reality, educators will be seized with achieving more practical learning outcomes. Such outcomes would include encouraging pupils interacting with one another freely and intelligibly, speculate on experiences vicariously received through literature as well as on the experiences that they share with others, explore the complicated relationship between the spoken and written word and thereby to evaluate the differences between the denotative and the connotative meaning of words, use words to satisfy personal needs, establish personal relationships, create understanding, and achieve personal growth.

To achieve these outcomes the focus has to be both on how pupils learn and what it is that they learn. Learning materials that have a real purpose in the wide world are therefore very significant. Similarly, organizing pupils to work in small groups is an important strategy to employ as often as possible.

SYNONYMS

We are filled with regret, when we look back at our own lives, that we were not introduced to a thesaurus at school. In English there are many words with similar meanings. A pupil needs to know which word is most apt and for what reason. The first thing though is to acquaint pupils with synonyms and then to encourage them to explore the best word for an appropriate context. Pupils will naturally be motivated intrinsically and extrinsically to add to the list in the book.

Synonyms are very useful when brainstorming prior to speaking or writing. They allow one to get the spread of a topic. Encourage pupils to use synonyms when thinking about a topic.

4. ANTONYMS

The comments made on synonyms also apply to antonyms. Both synonyms and antonyms are very important in helping pupils to develop critical thinking and skills in analysis. Let us take an example:

The synonyms for bold are : bright, loud, showy (negative) or, brave, heroic, strong (positive),

The antonyms for bold are: meek, shy, timid

Does one have to look negatively on someone who is not bold but meek or weak? In which context/s is it acceptable to be meek or weak? Allow learners to

separate synonyms and antonyms according to categories such as: positive-negative; strong-weak; easy-difficult etc. The desired learning outcome is that pupils will use words selectively to communicate the tone they desire. They will also learn how to interpret what others say to them. Learners can also change a portion of literary text to give its opposite meaning.

The use of antithesis should be especially encouraged. Here are more examples from poetry:

Man proposes; God in his good time disposes.

When he could see he was blind; when he became blind he saw all too clearly.

To err is human, to forgive, divine.

The future is in the past.

5. COLLECTIVE NAMES

Critical analysis and thinking require that we group things according to some characteristic. We also group things for ease of reference or for purposes of poetic or idiomatic expression. We can accordingly understand why the term 'herd' is used in respect of

some animals and a 'pack' in respect of others. We can also distinguish between a 'nest' of pirates and a 'nest' of tables. There are some commonalities but also some major or subtle differences. Explore why we should talk of a 'pace of assess' or a 'sord of mallards'. Are these animals that are on the move, somewhat different from when they are relatively still and on the ground? Then again, what does one gain by talking of a 'zeal of zebras' or a 'pride of lions'? Finally, what is herd mentality and who would be a brood of noisy brats and which rugby players are part of a pack?

6. PREPOSITIONS AFTER VERBS

This can be a rather tricky section for anyone who is not a native speaker of the English language. Let us take the first entry in the book which is 'aim'. This word is generally followed by 'at' as in: aim at a target. Occasionally it could be followed by 'for' as in: aim for victory. It could also be used with 'to' as in: aim to kill. An educator would therefore do well to use the given list as a foundation for building upon. Pupils should be encouraged to look at books by noted authors to get more examples for their own personal dictionaries.

A preposition expresses a relation between it and another word. In the list the preposition comes after a verb and before a noun. The function it fulfills can be easily understood when the word is represented as **pre**-position. As such, the preposition stands in front of the word that it governs. The educator can try out an exercise such as the following:

book **into** a hotel bump **into** something

walk **down** the road swim **across** the river

come **through** the forest climb **over** a fence

Activities for Further Learning

1. Each principle in practice in this chapter describes teaching English learners in a particular grade-level classroom. Rewrite one of these vignettes to describe how this principle in practice might be changed to meet the needs of students at a different grade level.
2. Develop a lesson for a grade level that you teach or may teach. Focus your lesson on meeting one or more of the principles named in order to include learners of English. Exchange lessons with a partner and discuss how you have succeeded in teaching according to the principles and how you might take the lesson even further in that direction.
3. Observe an English learner in a content classroom over several days. Note what the student is doing, saying, and attending to during your observation. Does that learner seem to comprehend? the language and expectations of the classroom? What does the learner seem to comprehend? What evidence from your observation indicates that the learner comprehends? What does the

learner not seem to understand? What evidence from your observation indicates that the learner does not comprehend?

4. If a new student entered your class from a culture with which you were unfamiliar, outline preparation and processes that you might use to provide cultural relevance for that student in your classroom.

5. Interview two adults who learned English after starting school. Ask your interviewees about their educational history and experiences as early, intermediate, and advanced learners. Ask about the difficulties they faced and what people, processes, materials, or strategies they feel helped them to learn English. How do these connect with the principles in this chapter?

6. Visit a community center, farmers' market, place of worship, or other location frequented by members of language minority groups in your area and where another language or languages are often spoken. Spend some time listening and observing. Reflect: What does it feel like to be the one who does not understand? If you can, begin a conversation with some individuals. Ask them how people in their community go about learning English and about challenges they face. Ask them what they wish for their children.

7. Choose a language that you do not know much about and that is spoken by one of your students/potential students. Search for information on the language you selected. See how much you can learn about that language in 20 to 30 minutes—just a little about pronunciation, writing system, grammar, vocabulary, related languages, words for greeting, and so on. What might speakers of that language find difficult when learning English? What connections to English might you capitalize upon?

8. Visit the Safe Schools Coalition web site on guidelines for avoiding bias in school curriculum materials (<http://www.safeschoolscoalition.org/guidelinesonbias-screen.pdf>). Use its criterion to review your textbooks and/or materials that you are using or considering using in a future unit or theme.

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Lecture Four. Some Educational and Methodological Principles of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

Plan:

- ✚ Original considerations on developing a general teaching method
- ✚ The question of integrating content and language
- ✚ A repertoire of speech acts is needed
- ✚ Academic interaction skills
- ✚ What is effective teaching?

Original considerations on developing a general teaching method for bilingual subject teaching are meanwhile judged with some ambivalence. While some basic features of a teaching

methodology for CLIL may be distinguished, bilingual teaching is determined by the features of the teaching of each specific subject. Thus, one should distinguish between general teaching methods for CLIL and a subject-specific component within them, i.e. a component that is tailored to the specific subject being taught in the foreign language. This statement applies less to the linguistic side of CLIL (i.e. the language through which the subject is taught), although approaches to foreign language teaching often differ on account of different teaching traditions in teaching different languages. Thus, we can only discuss typical features of general teaching methods in CLIL that are an inherent part of all combinations of subject and language (cf. in this connection also Jansen O'Dwyer 2007). Simultaneous promotion of subject and language knowledge in terms of teaching methodology, the way in which one can integrate subject and language work is of central importance for every form of CLIL. As in any form of institutionalized learning, however, the question also arises for CLIL as to how the learning processes in school can be appropriately promoted methodologically and didactically. This crucial didactic question raises itself doubly in the context of CLIL since the aim is to promote knowledge of a subject and knowledge of a foreign language at the same time.

It has emerged ever more clearly in foreign language teaching in the last decade that learning processes at school can only be influenced by the teacher to a limited extent; there are meanwhile similar findings in the teaching of a number of other humanities and social sciences subjects, e.g. history. Increasingly, calls are rather being made to promote learning processes through appropriately designing the learning environment. If learners work actively with one another in an appropriate learning environment in which they engage with the subjects consciously and emotionally, so the argument goes, learning processes are promoted to a greater extent than in traditional forms of teaching in which the teacher may be actively involved but learners are involved only reactively. While such learning environments have been discussed for some time in the teaching of foreign languages and also occasionally in the teaching of other subjects, they are introduced by teachers into lessons with little enthusiasm and unfortunately that also applies to CLIL lessons. I am referring here in particular to forms of work involving a partner, work in groups and project work. These cooperative forms of work are linked with the educational principle of learners' autonomy, the conceptual basis of all recent educational approaches.

It is the learning environment that counts it. It is precisely this concept of a modern learning environment based on constructivist principles (cf. Wolff 2002) which, in the view of CLIL methods, also best does justice to the demands of integrated subject and foreign language teaching. The best way to combine subject and language work is to integrate them in a learning environment of this kind. Bilingual subject teaching is first of all subject teaching, i.e. the subject presents the contents with which the learner has to deal. The contents of the subject are real in the sense of the discussion in the early 20th century on Realien - material objects used as teaching aids to stimulate the imagination, i.e. contents relating to the real world. Unlike the often fictional contents of foreign language teaching, these contents encourage learners genuinely to deal cognitively, consciously and emotionally with the subject, thus promoting optimal learning processes. Because the contents of the subject are real, they are also more appropriate for modern forms of joint learning such as group and project work than the contents of foreign language teaching. When learners work in small groups on geography or history topics, their individual learning processes are enhanced, their motivation for dealing with these contents is increased and they are more involved in the learning process. Of course, such an approach requires the development of learners' autonomy, i.e. the ability to work independently, which is developed in turn in the context of group and project work (cf. here also Dam 1994).

The question of integrating content and language

These comments do not yet answer the central question, of course. So far, CLIL lessons have only been described as modern subject lessons like those that could also take place in the learners' mother tongue. The question of the linguistic side of CLIL and above all of the integration of content and language requires further considerations. Language plays a central role

in the teaching of any subject. History or biology lessons in the learners' native language also work with language to a great extent. The concepts of specialist subjects are conveyed to learners through language. Language is needed to be able to observe and describe situations, and language enables learners to exchange ideas and discuss controversial insights. It is no coincidence that the observation was made in the field of specialist English teaching methodology back in the eighties that all teaching is language teaching. The concept of language across the curriculum that called on all teachers to make language transparent in their lessons is also indirectly a didactic basis for CLIL. This is because if one teaches a subject in a language other than the learners' mother tongue, raising an awareness of linguistic products and processes plays an even more important role.

A repertoire of speech acts is needed

While the foreign language is not the focus of lessons in modern CLIL, more emphasis is placed on the language and on making it transparent to learners than in lessons in the learners' native language. Terminological aspects should not be the focus here, as was originally called for in CLIL. What appears to be much more important in language work is to develop a repertoire of speech acts that play a central role in subject lessons. This may be determined for all subjects, regardless of whether they are science, social science or humanities-orientated. The pupil has to be equipped linguistically for these speech acts in order to be able to act independently. If lessons are held in a foreign language, the relevant linguistic repertoire in the foreign language must also be provided. These speech acts include the following:

Describing: identifying, defining and classifying the partial actions.

Explaining: using the partial actions to provide examples, to elaborate and to reduce.

Evaluating: using the partial actions to argue and to provide evidence.

Drawing conclusions: concluding and explaining with the partial actions.

These acts, which may be assigned to linguistic functions, are implemented linguistically in the learners' native language or, in the case of bilingual subject lessons, in the foreign language, but they serve the work with the subject's contents and are therefore very realistic. Because learners are made aware of them in their work with subject contents and regard them as necessary, they are also learned.

Academic interaction skills

Thus, the decisive factor in promoting language skills is the development of language skills related to subject-based work. Allow me to illustrate this with an example. Subject work is to a great extent based on work with texts and documents but also refers to other materials, e.g. pictures, graphs and films. Learners need to be linguistically prepared to deal with such materials. That means that their reading skills need to be developed more than in traditional foreign language lessons, for example, where oral interaction plays a greater role. Reading texts and documents is dependent on reading strategies that have to be taught to learners. Work with pictures, graphs and films require other strategies that also have to be developed and promoted in respect of the linguistic application of the knowledge that has been gained. For example, describing the picture of a geological formation requires strategies by means of which the important features of this formation can be recognized, but at the same time it requires the ability to translate this knowledge from its conceptual form into a linguistic form. Thus, the promotion of language skills always takes place in combination with subject-related tasks; these tasks determine which linguistic processes and strategies, but also which linguistic means, are included in the lesson. In the broadest sense, this involves promoting academic interaction skills in the sense of Cummins' cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) concept. While foreign language teaching, especially in the first years, promotes what Cummins referred to as basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), bilingual subject teaching focuses from the outset on developing academic interaction skills.

Code switching required to conclude these considerations, allow me to make a methodological remark on the use of the mother tongue and the foreign language in bilingual teaching. In the early days of CLIL, the methodological demand was for bilingual subject teaching to be strictly

monolingual, in line with the principle of foreign language teaching at that time i.e. the mother tongue was not to be used in the classroom. Views have now changed - the importance of the mother tongue in integrated foreign language and subject learning processes is no longer called into question, particularly since it has been recognized that the code-switching processes often to be observed in the bilingual classroom are very important in language-learning and language awareness-raising processes, but as yet have rarely attracted methodological interest (cf. here in particular Wannagat).

What is effective teaching?

Although it is not always easy to define exactly what different people might mean by the term 'effective' teachers have always needed a wide range of subject knowledge and a large repertoire of professional skills. Teaching young children to read and write, to understand the world around them, to grasp and be able to apply fundamental mathematical and scientific principles, to use their developing intelligence and imagination, to live and work harmoniously with others, all require an effective teacher to possess knowledge and understanding of the content of the subjects and topics being taught, as well as the ability to manage a class, explain clearly, ask intelligent and appropriate questions, and monitor and assess learning. There are many factors which combine to demand from teachers ever higher levels of professional competence. These include the rapid growth in the acquisition of knowledge, the changing nature not only of adult employment, but also of recreation and leisure, the increased public pressure for accountability, the development of new forms of educational and information technology, and the broadening role of the primary teacher. In combination they represent an overwhelming pressure for improvement by all practitioners, even the many who already manifest a high degree of skill in the classroom. In the nineteenth century, teacher training institutions were known as 'normal schools' on the grounds that there was some single 'norm' endorsed by society. Today the factors mentioned above require levels of skill, understanding, imagination, and resilience from teachers which go infinitely beyond the rudimentary common sense and mechanical competence fostered by the normal schools of the last century. The implications for teachers are clear. There is so much to know and understand, so if you cannot know everything, you must know something. Hence the many efforts made either at regional or national level to determine the *content* of education - what children of a particular age or level of ability ought to learn - or by teachers themselves at local level to shape and implement a coherent curriculum. Secondly, if you cannot know or learn everything, you must be able to find out for yourself, and this is why the *process* of learning has become important, as well as, though not instead of, the content. Thirdly, since their pupils can acquire only a tiny fraction of the knowledge and skills currently available to humanity, teachers must develop teaching strategies which not only transmit information, but also encourage children to learn independently and as a member of a group. Citizens in the twenty-first century are more likely to be therefore, is a direct result of the interpersonal skills of the teacher, who usually sets the tone in a class, or has to take the initiative to improve relationships should they go awry. A notion of effective teaching that embraced only the transmission of knowledge would be a poor one in such a context. Furthermore in the twenty-first century many people will work in service industries, and others will run small businesses. This shift out of the factory and into closer contact with people, rather than machinery, requires a high degree of imagination, inventiveness, drive and interpersonal skills. Again a sound basis for those qualities can be established in good primary schools, and teachers who nurture them should be greatly valued.

The teacher attempting to teach the topic 'Insects' to a primary class fifty years ago would not have been compared with anyone other than another teacher. Today she will be compared with the finest television presenters in the world, whose program on insects enjoy multi-million pound budgets and access to the very best of wildlife film available. Even if the quality of teaching improves, it may not improve far or fast enough to match the escalating demands on teachers.

The public debate about teaching effectiveness has too often been over-simplified and caricatured as 'traditional' versus 'progressive', 'formal' versus 'informal', 'phonics' versus

real books when the reality of classroom life is that many teachers prefer to use a mixture of methods rather than fill out a single stereotype. In the workbooks on professional skills which we have produced during the Leverhulme Primary Project, such as *Class Management* (Wragg 1993), *Questioning* (Brown and Wragg 1993) and *Explaining* (Wragg and Brown 1993), trainee and experienced teachers are encouraged to analyze and determine their own teaching strategies, rather than merely copy someone else's preferences. There is less dissent about what constitutes effective teaching in discussion between people outside the profession than there is in the research and evaluation literature. Good teachers, it is commonly held, are keen and enthusiastic, well organized, firm but fair, stimulating, know their stuff, and are interested in the welfare of their pupils. Few would attempt to defend the converse: that good teachers are unenthusiastic, boring, unfair, ignorant, and do not care about their pupils. Once the scrutiny of teaching is translated into the more precise terms demanded by the tenets of rigorous systematic enquiry, the easy agreement of casual conversation evaporates. Biddle and Ellena (1964), reporting the Kansas City role studies, found that there was not even clear agreement amongst teachers, parents and administrators about the role teachers should play. However, it is nonetheless well worth considering what appears to be the *outcomes* of teaching. If a school is effective, then probably most or all the teachers who work in it will be effective also. This raises questions, therefore, like 'What do children actually learn?' and 'What do teachers do that appears to help pupils to learn?'

ACTIVITY 1

1 As an individual or member of a group, write down a list of things that you hope children will learn in your class/school.

2 Look at your own list and put alongside it a word or two which you feel describes the category of learning involved, e.g. 'Children enjoy coming to school' (emotions), 'Children learn to read a range of books' (reading/language/knowledge), 'children learn to wait their turn, share and be a positive member of a group' (relationships/social behavior).

3 Compare your list with those of others, if possible. Are there common features, or do you disagree amongst yourselves? If so, about what?

4 Select one or two areas where there seems to be some agreement about importance and discuss what individual teachers and the staff as a whole can do to improve effectiveness in these fields.

In the 1970s and 1980s some of the attempts to find a consensus in the research literature were criticized. For example, Gage (1978), summarizing research studies which had attempted to relate what teachers did to what pupils actually learned, concluded that in the early years of schooling certain kinds of teacher behavior did show some consistent relationship to children learning reading and arithmetic. From this he derived a set of prescriptive 'Teacher should' statements like 'Teachers should call on a child by name before asking the question' 'Teachers should keep to a minimum such activities as giving directions and organizing the class for instruction' or 'During reading-group instruction, teachers should give a maximal amount of brief feedback and provide fast paced activities of the 'drill' type.' Among the criticism of prescriptions based on summaries of recent findings are: the proposition that much American work in particular is based on short-term tests of memory; that formal didactic styles of teaching often show up better on short-term measures and could, therefore, easily be perpetuated; that the 'gains' of method A compared with method B are often slight. This last argument is skillfully countered by Gage (1985) in his book *Hard Gains in the Soft Sciences*. He shows how significant policy decisions, in fields such as medicine and public health, are often made on a degree of statistical 'superiority' that would receive little attention in educational research. He quotes examples of trials of beta blockers and low cholesterol diets to reduce the incidence of heart attacks, which showed only 2.5 and 1.7 per cent differences respectively between experimental and control groups' mortality rates, but which nonetheless led to significant changes in public health policy and practice. Doyle (1978) observed that reviewers of research into teacher effectiveness 'have concluded, with remarkable regularity, that few consistent relationships between teacher variables and effectiveness can be established' The difficulty of

identifying and evaluating teaching skills and their effectiveness is neatly illustrated by an interesting experiment at the University of Michigan. Guetzkow *et al.* (1954) divided first-year students on a general psychology course into three groups. The first group was given a formal lecture course with regular tests, the second and third groups took part in tutorials and discussions. At the end of the course the lecture group out-performed the tutorial discussion groups on the final examination, and the course was also more favorably rated by the students. So far, this represents a victory for lecturing and testing on two commonly used criteria: test performance and student appraisal. The investigators discovered, however, that the students in the discussion groups scored significantly higher than the lecture groups on a measure of interest in psychology, the subject being studied. They hypothesized that though the lecture group students gave a favorable rating of the teaching they had received, this may have been because they had less anxiety about grades for the course through their weekly feedback from test scores. It was decided to monitor the subsequent progress of all the groups. Three years later not one student in the lecture group had opted to study the subject further, but fourteen members of the two discussion and tutorial groups had chosen to major in psychology. Thus, on short-term criteria the lecture method was superior, but taking a longer perspective the discussion method appeared to motivate students more powerfully, and ultimately some must have learned a great deal more. Defining effectiveness in such a way that all would agree, therefore, is not a simple matter. If we were to say that being effective is, in practice, whatever teachers do to enable children to learn, then most people would rule out intimidation, humiliation, the use of corporal punishment or other forms of teacher behavior of which they personally happen to disapprove. It is perhaps easier when seeking a definition to describe some of the characteristics of effective teaching which might win some degree of consensus, though not universal agreement.



The first might be that the behavior concerned facilitates pupils' learning of something worthwhile such as facts, skills, values, concepts, how to live harmoniously with one's fellows, or some other outcome thought to be desirable. The notion of something being worthwhile brings together both content and values in teaching. Skill is not a one-dimensional concept.

Teaching someone to steal might in one sense be skillfully done but it would attract professional odium rather than admiration. A second feature of effective teaching, therefore, is that the skill concerned is acknowledged to be a skill by those competent to judge, and this might include teachers, teacher trainers, inspectors, advisers and learners themselves. For them to be a recognized part of a teacher's professional effectiveness, skills should also be capable of being repeated, not perhaps in exactly the same form, but as a fairly frequent rather than a single chance occurrence. A chimpanzee might randomly produce an attractive colorful shape once in a while; given a brush and some paint, but an artist would produce a skillfully conceived painting on a more regular basis. Teachers who possess professional skills, therefore, should be capable of manifesting these consistently, not on a hit-or-miss basis.

Uncertainty about the proper standing of the notion of effectiveness when applied to teaching is partly explained by the varied nature of the teacher's job. Pressing the right button on a tape recorder, or writing legibly on the blackboard, require but modest competence, and are things most people could learn with only a little practice. Responding to a disruptive 10-year old, or knowing how to explain a difficult concept to children of different ages and abilities by choosing the right language register, appropriate examples and analogies, and reading the many cues which signal understanding or bewilderment, require years of practice as well as considerable intelligence and insight.

When children learn something, there is often a magical quality about the excitement of discovery, the warmth of regard between teacher and taught, or the novelty to the learner of what is taking place, and the romanticism seems to be destroyed if teaching is seen as too deliberate, calculated, manipulated or over-analyzed. However, it is possible for teachers, both individually and as a group of colleagues, to analyze what they are doing in a systematic way, and in the rest of this workbook we explore some of the ways of doing that. The first might be that the behavior concerned facilitates pupils' learning of something worthwhile such as facts, skills, values, concepts, how to live harmoniously with one's fellows, or some other outcome thought to be desirable. The notion of something being worthwhile brings together both content and values in teaching. Skill is not a one-dimensional concept.

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Questions:

- ✚ What are the original considerations on developing a general teaching method?
- ✚ The question of integrating content and language?
- ✚ What is a repertoire of speech?
- ✚ What are academic interaction skills?
- ✚ What is effective teaching? Original considerations on developing a general teaching method

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Lecture Five. Integrated listening

Plan:

- ✚ Integrating listening skill
- ✚ How to assess listening?
- ✚ Things teachers should do
- ✚ Common European Framework
- ✚ Portfolios in FLT
- ✚ Encouraging students to listen outside the classroom

Integrating listening skill

As we have seen in previous chapters, the four skills - reading, writing, speaking and listening - rarely take place in isolation. What would writers be without readers? Even private diaries are read, perhaps years later, by their own writers. What would speakers be without listeners? Here is one answer to that question: when Britain's Prince Charles admitted that he spoke regularly to his plants, some British newspapers concluded, not altogether seriously, that he was mad. The majority of EFL and ESL lessons, certainly in general English classes, incorporate all four of the skills, plus grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, in varying patterns and ratios. Classes may take the form of speak-listen-speak or speak-read-write-speak or read-vocabulary-speak or, in some cases, grammar-grammar-grammar. Sometimes the lesson may focus almost exclusively on one skill or aspect of the language. For example, if you are preparing a class for a written exam, it may be valid to have the students writing for a large chunk of the lesson. Furthermore, there are program- in many intensive English courses in US universities, for instance - which separate the skills into listening classes, speaking classes, writing classes, and so on. Here we will argue that a balance of skills is desirable for any one lesson, and that the teaching of listening is more effective when integrated with other skills.

The strongest arguments for an integrated skills approach are that it prepares us best for what we will encounter outside the classroom, and it allows more variety as a way of approaching language learning. You can't learn to write without reading, and you can't learn to speak without listening. If you want to take an exam in listening, you will almost certainly have to *read* some questions, *write* the answers, and maybe even *speak* about the passage you heard. Even in non-exam situations, the tasks we ask our students to perform in class often require more than one skill. All of the activities are based on listening, but the emphasis varies; in some, the students may spend more time speaking used is extended listening, something we will discuss later in this chapter. In considering the integration of the skills, we need to examine the difference between

the listening lesson and listening in the lesson. The former aims to improve the students' listening only. It incorporates strategy training, whether overtly or covertly, and will probably contain an element of troubleshooting - examining those problematical areas where listening becomes difficult. Any other benefits - acquired vocabulary and grammar, for example - are incidental. In other words, the focus is purely on the listening skill.

Listening in the lesson entails using a recording or listening to the teacher or other speakers to elaborate on a given topic; it may serve as a context for the target grammar or vocabulary; or as a model for speaking. What it will not do is focus *in depth* on the skill of listening. Having outlined the differences between these types of lesson, we should be aware that the boundaries between them are often blurred, and even non-listening lessons will inevitably benefit our students' listening. Learning new grammar and vocabulary improves listening because it allows the students to broaden the range of input that is comprehensible to them. Improved reading also benefits listeners, as the inner voice pronounces the words and the students develop their vocabulary and awareness of discourse patterns. Of all the skills, that complement listening, pronunciation has arguably the closest link. Every focus on every aspect of pronunciation is also a focus on listening. Students need to know the way sounds change in connected speech - elision, assimilation (see Chapter 1) - in order to improve their listening as well as their speaking. Sensitivity to rhythm and stress patterns - traditionally seen as aspects of pronunciation - is vital for listeners. Approximately 80 per cent of multi syllable content words in English are stressed on the first syllable. Native listeners use this knowledge subconsciously to perceive word boundaries - where words begin and end. This perception may not be available to nonnative listeners unless they have a strong affinity with the rhythms of English. From before we are born, we hear, and possibly feel, the rhythms of our native language. Thereafter, we often subconsciously assume that this rhythm fits all languages. It doesn't. In English, the stressed syllables are up to three times as long as the unstressed syllables. In Italian and Spanish, the stressed syllables are only 1.5 times as long as the unstressed. For this reason, much early teaching of listening and pronunciation needs to be concerned with getting students used to the rhythm of English by highlighting stress. Many of the difficulties that native speakers experience in understanding speakers whose first language is not English lie less in the production of individual sounds than in the fact that the latter have not mastered the language's rhythm.

In addition to these two points - rhythm, and the way sounds change in connected speech - intonation is also a listening issue. It affects the meaning of an utterance. For example, intonation alerts us to the mood or attitude of the speaker, and also tells us, via a falling pitch, when the speaker has finished.

In summary, the many facets of pronunciation affect our ability to listen and comprehend. It follows logically that the teaching of pronunciation and listening needs to be integrated. In Chapter 1 we mentioned Multiple Intelligences theory and the importance of balancing the skills. By using a variety of skills in the classroom, we increase the likelihood of our lessons catering to all of our students with their diverse intelligences. The shy, silent student who completes grammar exercises faultlessly (logical-mathematical intelligence) will learn best during the stage in which the class focuses on grammar rules. Students with interpersonal intelligence, who tend to be fluent but inaccurate, will benefit particularly from the speaking stages of the lesson because they learn by interacting. If we cater for only one skill, boredom will set in for many students, but if we use a variety, everyone will be interested at least some of the time. Teachers are well-advised to investigate, in the light of Multiple Intelligences theory, how their students like to learn. This can be done through questionnaires or simple observation of the students during different activities. The integration of skills is a subject that surfaces when we try to assess our students' listening ability.

How to assess listening?

Different types of assessment include **placement tests**, **progress tests**, and **achievement tests** (testing what has been learned over a period of time) and **proficiency tests** (measuring overall ability). It is likely that, at some stage of their career, teachers will be involved in preparing

students for at least some of these. In any discussion of assessment, we need to make a distinction: on the one hand there is the type of assessment that is ongoing and takes place informally every time students engage in listening. This is sometimes called **formative assessment**. It is process-oriented, and designed as a diagnostic tool to help the students to improve. On the other hand, there is **summative assessment**, which is the type required by schools, colleges and governments. It is formal and results-oriented in that the students always receive a grade. In a rather useful analogy, one article states that: "When the cook tastes the soup, that's formative assessment; when the customer tastes the soup, that's summative assessment." Here, for clarity, we will refer to the more formal type as testing, and the ongoing type as assessment. Let us deal with testing first.

It is very difficult to test listening without bringing other skills into play. If we ask our students to discuss a listening passage, their errors may reflect lack of speaking proficiency rather than a failure to comprehend. It is then unfair to assign low grades for a listening test when the student's problem lies in a different skill. This is an issue related to a test's **validity**. Validity concerns the use and interpretation of the test. Imagine asking our students to listen to a ten-second radio advertisement and then telling them to write a three-page essay on advertising. If we then grade the essay and use the score to place our students *in a listening class*, this is not valid because the students only listened for ten seconds. Validity, then, is concerned with whether the exam really tests what it is supposed to test.

The other important factor in testing is **reliability**, the certainty that the test will produce consistent results no matter who is marking it or what mood they are in. Testing is an extremely complex process. There are many variables which make it so, and validity and reliability are far from easy to achieve. The factors that can make listening difficult, which we discussed in Chapter 1 - the message, the delivery, the listener and the environment - may, in some cases, be described as the factors that make listening tests *unfair*. Take cultural issues included in the message, for example. If the listening passage discusses topics which the students know nothing about, the problem is not listening but background knowledge. Or a student may understand the passage well enough but not the questions that accompany it. Is this a listening problem or a reading problem?

Furthermore, there is almost always a delicate balance between testing listening ability and testing memory. Imagine you attended a lecture on the winners of the Nobel Prize for Literature, and were asked afterwards to name their birthplaces (mentioned by the lecturer), you would probably fail. Does this mean you didn't understand the lecture? No. It means you couldn't remember such details. Tests need to focus on what is relevant rather than asking students to recall incidental facts. The nature of the task is, of course, crucial. As explained in Chapter 5, nonverbal responses, such as true/false questions and multiple choice, take less time for students to complete and ensure little distraction from actual listening. This type of task also allows large numbers of items, a factor which increases the reliability of the test. The drawback is that, with true/false items, the students might guess and get lucky. In fact, they have a 50 per cent chance of this! With multiple-choice questions, there is less chance of this as there are usually three **distractors** (wrong options). The problem with this, however, is that multiple-choice questions require the students to hold four possibilities in their heads while listening. As such, the distractors need to be kept as short as possible.

With productive responses, the likelihood of a lucky guess is smaller, but the task demands ability in two skills, not one. There is also a heavier load on memory when students need to produce something related to the passage. A further problem concerns the grading of productive responses: it is more difficult for teachers/testers because there are other criteria involved apart from correct or incorrect answers. These criteria include accuracy in terms of grammar and vocabulary, use of the conventions of spelling and punctuation, and possibly the use of the student's imagination. All of these need to be taken into consideration when the teacher/marker is grading the response, and none is strictly a listening phenomenon. There are also partially correct answers to consider, as well as the thoroughness and extent of the response. What one

tester regards as 'a full answer' another might describe as 'waffle' - saying or writing too much that is of too little consequence. Between these poles - multiple choice and written response - lies what is possibly the best listening task for a test: a very short written answer. Sentence completion can also be effective, particularly if the answer consists of no more than a few words. Most teachers do not have to write listening tests. There are a number of exam boards, such as those administering the CAMBRIDGE, IELTS, TOEFL and TOEIC exams, which do this for us. But during our careers there is every likelihood that we will have to teach exam classes. For this reason we will now look at some ways to prepare students for listening tests. The first thing we need to consider is the fact that listening tests are regarded with trepidation and sometimes outright fear by students (Jeremy Harmer describes summative tests as 'sudden death' events). We have already discussed at length the reasons for this: lack of control over input, lack of interaction due to the unavailability of the speaker, and the real-time speed of listening which, unlike reading, allows no opportunity to go back and check. Tests also prohibit collaboration with other students, and usually the listeners are allowed to hear the passage only once or twice. The strategies and skills that we teach our students for general listening are also applicable to these issues in exam contexts. However, because of the psychological factor and the specific nature of test formats, we need to prepare our students in a number of ways that would not be necessary in a general English class. Here are a few ideas for teachers and students.

Things teachers should do

É Make sure the students know exactly what is in the test: the number of passages they will listen to and the approximate length, the type of questions they will answer, and how many times the recording will be played.

É Prepare the students for the types of topics that occur and make sure they have mastered the basic vocabulary pertaining to these topics.

É Make sure the students know administrative issues such as where they will write their answers and how long the whole test will last.

É Do several practice tests, preferably in the same room in which the real test will take place. If possible, set up the room as it will be for the test.

É Include an easy initial question to increase confidence and allow the students to 'tune in' to the speakers.

É Go over the answers in the practice test in order to demystify the exam. Get students to justify their answers, including their correct ones. The question remains: how can I teach the strategies listed above? One way is to 'take a recording for a walk'. This follows a process used by researchers called a **think-aloud** listening in the wider context **protocol** (during the activity, the participants talk about how they are solving a task). The version suggested here involves pausing a recording at certain points and talking about how you are dealing with it in relation to the exam questions. Here are some of the things you might say:

*The speaker mentioned cowboys. What country might she be talking about? Maybe the US. Let's hear a bit more. She said guns. That word has a similar meaning to a word in the question. What word is that? Ah, yes, weapons. The speaker just said 'on the one hand'. She's going to give an opinion and then what will she say? She'll say 'on the other hand'. What comes after 'on the other hand'? A contrasting opinion. Rather than 'thinking aloud', some teachers may prefer to elicit answers and ways to deal with the passage from the students themselves. Taking a recording for a walk is a way of showing the students strategies in action. It requires practice and a fair amount of confidence, but the benefits can be long-lasting if the students get into the habit of asking similar questions. Another tip for teaching strategies is to name them, using a maximum of three words. On occasions when a particular strategy is necessary, remind the students, using the name. For example, if the practice test is about to begin and one student is busy combing his hair, pen resting on desk, we might say *Get ready!**

We began our discussion of assessment by describing two types: formal testing and ongoing assessment. Let's move on to the latter. One useful tool for ongoing assessment comes courtesy

of the **Common European Framework**, a brainchild of the Council of Europe. The Council is an intergovernmental body concerned with describing and standardizing the proficiency levels of learners of foreign languages. The Common European Framework's "Can do" statements are a checklist of abilities connected with the skills. These statements describe exactly what students at six different levels of proficiency should be able to do in terms of the foreign language. By differentiating the **sub-skills**, the statements allow a more precise assessment of a student's listening skills, rather than simply a general listening grade. For example, under the heading *Overall Listening Comprehension, level A1* (the lowest) is the following descriptor:
Can follow speech which is very slow and carefully articulated, with long pauses for him/her to assimilate meaning.

At B1 level (intermediate), the student:

can understand straightforward factual information about common everyday or job related topics, identifying both general messages and specific details, provided speech is clearly articulated in a generally familiar accent. and: can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. including short narratives.

At C2, the highest level, a student:

has no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language, whether live or broadcast, delivered as fast native speed.

Using these descriptors can provide clear goals and show students their progress. Using them, however, is far from straightforward. Training is required. Student and teacher need to discuss and negotiate levels of achievement as there are many grey areas in which it may not be clear what the student can do. Things we can do in the controlled environment of the classroom are often not so simple outside the classroom when we are under pressure and lacking the frameworks that language learning pedagogy provides (the pre-listening activity, the transcript, the sympathetic teacher).

Portfolio

Another tool in our assessment box is the **portfolio**. The language student's portfolio comprises a record of his or her work in the target language, including examples such as essays and projects, which are kept in a folder or file. How can listeners keep records of their achievements? They can put the following in their portfolio: recordings, transcripts of conversations involving the students, lists and summaries of program and films watched, transcripts of songs learned.

Portfolios are best used as a spur to discussion. The teacher and student should look through the portfolio together at least once a term and talk about the student's progress. While the teacher may be aware of the student's in-class development, the portfolio should give a broader view. It also presents a chance to compare the student's work now and in the past, a valuable asset particularly for long-term students. Long-term assessment of listening abilities is difficult because of all the variables: our students' listening may be good one day and poor the next simply because of their mood or the topic or the weather (or those builders next door). Besides formal testing, how can we tell if our students are progressing? Perhaps it will be helpful to consider a number of stages that students go through in their listening development. Because listening happens in the mind, it is usually very difficult to detect when students pass from one stage to another. Many teachers, however, will recognize the criteria, the tendencies and even some of the comments described below.

How can teachers use such a list? It is not a question of ticking boxes or trying to provide a syllabus that contains all of these ideas. It is more a case of being aware of the student's changing responses to input during the course. Teachers may also try to encourage some of the responses in the column on the right, using techniques such as eliciting during the post-listening stage and journal writing (students write about their studies and feelings towards language learning).

Self-assessment

In the long term, one of the most important types of assessment is self-assessment. This will allow the learner to work independently and make progress outside the classroom environment. There are three basic elements that need to be assessed: 1) goals - what the student ultimately needs to achieve; 2) current level of ability in relation to these goals - what the student can do now; and 3) the options, techniques and strategies available to bridge the gap between 1) and 2). The idea of self-assessment is problematic. Firstly, there is the question of capability: whether the students are able to assess themselves with a degree of validity and reliability. To answer this, we will look at research findings. Blanche and Merino, from a survey of twenty one self-assessment studies, claim that: "The emerging pattern is one of consistent overall agreement between self-assessments and ratings based on a variety of external criteria. The accuracy of most students' self-estimates often varies depending on the language skills and materials involved in the evaluation ... but these estimates are generally *good* or *very good*!" This suggests that reasonably accurate self-assessment is possible. In truth, accuracy is not the major issue; what we really want is to get our students reflecting on their progress. In most cases concerning language learners, a little self-delusion will not do much harm. There is a second issue, which relates to culture: in rigidly hierarchical societies or contexts in which the teacher is the sole arbiter of grades, the very idea of self-assessment may be rejected. For this issue, informal self-assessment, of the type in which students simply self-monitor but do not assign grades, is one answer.

Encouraging students to listen outside the classroom

Self-assessment is closely linked with learner independence. If students become more autonomous, they can measure their own development and take the necessary steps to improve. Four hours of English lessons per week (the average in many contexts) is not enough, particularly when it comes to the difficulties of listening. Recent technological developments, such as web quests - structured projects using listening texts and downloads on the Internet - allow students access to listening material, but they may need training in what to do with it. To this end, students might benefit from frameworks or generic tasks. These might include writing down words they understood, writing a summary or completing a Who/Where/What/When chart (see page 120). There might also be a link to critical thinking; you could ask the students to listen/watch and rate the content, something that is done already on www.youtube.com, one of the world's most popular websites. YouTube is a useful resource in that it allows anyone to post their video clips. As a result, there is an enormous choice, and many are accessible. In fact, the choice on the net may be bewildering. One solution is to do some "flood listening". Flood listening consists of students choosing one topic and listening to everything they can find about it (they get a flood of input). Naturally, the students will choose either something they are interested in or a topic they need to research for academic purposes. An incidental benefit of flood listening is that certain words and expressions will keep recurring - an excellent aid to vocabulary acquisition. Clips and downloads from the Internet tend to be short. Of greater benefit in the long term is the habit of listening to extended texts such as stories. Extensive listening is a highly effective way to develop listening skills outside the classroom. There are a number of characteristics which mark it off from other listening exercises and make it so valuable. These include authenticity, pleasure and choice. A good story is a good story in any language, and there are many readers (books graded by linguistic difficulty) available on the market with an audio component. While these recordings are excellent starting points for extensive listening as their content is tailored for specific levels, radio plays are a potentially rich source of input for more advanced students. Another aspect of the authenticity of extensive listening lies in the listener's task. Generally speaking, there isn't one. The listener listens for pleasure. Listening proficiency comes about largely because some of the processes have become automatized - in other words, the students have begun to use the same listening skills and strategies as LI listeners do: ignoring irrelevant details, not worrying about understanding every word, anticipating with the aid of context, etc.

These developments tend to happen very gradually for anyone above the age of eleven or twelve. Young children in the process of acquiring a second language through immersion (by being surrounded by L2 speakers), supposed to learning a language (only taking lessons in L2), go through a silent period before suddenly being able to speak and listen, often as proficiently as native speakers. For most adults, whether immersed in L2 or not, the process is different. There is no Eureka moment. Listening development moves at a similar pace to that of the other skills and the acquisition of grammar and vocabulary. Where children have an advantage is in the long silent period in which they are not pushed to respond, and in their exposure to massive quantities of input. This is where extensive listening plays its part; it is input to which the listener does not have to respond productively.

Self-access and listening in the language lab

For students who wish to practice their listening independently, one of the best places to start is the self-access center of their school or university. According to Gardner and Miller, Self-access language learning is an approach to learning language, not an approach to teaching language. This describes one of the most important features of self-access - it is learner-centered. A good self-access center should contain most or all of the following listening materials: a bank of graded recordings plus transcripts and photocopied worksheets with answer keys; daily radio news accompanied by worksheets and transcripts; extensive listening in the form of recordings of stories, perhaps from graded readers; exam material; a wide variety of recordings from authentic sources such as the BBC; and a real live human being at least some of the time! The latter may be there to advise, point students towards suitable materials, and provide some real-life listening practice.

Language laboratories have traditionally been places where students practice language drills. *Drill* has two meanings; the first is repeated practice, the second is a tool used for boring. The language lab has been a venue for both over the years! However, with the current emphasis on student autonomy and independent learning, the lab has great potential for L2 listeners. One of its great benefits is that it allows students to work at their own pace and to repeat recordings as often as necessary. The standard procedure in the lab is no different from that of classroom listening. However, the fact that the students are working alone presents certain opportunities. The students who finish the task quickly can do a number of things with the recording, such as transcribing, shadow reading and marking the stress on a transcript. In addition to the many activities in earlier chapters of the book that work well in the language laboratory, here are two more ideas:

Story swap: the students record themselves telling a story or anecdote from their lives on one console. A sheet of paper is placed at every console, and the students are put in groups of four. They listen to each other's stories by moving to different consoles. While listening, the students think of two follow-up questions to ask the storyteller, and write them on the paper, which is not removed from the console. They change consoles again, listen to another story and add two more questions (different from those already on the sheet) about this second story. The procedure continues until all four students in each group have listened to the four stories and written their questions. They then get in their groups and answer the questions about their story.

Listen and read aloud: the students are given a transcript of the recording. They simply read aloud at the same pace, with the same pauses, as the speaker. After several attempts they can record themselves over the original speaker. This task is excellent for practicing the rhythm and speed of English, but it is harder than one imagines! Normal, natural speed for a native speaker is extremely fast for a student, even if the student knows the passage and understands it perfectly. The exercise teaches students to process language in terms of thought groups or units of information rather than individual words. Thought groups are usually chunked - said without pauses - so the students also have to speed up in order to keep up. Another benefit is that the exercise alerts students to many pronunciation features such as contractions and elision. A final comment about self-access and the language lab: students and teachers will probably need an

induction to both. They need to know what is available, when it's available and how to use it. This should happen as early as possible in the course.

Questions:

- What do you know about integrating listening skill?
- How to assess listening?
- What should teachers do?
- What is a Common European Framework?
- How to organize portfolios in FLT?
- How to encourage students to listen outside the classroom?

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Lecture Six. Develop speaking skill. Oral speech and its mechanisms.

Plan:

- ✚ The process and hypothetical theories of developing oral speech.
- ✚ Inputting information and producing a speech.
- ✚ Dialogue. Monologue. Speaking vocabulary.
- ✚ The problems in developing speaking skill.
- ✚ The connection of speaking skill with other skills.
- ✚ The role of learner condition in developing oral speech.
- ✚ Natural and unnatural speech condition. Using gestures in forming dialogue and other forms of speech.

Basic words:

- Hypothetic ó based on situation that is not real
- Gesture- a movement of part of your body, especially hands and face
- Comprehend- to understand something that is complicated
- Scripts- the written form of speech
- Stimulate- to encourage or help an activity to begin or to develop

The process and hypothetical theories of developing oral speech. Many language learners regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. These learners define fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. They regard speaking as the most important skill they can acquire, and they assess their progress in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication. Language learners need to recognize that speaking involves three areas of knowledge:

- Mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary): Using the right words in the right order with the correct pronunciation
- Functions (transaction and interaction): Knowing when clarity of message is essential (transaction/information exchange) and when precise understanding is not required (interaction/relationship building)
- Social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants): Understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason.

In the communicative model of language teaching, instructors help their students develop this body of knowledge by providing authentic practice that prepares students for real-life communication situations. They help their students develop the ability to produce grammatically correct, logically connected sentences that are appropriate to specific contexts, and to do so using acceptable (that is, comprehensible) pronunciation.

The goal of teaching speaking skills is communicative efficiency. Learners should be able to make themselves understood, using their current proficiency to the fullest. They should try to avoid confusion in the message due to faulty pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary, and to observe the social and cultural rules that apply in each communication situation. To help students develop communicative efficiency in speaking, instructors can use a balanced activities approach that combines language input, structured output, and communicative output.

Inputting information and producing a speech. *Language input* comes in the form of teacher talk, listening activities, reading passages, and the language heard and read outside of class. It gives learners the material they need to begin producing language themselves. Language input may be content oriented or form oriented. In *communicative output*, the learners' main purpose is to complete a task, such as obtaining information, developing a travel plan, or creating a video. To complete the task, they may use the language that the instructor has just presented, but they also may draw on any other vocabulary, grammar, and communication strategies that they know. In communicative output activities, the criterion of success is whether the learner gets the message across. Accuracy is not a consideration unless the lack of it interferes with the message. In everyday communication, spoken exchanges take place because there is some sort of information gap between the participants. Communicative output activities involve a similar real information gap. In order to complete the task, students must reduce or eliminate the information gap. In these activities, language is a tool, not an end in itself. In a balanced activities approach, the teacher uses a variety of activities from these different categories of input and output. Learners at all proficiency levels, including beginners, benefit from this variety; it is more motivating, and it is also more likely to result in effective language learning.

STRATEGIES FOR DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Students often think that the ability to speak a language is the product of language learning, but speaking is also a crucial part of the language learning process. Effective instructors teach students speaking strategies -- using minimal responses, recognizing scripts, and using language to talk about language -- that they can use to help themselves expand their knowledge of the language and their confidence in using it. These instructors help students learn to speak so that the students can use speaking to learn.

1. Using minimal responses.

Language learners who lack confidence in their ability to participate successfully in oral interaction often listen in silence while others do the talking. One way to encourage such learners to begin to participate is to help them build up a stock of minimal responses that they can use in different types of exchanges. Such responses can be especially useful for beginners. Minimal responses are predictable, often idiomatic phrases that conversation participants use to indicate understanding, agreement, doubt, and other responses to what another speaker is saying. Having a stock of such responses enables a learner to focus on what the other participant is saying, without having to simultaneously plan a response.

2. Recognizing scripts. Some communication situations are associated with a predictable set of spoken exchanges -- a script. Greetings, apologies, compliments, invitations, and other functions that are influenced by social and cultural norms often follow patterns or scripts. So do the transactional exchanges involved in activities such as obtaining information and making a purchase. In these scripts, the relationship between a speaker's turn and the one that follows it can often be anticipated.

Instructors can help students develop speaking ability by making them aware of the scripts for different situations so that they can predict what they will hear and what they will need to say in response. Through interactive activities, instructors can give students practice in managing and varying the language that different scripts contain.

3. Using language to talk about language

Language learners are often too embarrassed or shy to say anything when they do not understand another speaker or when they realize that a conversation partner has not understood them. Instructors can help students overcome this reticence by assuring them that misunderstanding and the need for clarification can occur in any type of interaction, whatever the participants' language skill levels. Instructors can also give students strategies and phrases to use for clarification and comprehension check. By encouraging students to use clarification phrases in class when misunderstanding occurs and by responding positively when they do, instructors can create an authentic practice environment within the classroom itself. As they develop control of various clarification strategies, students will gain confidence in their ability to manage the various communication situations that they may encounter outside the classroom.

Developing Speaking Activities

Traditional classroom speaking practice often takes the form of drills in which one person asks a question and another gives an answer. The question and the answer are structured and predictable, and often there is only one correct, predetermined answer. The purpose of asking and answering the question is to demonstrate the ability to ask and answer the question. In contrast, the purpose of real communication is to accomplish a task, such as conveying a telephone message, obtaining information, or expressing an opinion. In real communication, participants must manage uncertainty about what the other person will say. Authentic communication involves an information gap; each participant has information that the other does not have. In addition, to achieve their purpose, participants may have to clarify their meaning or ask for confirmation of their own understanding.

To create classroom speaking activities that will develop communicative competence, instructors need to incorporate a purpose and an information gap and allow for multiple forms of expression. However, quantity alone will not necessarily produce competent speakers. Instructors need to combine structured two common kinds of structured output activities are *information gap* and *jigsaw* activities. In both these types of activities, students complete a task by obtaining missing information, a feature the activities have in common with real communication. However, information gap and jigsaw activities also set up practice on specific items of language. In this respect they are more like drills than like communication.

Information Gap Activities filling the gaps in a schedule or timetable: Partner A holds an airline timetable with some of the arrival and departure times missing. Partner B has the same timetable but with different blank spaces. The two partners are not permitted to see each other's timetables and must fill in the blanks by asking each other appropriate questions. The features of language that are practiced would include questions beginning with "when" or "at what time." Answers would be limited mostly to time expressions like "at 8:15" or "at ten in the evening."

Completing the picture: The two partners have similar pictures, each with different missing details, and they cooperate to find all the missing details. In another variation, no items are missing, but similar items differ in appearance. For example, in one picture, a man walking along the street may be wearing an overcoat, while in the other the man is wearing a jacket. The features of grammar and vocabulary that are practiced are determined by the content of the pictures and the items that are missing or different. Differences in the activities depicted lead to practice of different verbs.

Communicative Output Activities. Communicative output activities allow students to practice using all of the language they know in situations that resemble real settings. In these activities, students must work together to develop a plan, resolve a problem, or complete a task. The most common types of communicative output activity are *role plays* and *discussions*. In role plays,

students are assigned roles and put into situations that they may eventually encounter outside the classroom. Because role plays imitate life, the range of language functions that may be used expands considerably. Also, the role relationships among the students as they play their parts call for them to practice and develop their sociolinguistic competence. They have to use language that is appropriate to the situation and to the characters. Students usually find role playing enjoyable, but students who lack self-confidence or have lower proficiency levels may find them intimidating at first. To succeed with role plays:

- Prepare carefully: Introduce the activity by describing the situation and making sure that all of the students understand it
- Set a goal or outcome: Be sure the students understand what the product of the role play should be, whether a plan, a schedule, a group opinion, or some other product
- Use role cards: Give each student a card that describes the person or role to be played. For lower-level students, the cards can include words or expressions that that person might use.

Dialogue. Monologue. Speaking vocabulary.

Language came into life as a means of communication. It exists and is alive only through speech. When we speak about teaching a foreign language, we first of all have in mind teaching it as a means of communication. In teaching speech the teacher has to cope with two tasks. They are: to teach his pupils to understand the foreign language and to teach them to speak the language. So, speech is a bilateral process. It includes hearing, on the one hand, and speaking, on the other. When we say "hearing" we mean ausing or listening and comprehension. Speaking exists in two forms: **dialogue and monologue.**

Prepared and unprepared speech

Pupils' speech in both forms may be of two kinds: prepared and unprepared. It is considered prepared when the pupil has been given time enough to think over its content and form. He can speak on the subject following the plan made either independently at home or in class under the teacher's supervision. His speech will be more or less correct and sufficiently fluent since plenty of preliminary exercises had been done before. In schools, however, pupils often have to speak on a topic when they are not yet prepared for it. As a result only bright pupils can cope with the task. In such a case the teacher trying to find a way out 'gives his pupils a text which covers the topic. Pupils learn and recite it in class. They reproduce the text either in the very form it was given or slightly transform it. Reciting, though useful and necessary in language learning, has but little to do with speech since speaking is a creative activity and is closely connected with thinking, while reciting has to do only with memory. Of course pupils should memorize words, word combinations, phrases, sentence patterns, and texts to "accumulate" the material and still it is only a prerequisite. The main objective of the learner is to be able to use the linguistic material to express his thoughts. This is ensured by the pupil's ability to arrange and rearrange in his own way the material stored up in his memory. Consequently, while assigning homework it is necessary to distinguish between reciting and speaking so that the pupil should know what he is expected to do while preparing for the lesson -- to reproduce the text or to compile a text of his own. His answer should be evaluated differently depending on the task set. If the pupil is to recite a text, the teacher evaluates the quality of reproduction, i. e., exactness, intonation and fluency. If the pupil is to speak on a subject, the teacher evaluates not only the correctness of his speech but his skills in arranging and rearranging the material learnt, i. e., his ability to make various transformations within the material he uses while speaking. The teacher should encourage each pupil to speak on the subject in his own way and thus develop pupils' initiative and thinking.

The pupil's speech is considered unprepared when, without any previous preparation, he can do the following:

-- Speak on a subject suggested by the teacher. For example, winter holidays are over and pupils come back to school. They are invited to tell the teacher and the class how each of them spent his

holidays. Pupils in turn tell the class where they were, what they did, whether they had a good time, and so on.

-- Speak on the text read. For example, pupils have read two or three chapters of "William". The teacher asks a pupil to give its short summary or to tell the class the contents of the chapters as if the other pupils have not read them.

-- Speak on the text heard. For example, pupils listened to the text "Great Britain" (there is a map of Great Britain on the wall). The teacher asks them (in turn) to come up to the map and speak on Great Britain. While speaking pupils can use the information they have just received or appeal to their knowledge about the country.

-- Discuss a problem or problems touched upon in the text read or heard. For example, pupils read about education in Great Britain. After the teacher makes sure that his pupils understand the text and have a certain idea of the system of education in Great Britain, he arranges a discussion on the problem. He asks his pupils to compare the system of education in Great Britain and in our country. The teacher stimulates pupils' speech either by questions or through wrong statements.

-- Have an interview with "a foreigner". For example, pupils are studying the topic "London". The teacher may arrange an interview. One of the pupils is "a Londoner". The classmates ask him various questions and express their opinions on the subjects under discussion.

-- Help a "foreigner", for example, to find the way to the main street or square of the town; or instruct him as to the places of interest in the town. This may be done directly or with the help of "an interpreter".

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

Speech is the spoken production of language and the process through which sounds are produced. Several parts of the body work together to produce sound waves, and this motor production of speech is called articulation. The parts of the vocal tract involved with speech include the lips, tongue, teeth, throat, vocal folds, and lungs. Speech disorders affect the physical mechanisms of communication and cause problems with articulation or phonology.

Language is a system used to represent thoughts and ideas. Language is made up of several rules that explain what words mean, how to make new words, and how to put words together to form sentences. A community must share the same language in order to attach meaning to utterances. Language may be spoken, written, read, or heard. It can also be composed of gestures, as in American Sign Language, or pictures and symbols, such as the Blissymbol communication system. Humans are the only creatures innately capable of using language to discuss an endless number of topics. Language disorders are more difficult to treat and are often developmental, but may also be acquired.

Communication is the exchange of information and ideas through the use of speech and language. The transfer of information is often spoken, but may also be implied through body language or contextual cues such as intonation or hesitation. Usually, communication is a four-step process:

1. Encoding: the speaker creates the message in his mind
2. Transmittal: the speaker sends the message
3. Reception: the listener receives the message
4. Decoding: the listener breaks down the message in his mind

The problems of developing speaking skill.

Auding or listening and comprehension are difficult for learners because they should discriminate speech sounds quickly, retain them while hearing a word, a phrase, or a sentence and recognize this as a sense unit. Pupils can easily and naturally do this in their own language and they cannot do this in a foreign language when they start learning the language. Pupils are very slow in grasping what they hear because they are conscious of the linguistic forms they

perceive by the ear. This results in misunderstanding or a complete failure of understanding. When auditing a foreign language pupils should be very attentive and think hard. They should strain their memory and will power to keep the sequence of sounds they hear and to decode it. Not all the pupils can cope with the difficulties entailed. The teacher should help them by making this work easier and more interesting. This is possible on condition that he will take into consideration the following three main factors which can ensure success in developing pupils' skills in auditing: (1) linguistic material for auditing; (2) the content of the material suggested for listening and comprehension; (3) conditions in which the material is presented.

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

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

The topic of communication: whether it is within the ability of the pupils to understand, and what difficulties pupils will come across (proper names, geographical names, terminology, etc). The type of communication: whether it is a description or a narration. Description as a type of communication is less emotional and interesting, that is why it is difficult for the teacher to arouse pupils' interest in auditing such a text. Narration is more interesting for auditing. Consequently, this type of communication should be used for listening comprehension. The context and pupils' readiness (intellectual and situational) to understand it. The way the narrative progresses: whether the passage is taken from the beginning of a story, the nucleus of the story, the progress of the action or, finally, the end of the story. The title of the story may be helpful in comprehending the main idea of the text. The simpler the narrative progresses, the better it is for developing pupils' skills in auditing. The form of communication: whether the text is a dialogue or a monologue. Monologue speech is easier for the learners, therefore, it is preferable for developing pupils' ability to aud.

Natural and unnatural speech condition. Using gestures in forming dialogue and other forms of speech. Conditions of presenting the material are of great importance for teaching auditing, namely: The speed of the speech the pupil is auditing. The hearer cannot change the speed of the speaker. There are different points of view on the problem of the speed of speech in teaching auditing a foreign language. The most convincing is the approach suggested by N. V. Elukhina. She believes that in teaching auditing the tempo should be slower than the normal speed of authentic speech. However this slowness is not gained at the expense of the time required for producing words (that might result in violating the intonation pattern of an utterance), but of the time required for pauses which are so necessary for a pupil to grasp the information of each portion between the pauses. Gradually the teacher shortens the pauses and the tempo of speech becomes normal or approximately normal, which is about 150 words per minute. According to the investigation carried out by L. Tzesarsky the average speed for teaching auditing should be 120 words per minute; the slow speed -- 90 words per minute. The number of times of presenting the material for auditing: whether the pupils should listen to the text once, twice, three times or more. Pupils should be taught to listen to the text once and this must become a habit. However they sometimes can grasp only 50% of the information and even less, so a second presentation may be helpful. In case the pupils cannot grasp most of the information, practice proves that manifold repetitions when hearing do not help much. It is necessary to help pupils in comprehension by using a "feedback" established through a dialogue between the teacher and the class which takes as much time as it is required for the repetitive presentation of the material.

The presence or the absence of the speaker. The most favorable condition is when pupils can see the speaker as is the case when the teacher speaks to them in a foreign language. The most unfavorable condition for auditing is listening and comprehending a dialogue, when pupils cannot see the speakers and do not take part in the conversation. Speaking a foreign language is the most difficult part in language learning because pupils need ample practice in speaking to be able

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

Another factor of no less importance is a psycho-linguistic one; the pupil needs words, phrases, sentence patterns, and grammatical forms and structures stored up in his memory ready to be used for expressing any thought he wants to. In teaching speaking, therefore, the teacher should stimulate his pupils' speech by supplying them with the subject and by teaching them the words and grammar they need to speak about the suggested topic or situation. The teacher should lead his pupils to unprepared speaking through prepared speaking.

Psychological characteristics of speech. The development of speaking follows the same pattern both in the mother tongue and in a foreign language from reception to reproduction as psychologists say, and from hearing to speaking if we express it in terms of methodology. Since "language is not a substance, it is a process." (N. Brooks) and "language doesn't exist. It happens." (P. Stevens), we should know under what conditions "it happens". What are the psychological characteristics of oral language? They are as follows:

1. *Speech must be motivated*, i. e., the speaker expresses a desire to inform the hearer of something interesting, important, or to get information from him. Suppose one of the pupils is talking to a friend of hers. Why is she talking? Because she wants to either tell her friend about something interesting, or get information from her about something important. This is the case of inner motivation. But very often oral speech is motivated outwardly. For instance, the pupil's answers at an examination.

Rule for the teacher: In teaching a foreign language it is necessary to think over the motives which make pupils speak. They should have a necessity to speak and not only a desire to receive a good mark, Ensure conditions in which a pupil will have a desire to say something in the foreign language, to express his thoughts, his feelings, and not to reproduce someone else's as is often the case when he learns the text by heart. Remember that oral speech in the classroom should be always stimulated. Try to use those stimuli which can arouse a pupil's wish to respond in his own way.

2. *Speech is always addressed to an interlocutor.*

Rule for the teacher: Organize the teaching process in a way which allows your pupils to speak to someone, to their classmates in particular, i. e., when speaking a pupil should address the class, and not the teacher or the ceiling as is often the case. When he retells a text which is no longer new to the class, nobody listens to him as the classmates are already familiar with it. This point, as one can see, is closely connected with the previous one. The speaker will hold his audience when he says something new, something individual (personal). Try to supply pupils with assignments which require individual approach on their part.

3. *Speech is always emotionally colored* for a speaker expresses his thoughts, his feelings, his attitude to what he says.

Rule for the teacher: Teach pupils how to use intonation means to express their attitude, their feelings about what they say. That can be done by giving such tasks as: reason why you like the story; prove something; give your opinion on the episode or on the problem concerned, etc.

4. *Speech is always situational* for it takes place in a certain situation.

Rule for the teacher: While teaching speaking real and close-to-real situations should be created to stimulate pupils' speech. Think of the situations you can use in class to make pupils' speech situational. Remember the better you know the class the easier it is for you to create situations

for pupils to speak about. These are the four psychological factors which are to be taken into account when teaching speech.

Linguistic characteristics of speech. Oral language as compared to written language is more flexible. It is relatively free and is characterized by some peculiarities in vocabulary and grammar. Taking into consideration, however, the conditions in which the foreign language is taught in schools, we cannot teach pupils colloquial English. We teach them Standard English as spoken on the radio, TV, etc. Oral language taught in schools is close to written language standards and especially its monologue form. It must be emphasized that a pupil should use short sentences in monologue, sentence patterns which are characteristic of oral language. We need not teach pupils to use long sentences while describing a picture. For example: The boy has a long blue pencil in his left hand. The child may use four sentences instead of one: The boy has a pencil. It is in his left hand. The pencil is long. It is blue.

Pupils should be acquainted with some peculiarities of the spoken language, otherwise they will not understand it when hearing and their own speech will be artificial. This mainly concerns dialogues. Linguistic peculiarities of dialogue are as follows:

1. The use of incomplete sentences (ellipses) in responses:

-- How many books have you?

-- One.

-- Do you go to school on Sunday?

-- No, - I don't.

-- Who has done it?

-- Nick has.

It does not mean, of course, we should not teach pupils complete forms of response. But their use should be justified.

- Have you seen the film?

-- Yes, I have seen this film, and I am sorry I've wasted two hours.

-- Did you like the book?

-- Yes, I liked it very much.

2. The use of contracted forms: doesn't, won't, can't, isn't, etc.

3. The use of some abbreviations: lab (laboratory), mike (microphone), math (mathematics), p. m. (post meridiem), and others.

4. The use of conversational tags. These are the words a speaker uses when he wishes to speak without saying anything. Here is both a definition of conversational tags and an example of their usage in conversation (they are in italics), "Well, they are those things, you know, which don't actually mean very much, of course, yet they are in fact necessary in English conversation as behavior." Besides, to carry on a conversation pupils need words, phrases to start a conversation, to join it, to confirm, to comment, etc. For example, well, look here, I say ..., I'd like to tell you (for starting a talk); you see, you mean, do you mean to say that ..., and what about (for joining a conversation); / believe so, I hope, yes, right, quite right, to be sure (for confirming what one says); / think, as far as I know, as far as I can see, the fact is, to tell the truth, I mean to say (for commenting), etc. In school teaching only one structure of dialogue is usually used, i.e., question -- response. More than that, pupils' dialogues are artificial and they lack, as a rule, all the peculiarities mentioned above. In teaching dialogue in schools it is necessary to take into account these peculiarities and give pupils pattern dialogues to show what real dialogues look like. In conclusion it should be said that prepared and unprepared speech must be developed simultaneously from the very beginning. The relationship between prepared and unprepared speech should vary depending on the stage of learning the language. In the junior stage prepared speech takes the lead, while in the senior stage unprepared speech should prevail.

Questions:

- Speak about the process and hypothetical theories of developing oral speech?
- What is Inputting information and producing a speech?
- Speak about Dialogue. Monologue. Speaking vocabulary.

- What are the problems in developing speaking skill?
- What is the connection of speaking skill with other skills?
- What is the role of learner condition in developing oral speech?
- Natural and unnatural speech condition. Using gestures in forming dialogue and other forms of speech.

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Lecture Seven. Develop listening skill.

- ✚ The objectives and principles of developing listening skill.
- ✚ The connection on listening skill with other skills.
- ✚ The mechanisms of listening skill, it's problems.
- ✚ Global and Selective listening.
- ✚ Types of listening materials.
- ✚ The methods of developing learners listening skill at academic lyceums, and at colleges.
- ✚ Listening exercises and drills. Using technical aids.

Basic words:

- Acquisition ó the process by which you gain knowledge
- Fractions ó a very small amount of something
- Decimals ó a decimal system based on numbers
- Authentic speech - speech based on facts
- motivate - something that make people willing to work
- kinesthetic ó relating to movement

The objectives and principles of developing listening skill. Listening is the ability to identify and understand what others are saying. This involves understanding a speaker's accent or pronunciation, his grammar and his vocabulary, and grasping his meaning (Howatt and Dakin). An able listener is capable of doing these four things simultaneously. Willis (1981:134) lists a series of micro-skills of listening, which she calls *enabling skills*. They are:

- predicting what people are going to talk about
- guessing at unknown words or phrases without panic
- using one's own knowledge of the subject to help one understand
- identifying relevant points; rejecting irrelevant information
- retaining relevant points (note-taking, summarizing)
- recognizing discourse markers, e. g. , Well; Oh, another thing is; Now, finally; etc.
- recognizing cohesive devices, e. g. , *such as* and *which*, including linking words, pronouns, references, etc.

- understanding different intonation patterns and uses of stress, etc. , which give clues to meaning and social setting
- understanding inferred information, e. g. , speakers' attitude or intentions.

According to Bulletin (1952), listening is one of the fundamental language skills. It's a medium through which children, young people and adults gain a large portion of their education--their information, their understanding of the world and of human affairs, their ideals, sense of values, and their appreciation. In this day of mass communication (much of it oral), it is of vital importance that our pupils be taught to listen effectively and critically, he says. Listening to and understanding speech involves a number of basic processes, some depending upon linguistic competence, some depending upon previous knowledge that is not necessarily of a purely linguistic nature, and some depending upon psychological variables that affect the mobilization of these competence and knowledge in the particular task situation. The listener must have a continuous set to listen and understand, and as he hears the utterance, he may be helped by some kind of set to process and remember the information transmitted. His linguistic competence enables him, presumably, to recognize the formatives of the heard utterance, i. e. , to dissect out of the wave form of the morphemes, words, and other meaning-bearing elements of the utterance. Listening is a receptive skill, and receptive skills give way to productive skills. If we have our students produce something, the teaching will be more communicative. This brings us to the must of *integrating language skills*. There are two reasons for using integrating activities in language classrooms:

1. To practice and extend the learners' use of a certain language structure or function
2. To develop the learners' ability in the use of two or more of the skills within real contexts and communicative frame work.

The connection on listening skill with other skills . Integrated activities, on the other hand, provide a variety in the classroom and thus maintain motivation and allow the recycling and revision of language which has already been taught separately in each skill.

How can we be certain that listening experiences will become more productive? Wittich tells us to distinguish the four levels existing in listening to radio or recordings:

- ❖ Level 1. This mood is listening. Here, the sound remains in the background - there is usually limited comprehension, and, indeed, limited attention. One becomes directly aware of sounds only when they stop. Nevertheless, a certain amount of learning may take place.
- ❖ Level 2. Here the purpose is relaxation, escape, getting your mind off something rather than on it. The material is comprehended but usually not analyzed for its value. This listening may result in useful ideas, but they are usually peripheral and/or accidental.
- ❖ Level 3. On this level, answers are sought as a key to action. One listens to weather reports, traffic information from a plane-temporarily useful but what we might call forgettable transient information. This form of listening does not require long, sustained concentration.
- ❖ Level 4. This is the stage of analytical and critical listening. The listener not only seeks a serious answer to a serious question but evaluates the quality of the answer. Round-table discussions, serious listening to talks, spirited conversation, symphonic music are at the fourth level. At this stage, listening to music is in the foreground of attention not in the background as on previous levels (Wittich and Schuller, 1962).

It is listening on the fourth level that primarily concerns us in our teaching. Such listening may add an emotional and dramatic quality. Radio and recordings highlight the importance of listening. Listening is as active as speaking (the other receptive skill), and in some ways even more difficult. It well requires attention, thought, interpretation, and imagination. To improve our learners' listening skills we should let them (Austin Shrope, 1970):

1. Adopt a positive attitude.
2. Be responsive.

3. Shut out distractions.
4. Listen for the speaker's purpose.
5. Look for the signals of what is to come.
6. Look for summaries of what has gone before.
7. Evaluate the supporting materials.
8. Look for non-verbal clues.

We can call listening a decoding -making sense of the message process. Each short stretch of meaningful material which is read or heard has to be;

- (I) recognized as meaningful and understood on perception
- (II) held in the short term memory long enough to be decoded
- (III) related to what has gone before and /or what follows.

Out of this process come pieces of information which can be stored in the long term memory for recall later. We can show the whole process in the form of a model (Abbott and Wingard, 1985).

1. Perception of sounds, letter shapes, etc.
2. Initial recognition of meaning of short stretches
3. Material held in short term memory
4. Related to material already held in short term memory
5. Related to material arriving in short-term memory
6. Meaning extracted from message and retained in long-term memory
7. Gist recalled later

We can divide the listening process into 3 stages;

1. Pre-listening (purpose must be given at this stage),
2. During (in-while) listening,
3. Post -listening (speaking).

There is an association between expectation, purpose, and comprehension, therefore a purpose should be given to our learners. We should train students to understand what is being said in conversations to get them to disregard redundancy, hesitation, and ungrammaticality. The major problem is the actual way listening material is presented to the students. We should give a clear lead in what they are going to hear; use some kind of visual back up for them to understand; give questions and tasks in order to clarify the things in their minds; and be sure that these tasks help in learning, not confusing. Students should learn how use the environmental clues; the speaker's facial expression, posture, eye direction, proximity, gesture, tone of voice, and that general surroundings contribute information. In listening activities, we listen for a purpose. We make an immediate response to what we hear. There are some visual or environmental clues as to the meaning of what is heard. Stretches of heard discourse come in short chunks, and most heard discourse is spontaneous, therefore differs from formal spoken prose in the amount of redundancy 'noise' and colloquialisms, and its auditory character. In listening to English as a foreign language, the most important features can be defined as:

1. Coping with the sounds,
2. Understanding intonation and stress,
3. Coping with redundancy and noise,
4. Predicting,
5. Understanding colloquial vocabulary,
6. Fatigue,
7. Understanding different accents,
8. Using visual and environmental clues.

Listening exercises and drills. Using technical aids.

This brings us to the thought that, while planning exercises, listening materials, task and visual materials should be taken into consideration. The teacher should produce a suitable discourse while using recordings. A preset purpose, ongoing learner response, motivation, success, simplicity, and feedback should be the things considered while preparing the task. Visual materials are useful for contextualization. We can also categorize the goals of listening as

listening for enjoyment, for information, for persuasion, for perception and lastly for comprehension and lastly to solve problems.

We can divide listening for comprehension into three stages;

1. Listening and making no response (following a written text, informal teacher talk)
2. Listening and making short responses (obeying instructions - physical movement, building models, picture dictation. etc.), true- false exercises, noting specific information, etc.
3. Listening and making longer response (repetition and dictation, paraphrasing, answering questions, answering comprehension questions on texts, predictions, filling gaps, summarizing, etc.)

The purposes that should be in a listening activity are giving/providing:

1. General information (understanding of the main points)
2. Specific information (understanding of the particular items)
3. Cultural interest (generally informing about the target language culture)
4. Information about people's attitudes and opinions
5. The organization of ideas
6. Sequence of events
7. Lexical items (words expressing noise / movement)
8. Structural items (their use and meaning)
9. Functional items (their form and use)

Lack of sociocultural, factual, and contextual knowledge of the target language can present an obstacle to listening comprehension. In his *Language and Language Learning* (1960), Brooks discusses vital points for the student to be aware of, such as contradictions and omissions - aspects of sandhi-variation (the changes occur in natural speech as a result of environment, stress, intonation, rate of speed and so forth). Though Brook does not specially refer to the term " sandhi-variation ", he does refer to the phenomenon of sadhi in his examples: *Jeet jet?* (Did you eat yet?) (p. 50) . According to Brooks, native speakers in an informal situation "habitually reduce the clarity of speech signals to the minimum required for comprehension. "Brooks believes that it is necessary to give consideration also to the interdependence of language and culture; for example, register expletives, verbal taboos, and culture-bound vocabulary. He also mentions that there is a need to clarify and point out the differences between written and spoken English.

In order to teach listening skills, a teacher should firstly state the difficulties. For a student of a foreign language, accurate and intelligent listening is a necessity, and the teacher is responsible to help his / her learners to acquire this skill which provides the very foundation for learning and functioning in a language. That the teacher can observe and isolate the errors in speaking, but could not in listening is a difficulty. In listening, the learner can exercise no controls over the structural and lexical range of the speaker to whom he is listening. Nevertheless, any listener can learn to focus on significant content items, to explain in another way he can learn to listen selectively.

Helping the learners to distinguish sounds, teaching to isolate significant content and informational items for concentration may be provided by controlled listening exercises. One exercise is to give him certain performance objectives -to give him general informational questions that he should be able to answer after he listens the material for the first time. These questions should require only the isolation of facts clearly revealed in the material. Questions that require application or inference from the information contained in the listening exercise are best used at later stages or more advanced students.

More controls are necessary at less advanced level. Sheets containing sequentially organized and significant questions on context and content -questions that call for one-word answers -serve as useful guides for the student. Such questions help him filter out and listen for significant information. The questions themselves suggest the content and provide the student with an organizational frame for selective listening.

For listening comprehension exercises, we tend to read passages, record news or broadcasts, or prepare lectures. All of them have value, but they are extremely difficult sources for early practice in selective listening. This type of listening exercises does not present the redundancies, the colloquialisms, the hesitations, the gestures and the facial expressions that are an inseparable part of the spoken language. They emphasize informational content and fail to provide the signals used to communicate information and meaning.

Since most of the actual listening the student will be exposed to outside of the class is likely to be real-life conversation, it seems wisest to use materials cast in real-life situations for listening comprehension exercises -at least at the beginning level. If the oral instruction of the course is contextualized -set into a " situation " - it should be easy enough to contextualize the aural practice as well. The teacher can easily adapt to listening exercises those situations through which the text presents oral drills and communicative activities, just by giving them a slightly different twist. Listening exercises should be as natural as the situations from which they grow. In other words, an exercise in listening comprehension must be as close as possible to a "slice of life" -neither a contrived situation nor an artificially delivered discourse. By means of this, a teacher has a great work to do, and has to be a very creative person in order to teach listening communicatively. Goals: Students are asked to understand when they listen to a speech. This lesson will at least make the students take one step to get accustomed to hearing and understanding what they hear. Objectives: By the end of the lesson the students will understand the significance of listening.

Pre-listening Activities: The teacher asks the students what they are going to listen to. A discussion atmosphere is tried to be created. At this stage pictures are used effectively.

During Listening Activities: While students are listening to the tape the teacher asks them to take some notes.

Post-listening Activities: The teacher writes some questions on the board and asks them to answer the questions. They are also stimulated to talk and participate in the activity dominantly.

I. PRE-LISTENING ACTIVITIES

The teacher hangs the pictures on the board and tries to make the students talk about the subjects.

T: Do you think that they are beautiful?

S: . . .

T: Can you guess the name of the first competitor?

S: . . .

T: Can you guess the height of the second competitor?

S: . . .

T: What nationality does the third girl belong to? What is your opinion?

S: . . .

II. DURING LISTENING ACTIVITIES. The teacher asks the students to listen to the tape very carefully. And he gives information lists to the students. While they are listening to the tape they try to fill the blanks with appropriate information. If no information appears for any blank on the list, students are asked to put a cross on the blank provided for the required information.

III. POST-LISTENING ACTIVITY. The teacher writes on the board some questions. Students answer these questions to test whether they understood what they have listened or not.

1. Whose name is the best? Why do you think so?
2. Who is the tallest one of all?
3. Who is the oldest one of all?
4. Who is the heaviest one of all?
5. What nationality does the first one belong to?
6. What nationality does the second one belong to?
7. What nationality does the third one belong to?
8. Who can speak two languages?

9. What are those languages?
10. Whose favorite film star is Leonardo Di Caprio?
11. What does Suzanne Kerrigan mean by saying "I hope the political situation of my country will not affect this kind of a contest?"

Listening. Synthesis of methods for developing interactive listening skills. Listening, reading, speaking and writing these are four basic language skills. Learners need assessment will show teachers which of these skills should be emphasized in class. Emphasis will vary from situation to situation, but in many post- secondary institutions, students typically need English and will therefore expect priority help in developing their listening and reading skills. However no skill should be taught in isolation.

The language learner has three chances to listen, opportunities to confirm/corroborate one's response, and eventually the transcript of the clip is provided for reinforcement or checking. After the fifth activity, several strategies are suggested to improve listening comprehension. The way the video is used and the materials prepared for use with the video will depend on the role the video is to take Current thinking on video in the classroom advocates an integrated approach, not simply using the video in isolation but within a sequence of tasks: Pre-viewing, while viewing and post viewing, always depending on the role chosen for the video. If for example, the video is used only as a stimulus, a pre-viewing stage would not be necessary. Below are suggested activities for the three stages.

Pre-viewing

Any pre-viewing activity will be associated with developing learners' comprehension strategies. Native speakers use many strategies to aid comprehension and these strategies can also be applied to learning a second language. *Activities:*

- Tell learners they are going to watch/listen to a story/advert/news report about... What do they expect to hear and see?
- Class discussion about video topic.
- Learners do quiz on topic of video. The quiz could be True/False or open-ended questions.
- Give learners two minutes to brainstorm vocabulary connected to topic
- Learners put written summary of video in order
- Learners watch video with sound off, then guess topic and content
- Learners read story/news article connected to video topic
- STORIES: Using flashcards of story - Ask learners if they can guess what happens in story. Flashcards need only be quick line drawings done on A4 card or even paper.
- STORIES: Learners predict story by numbering pictures from story on worksheet. To make the worksheet draw basic pictures illustrating main ideas of the story on paper. Make sure they are in a different order to the order they appear in the story.

While viewing. In most cases you will want the learners to watch the video or video extract more than once. The aims for watching the video for the first time and further times will probably be different. Tasks completed while viewing a video for the first time are commonly associated with developing listening skills and in particular listening for global understanding. Activities for a second or third viewing are often associated with providing information (to provide content relevant to students' needs and interests.) and presenting or reinforcing language (grammar, vocabulary, functions).

- Developing listening skills
- Learners watch video to confirm predictions made in pre -viewing activity

- Learners answer comprehension questions
- Teacher stops video and asks learners to predict continuation
- Providing information
- Learners make notes about content which will be used in post-viewing activity. This could be information they have heard or information they have seen.
- Presenting or reinforcing language
- Learners listen for specific pre-taught vocabulary. 6-8 vocabulary items would be enough. Learners say stop when they hear the vocabulary. Learners listen for examples of grammatical structures and note them down. Learners participate in telling story along with video. This could be used after a video has been watched a few times. The learners are given a character in the story and the sound is turned down at various points. The learners try to say the words.

Post viewing. Post viewing activities are often connected to the idea of using language that came from the video or the video could simply have been used as a stimulus and the post viewing tasks are not connected in any way to language found in the video.

- *Activities*
- Using language
 - Learners read story/news report and compare it with video
 - Learners act out/record own version of video
 - Learners write similar dialogues to one they heard on the video
- Project work
 - Make posters/wall displays
 - Use Internet to find out more information about topic (See TRY video lesson 2)
- Craft work
 - Draw characters from story
 - Make book based on story
- Stimulus
 - Learners discuss aspect of video
 - Learners describe people in video.
 - Learners decide how old people in video are.
 - Learners vote on ugliest/best looking person

Global and Selective listening. Some scholars are having stated that listening is used for more than any other language skills in normal daily life. On average, we can expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write. To be effective teachers spoken communications with the class must be comprehensible. Language which is not understood is just "noise" and doesn't lead to student language acquisition. For these reason teachers must adjust their speech to reflect their understanding, and check comprehension frequently by asking questions about context. The world outside the classroom asks "Do you speak English?" Teacher can help to correct this situation by attaching value to students progress in listening skills.

The scholar Rivers says that speaking doesn't itself constitute communication unless what is said is comprehended by another person. Several theories treat listening process as the primary

channel for language input and acquisition. The natural route to language learning is said to depend on qualifiedly distinct sub processes.

1) Global listening

2) Selective listening

Global listening is a very active process. The scholar Nida points out that the mind operates on incoming language input even when we are not a conscious effort to learn; the mind assimilates, sorts and stores the many features of the input in order to comprehend form and meaning.

Selective listening is recommended in situations when contact with the foreign language is limited to the classroom, when first language production habits might interfere with accurate perception of the foreign language.

The learner listens to one feature at a time

- 1) tone in voice
- 2) strange sounds
- 3) similar sounds
- 4) words and phrases
- 5) grammatical listening

Selective listening raises one's awareness of important linguistic distinctions and also promotes self-monitoring production.

Following are general objectives for the teaching of listening comprehension.

- 1) Students will understand short lectures in the content area when vocabulary is familiar as demonstrated by their ability to answer questions about the lecture.
- 2) Students will understand spoken numbers, including percentages, fractions, decimals and other numerical expressions common to the specialty field, as demonstrated by their ability to write those numbers when they hear them in context.
- 3) Students will be able to follow instructions given in class regarding assignments and activities, as demonstrated by their correct performance of such instructions.

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

- 1) Linguistic materials for listening
- 2) The context of the material suggested for listening
- 3) Conditions in which the material is presented

The mechanisms of listening skill, its problems. Pupils need practice in listening to be able overcome three kinds of difficulties:

- Phonetic
- Lexical
- Grammatical

Phonetic difficulties appear because the phonic system.

English and Uzbek differ greatly. They often interpret the sounds of a foreign language as if they were of his own language which usually results misunderstanding. They can hardly differentiate the following words by ear:

First ó fast ó forced

Lion ó line

Bought ó boat ó board

Lexical difficulties are closely connected with the phonetic ones.

They worked till night. ô > they walked till night.

Grammatical difficulties are mostly connected with the analytical structure of the English language, as English rich in grammatical homonyms, for example:

to work ó work

as the suffix of the Past Indefinite and Past Participle.

2) The content of the material also influences comprehension. The following factors should be taken into consideration when selecting the material for listening.

- The topic of communication: whether the pupils are able to understand (proper names, geographical names, terminology).
- The type of communication: whether it is less emotional and interesting.

3) Conditions of presenting the material are of great importance for teaching listening. The speed of the speech is also main point, as the hearer can't change the speed of the speaker. The speaker N. V. Elukhina believes that in teaching listening the tempo should be slower than the normal speed of authentic speech. The voice of the speaker also influences pupil's comprehension. Pupils who get used teacher's voice can easily understand him, but they cannot understand other people speaking some language.

Listening exercises and drills. Using technical aids.

1. **Mini ó lectures_ó** Give a short lecture every class meeting to provide students with opportunities to develop note-taking and other listening skills. Demonstrations are particularly effective. Use visual aids and real objects at every opportunity to increase the comprehensibility of your presentation. Prepare practical, hands-on activities for student's participation. Following your presentation, ask true/ false and yes/ no questions to give students the opportunity to check their comprehension.
2. The teacher may construct a close exercise in which, he may re-read some parts to the students, while they follow along and fill in the blanks.
3. Read the text twice, with pause and slow speed. Then ask each student to retell the text by one sentence. Choose not long and boring text. It must be interesting and motivative.
4. Let students listen to the text by tape-recorder, if possible. Ask students take a sheet of paper and write what they understand and remember
5. **Dictation exercises.** Dictation combines listening and writing practice. When dictating read the whole sentence at normal speed three times, allowing time for writing between each repetition. When evaluating dictation, do not focus on spelling as a primary goal of the exercise. For example, plural endings or past tense endings are necessary for correct interpretation of meaning. Spelling errors may not affect meaning.

Questions:

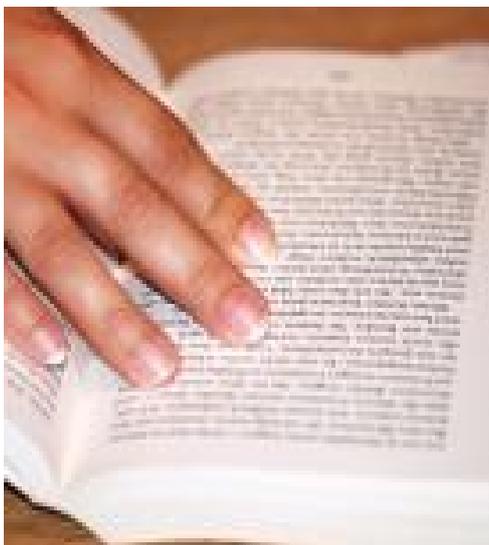
- What are the objectives and principles of developing listening skill?
- Speak about the connection on listening skill with other skills.
- What are the mechanisms of listening skill, it's problems?
- What is Global and Selective listening?
- What are the types of listening materials?
- What are the methods of developing learners listening skill at academic lyceums, and at colleges?
- What are Listening exercises and drills?
- How are technical aids used?

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Lecture Eight. The principles of developing reading skill



- ✚ Reading Purpose and Reading Comprehension.
- ✚ The receptive forms of reading.
- ✚ The objectives of developing reading skill.
- ✚ The connection reading skill with other skill.
- ✚ The different components of reading skill.
- ✚ Intensive reading and Extensive reading.
- ✚ Reading vocabulary. Scanning and skimming.
- ✚ Reading steps. Reading activities and exercises.
- ✚ The techniques of developing reading skill.

Understanding the text.

- ✚ Develop reading at colleges, schools. Working on different texts. Social context.

- ✚ Authentic reading materials. Strategies for Developing Reading Skills.

Basic words:

- Scanning- reading the text for specific information
- Skimming- to reading the text for getting the main fact
- Intensive- reading of a short text for (for grammar, vocabulary, and meaning)
- Extensive- reading of a long texts (for meaning only)
- Kinesthetic- something you can touch
- Assignment- task or exercises on certain topic

The aim of developing reading skill. Traditionally, the purpose of learning to read in a language has been to have access to the literature written in that language. In language instruction, reading materials have traditionally been chosen from literary texts that represent "higher" forms of culture. This approach assumes that students learn to read a language by studying its vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure, not by actually reading it. In this approach, lower level learners read only sentences and paragraphs generated by textbook writers and instructors. The reading of authentic materials is limited to the works of great authors and reserved for upper level students who have developed the language skills needed to read them. The communicative approach to language teaching has given instructors a different understanding of the role of reading in the language classroom and the types of texts that can be used in instruction. When the goal of instruction is communicative competence, everyday materials such as train schedules, newspaper articles, and travel and tourism Web sites become appropriate classroom materials, because reading them is one way communicative competence is developed. Instruction in reading and reading practice thus become essential parts of language teaching at every level.

Reading Purpose and Reading Comprehension. Reading is an activity with a purpose. A person may read in order to gain information or verify existing knowledge, or in order to critique a writer's ideas or writing style. A person may also read for enjoyment, or to enhance knowledge of the language being read. The purpose(s) for reading guide the reader's selection of texts. The purpose for reading also determines the appropriate approach to reading comprehension. A

person who needs to know whether she can afford to eat at a particular restaurant needs to comprehend the pricing information provided on the menu, but does not need to recognize the name of every appetizer listed. A person reading poetry for enjoyment needs to recognize the words the poet uses and the ways they are put together, but does not need to identify main idea and supporting details. However, a person using a scientific article to support an opinion needs to know the vocabulary that is used, understand the facts and cause-effect sequences that are presented, and recognize ideas that are presented as hypotheses and givens. Reading research shows those good readers:

- ❖ Read extensively
- ❖ Integrate information in the text with existing knowledge
- ❖ Have a flexible reading style, depending on what they are reading
- ❖ Are motivated
- ❖ Rely on different skills interacting: perceptual processing, phonemic processing, recall
- ❖ Read for a purpose; reading serves a function

The different components of reading skill.

Reading is an interactive process that goes on between the reader and the text, resulting in comprehension. The text presents letters, words, sentences, and paragraphs that encode meaning. The reader uses knowledge, skills, and strategies to determine what that meaning is. Reader knowledge, skills, and strategies include:

- Linguistic competence: the ability to recognize the elements of the writing system; knowledge of vocabulary; knowledge of how words are structured into sentences
- Discourse competence: knowledge of discourse markers and how they connect parts of the text to one another
- Sociolinguistic competence: knowledge about different types of texts and their usual structure and content
- Strategic competence: the ability to use top-down strategies

The purpose(s) for reading and the type of text determine the specific knowledge, skills, and strategies that readers need to apply to achieve comprehension. Reading comprehension is thus much more than decoding. A reading comprehension result when the reader knows which skills and a strategy are appropriate for the type of text, and understands how to apply them to accomplish the reading purpose.

Goals and Techniques for Teaching Reading

Instructors want to produce students who, even if they do not have complete control of the grammar or an extensive lexicon, can fend for themselves in communication situations. In the case of reading, this means producing students who can use reading strategies to maximize their comprehension of text, identify relevant and non-relevant information, and tolerate less than word-by-word comprehension.

Reading. Reading is one of the main skills that a pupil must acquire in the process of mastering a foreign language in school. By the end of the course pupils must be able to read easy texts of social- political content, popular- science and fiction. Reading is of great educational importance, as people get information they need from books, journals, magazines, newspapers. It helps to develop their memory, will, imagination. They become accustomed to working with books. When reading a text the pupil reviews sounds and letters, vocabulary and grammar, memorizes the spelling of words and word combinations.

The content of teaching reading. Two types of skills are needed in reading:

- Intensive
- Extensive

Intensive reading is close analysis of a short passage and can be used to develop vocabulary, grammar skills.

Extensive reading is faster reading of longer passages to develop understanding of writers ideas, to improve reading speed and focus on main idea. Reading as a process is connected with the

In this way they give their students the foundation for communicative competence in the new language.

Integrating Reading Strategies. Reading steps. Reading activities and exercises. Instruction in reading strategies is not an add-on, but rather an integral part of the use of reading activities in the language classroom. Instructors can help their students become effective readers by teaching them how to use strategies before, during, and after reading.

Before reading: Plan for the reading task

- Set a purpose or decide in advance what to read for
- Decide if more linguistic or background knowledge is needed
- Determine whether to enter the text from the top down (attend to the overall meaning) or from the bottom up (focus on the words and phrases)

During and after reading: Monitor comprehension

- Verify predictions and check for inaccurate guesses
- Decide what is and is not important to understand
- Reread to check comprehension
- Ask for help

After reading: Evaluate comprehension and strategy use

- Evaluate comprehension in a particular task or area
- Evaluate overall progress in reading and in particular types of reading tasks
- Decide if the strategies used were appropriate for the purpose and for the task
- Modify strategies if necessary

Using Authentic Materials and Approaches

For students to develop communicative competence in reading, classroom and homework reading activities must resemble (or be) real-life reading tasks that involve meaningful communication. They must therefore be authentic in three ways.

1. The reading material must be authentic: It must be the kind of material that students will need and want to be able to read when traveling, studying abroad, or using the language in other contexts outside the classroom.

When selecting texts for student assignments, remember that the difficulty of a reading text is less a function of the language, and more a function of the conceptual difficulty and the task(s) that students are expected to complete. Simplifying a text by changing the language often removes natural redundancy and makes the organization somewhat difficult for students to predict. This actually makes a text more difficult to read than if the original were used.

Rather than simplifying a text by changing its language, make it more approachable by eliciting students' existing knowledge in pre-reading discussion, reviewing new vocabulary before reading, and asking students to perform tasks that are within their competence, such as skimming to get the main idea or scanning for specific information, before they begin intensive reading.

2. The reading purpose must be authentic: Students must be reading for reasons that make sense and have relevance to them. "Because the teacher assigned it" is not an authentic reason for reading a text.

To identify relevant reading purposes, ask students how they plan to use the language they are learning and what topics they are interested in reading and learning about. Give them opportunities to choose their reading assignments, and encourage them to use the library, the Internet, and foreign language newsstands and bookstores to find other things they would like to read.

3. The reading approach must be authentic: Students should read the text in a way that matches the reading purpose, the type of text, and the way people normally read. This means that reading aloud will take place only in situations where it would take place outside the classroom, such as reading for pleasure. The majority of students' reading should be done silently.

Reading Aloud in the Classroom

Students do not learn to read by reading aloud. A person who reads aloud and comprehends the meaning of the text is coordinating word recognition with comprehension and speaking and

pronunciation ability in highly complex ways. Students whose language skills are limited are not able to process at this level, and end up having to drop one or more of the elements. Usually the dropped element is comprehension, and reading aloud becomes word calling: simply pronouncing a series of words without regard for the meaning they carry individually and together. Word calling is not productive for the student who is doing it, and it is boring for other students to listen to.

- There are two ways to use reading aloud productively in the language classroom. Read aloud to your students as they follow along silently. You have the ability to use inflection and tone to help them hear what the text is saying. Following along as you read will help students move from word-by-word reading to reading in phrases and thought units, as they do in their first language.
- Use the "read and look up" technique. With this technique, a student reads a phrase or sentence silently as many times as necessary, then looks up (away from the text) and tells you what the phrase or sentence says. This encourages students to read for ideas, rather than for word recognition.

Strategies for Developing Reading Skills. Using Reading Strategies

Language instructors are often frustrated by the fact that students do not automatically transfer the strategies they use when reading in their native language to reading in a language they are learning. Instead, they seem to think reading means starting at the beginning and going word by word, stopping to look up every unknown vocabulary item, until they reach the end. When they do this, students are relying exclusively on their linguistic knowledge, a bottom-up strategy. One of the most important functions of the language instructor, then, is to help students move past this idea and use top-down strategies as they do in their native language.

Effective language instructors show students how they can adjust their reading behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and reading purposes. They help students develop a set of reading strategies and match appropriate strategies to each reading situation.

Strategies that can help students read more quickly and effectively include

- **Previewing:** reviewing titles, section headings, and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection
- **Predicting:** using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and check comprehension; using knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure; using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary, and content
- **Skimming and scanning:** using a quick survey of the text to get the main idea, identify text structure, confirm or question predictions
- **Guessing from context:** using prior knowledge of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of stopping to look them up
- **Paraphrasing:** stopping at the end of a section to check comprehension by restating the information and ideas in the text

Instructors can help students learn when and how to use reading strategies in several ways.

- By modeling the strategies aloud, talking through the processes of previewing, predicting, skimming and scanning, and paraphrasing. This shows students how the strategies work and how much they can know about a text before they begin to read word by word.
- By allowing time in class for group and individual previewing and predicting activities as preparation for in-class or out-of-class reading. Allocating class time to these activities indicates their importance and value.
- By using cloze (fill in the blank) exercises to review vocabulary items. This helps students learn to guess meaning from context.
- By encouraging students to talk about what strategies they think will help them approach a reading assignment, and then talking after reading about what strategies they actually used. This helps students develop flexibility in their choice of strategies.

When language learners use reading strategies, they find that they can control the reading experience, and they gain confidence in their ability to read the language.

Develop reading at colleges, schools. Working on different texts. Social context.

Reading is an essential part of language instruction at every level because it supports learning in multiple ways.

- ✚ Reading to learn the language: Reading material is language input. By giving students a variety of materials to read, instructors provide multiple opportunities for students to absorb vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, and discourse structure as they occur in authentic contexts. Students thus gain a more complete picture of the ways in which the elements of the language work together to convey meaning.
- ✚ Reading for content information: Students' purpose for reading in their native language is often to obtain information about a subject they are studying, and this purpose can be useful in the language learning classroom as well. Reading for content information in the language classroom gives students both authentic reading material and an authentic purpose for reading.
- ✚ Reading for cultural knowledge and awareness: Reading everyday materials that are designed for native speakers can give students insight into the lifestyles and worldviews of the people whose language they are studying. When students have access to newspapers, magazines, and Web sites, they are exposed to culture in all its variety, and monolithic cultural stereotypes begin to break down.

When reading to learn, students need to follow four basic steps:

1. Figure out the purpose for reading. Activate background knowledge of the topic in order to predict or anticipate content and identify appropriate reading strategies.
2. Attend to the parts of the text that are relevant to the identified purpose and ignore the rest. This selectivity enables students to focus on specific items in the input and reduces the amount of information they have to hold in short-term memory.
3. Select strategies that are appropriate to the reading task and use them flexibly and interactively. Students' comprehension improves and their confidence increases when they use top-down and bottom-up skills simultaneously to construct meaning.
4. Check comprehension while reading and when the reading task is completed. Monitoring comprehension helps students detect inconsistencies and comprehension failures, helping them learn to use alternate strategies.

Using Textbook Reading Activities

Many language textbooks emphasize product (answers to comprehension questions) over process (using reading skills and strategies to understand the text), providing little or no contextual information about the reading selections or their authors, and few if any pre-reading activities. Newer textbooks may provide pre-reading activities and reading strategy guidance, but their one-size-fits-all approach may or may not be appropriate for your students. You can use the guidelines for developing reading activities given here as starting points for evaluating and adapting textbook reading activities. Use existing, or add your own, pre-reading activities and reading strategy practice as appropriate for your students. Don't make students do exercises simply because they are in the book; this destroys motivation. Another problem with textbook reading selections is that they have been adapted to a predetermined reading level through adjustment of vocabulary, grammar, and sentence length. This makes them more immediately approachable, but it also means that they are less authentic and do not encourage students to apply the reading strategies they will need to use outside of class. When this is the case, use the textbook reading selection as a starting point to introduce a writer or topic, and then give students choices of more challenging authentic texts to read as a follow-up.

Can reading be communicative? Communication suggests interaction of some sort, perhaps in many students' minds between speaker and listener. Is reading, therefore, since it is often a solitary activity, a non-communicative activity? Surely not since the reader is interacting with the writer, albeit in a less direct way than speaker and listener. Reading is, of course, just as

communicative as any other form of language use and as teachers our aim is to bring out that communicative element. For example by establishing direct communication between reader and writer by exploiting students' written work for reading practice (see below for ideas). Another feature of real reading is that while we may read alone we communicate what we read to others constantly. Talking about what we have read is a rich source of classroom possibilities.

Tips

- Encourage students to read newspapers outside the classroom, explaining that ongoing reading can help them to articulate/discuss ideas more fluently, as well as read and understand a whole variety of texts.
- Use different newspapers to suit your students' tastes. If you are teaching in an area where English language newspapers are produced for the local community, these may include articles and topics of particular interest and relevance to your students.
- You don't need to have a great supply of newspapers in the classroom. Most newspapers have an online version, where you can print off articles, e.g. <http://www.guardian.co.uk/> or <http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/>
- Talk to your students about reading and comprehension of English texts. It might be helpful to share strategies for reading. For example; How often do they use a dictionary? Do they take notes, or jot down new vocabulary? Do they skim read to get a general idea of a text?

Activities relevant reading

Selected readings have great potential for stimulating conversation, because once students are exposed to a given reading, they have a new fund of information that can be used as a departure point for discussion. There are several popular reading-conversation formats, each with some merits, which you may wish to try with your conversation group:

1. The teacher reads a short selection aloud to the class and asks discussion questions afterwards.
2. A student or students read a short selection aloud to the class and asks discussion questions afterwards.
3. The students read an assigned selection at home, and then participate in discussion of the material in class.
4. The students read a short selection silently in class, then discuss what they have just read.
5. The students read a short selection and write a summary of it in their own words. Then each student reads his summary, which is followed by class discussion.

Any reading selection for conversation groups should be appropriate to the age of the students, clearly written, and interesting to them. Otherwise you will not be able to stimulate much conversation based on the reading.

- **Guess the headline.** Cut out a number of headlines and from each one remove an interesting word (e.g. Missing Painting Found In _____). Stick the incomplete headlines on a piece of paper, photocopy and distribute to teams of 3-4 students. Ask each team to come up with two possible answers for each headline: the most likely word and the funniest word. Collect all the responses and give each team a point for any correct answer, and for the funniest answers. Get everyone involved by holding a vote for the funniest / most original answer for each headline.
- **Guess the article.** Select an interesting newspaper article, preferably one which involves an exciting / unusual story. Choose eight key words from the article and write them on the board. Ask students to work in teams of 3-4 to come up with a story including these words. When they have finished, read out / tell them about the original article. Get students to read aloud their own versions - this can create a lot of laughs!
- **Newspaper lies.** Ask students to select a short item of news and to summarize it to a partner / team, changing some of the details. Partners need to try and guess which of the facts are true and which have been changed.

- **Wall quiz.** Write a list of questions based on a selection of newspaper articles, and distribute the quiz to teams of 2-3 students. Pin up the articles around the room and ask students to walk around the room trying to find the answers. The winning team is the first to find all the answers. This can be quite a lively activity!
- **Presentations.** To encourage students to read newspapers in English on a more regular basis, organize short presentations at the beginning of each class. Ask a different student at the end of each class to find an interesting newspaper article and to summarize it to the other students during the next class, explaining why they chose it. This can lead to interesting discussions about current issues.
- **Newspaper treasure hunt.** For this activity you will need a pile of old newspapers, enough to distribute amongst teams of 4-5 students. Write a list of articles / words / pictures which the students need to find, and give teams a copy of the list. Tell them to cut out their 'treasures' and glue them next to the appropriate word in the list (or make a note of the page number). Possible list:
 - A job advert
 - Some good news
 - Some bad news
 - Reference to a famous political figure
 - News about a star
 - Weather forecast
 - News about a sport
 - Name of a country
 - Favorite news item
- **Gossip.** This is an easy activity for helping students to summarize articles. For this activity it is best to use tabloid newspapers or articles involving a bit of scandal, perhaps about famous people. Teach students useful phrases for chatting or gossiping, e.g. 'Have you heard aboutí ?', 'Did you know thatí ?', 'Guess what?' etc. Use appropriate gestures and intonation. Ask students to choose an article of their choice, underline or jot down important parts of the article and report it to a friend, as though having an informal chat. They could then go round the class, chatting with different people about their news article. You could also teach students some useful phrases for responding, e.g. 'Really? I don't believe it!', 'Are you joking?', 'How / when did it happen?'
- **News programs.** This is a great team activity for both reading and speaking practice. Put students into small teams and give them one or two recent newspapers. Tell them that they are going to work together to produce a news program, including the headlines, special reports, interviews, perhaps some footage from a story (if students like acting!), perhaps the weather forecast. Their program should be based on news items from the papers, and everyone must be involved in some way. If you have the equipment, you might like to film the program, or if not, each team could act out their program to the rest of the class.

Questions:

- What is the aim of reading purpose and reading comprehension?
- What are the receptive forms of reading?
- What are the objectives of developing reading skill?
- What is the connection of reading skill with other skill?
- Speak about the different components of reading skill?
- Intensive reading and Extensive reading.
Reading vocabulary. Scanning and skimming.
- What are reading steps? Reading activities and exercises.
- What are the techniques of developing reading skill. Understanding the text.
- How to develop reading at colleges, schools? Working on different texts. Social context.
- What are authentic reading materials? Strategies for Developing Reading Skills.

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Lecture 9. Develop writing skill for integrating with others

Plan:

- ✚ Writing as a means of written communication.
- ✚ The objectives of developing writing skill.
- ✚ Writing as Process. Writing Forms
- ✚ The connection of writing skill with other skills.
- ✚ The problems developing writing skill.
- ✚ The techniques of writing, orthography, graphs.
- ✚ Dictation. Essays. Writing drills and exercises. Writing letters and official papers.
- ✚ How to correct writing work.
- ✚ Planning writing works.

Basic words:

- Graphs- a drawing that uses a line
- Habit- behavior or manner of people use to do
- Idiosyncratic ó an unusual habit of behaving that someone has
- Recursive - rewritten letters joined together
- Crucial - something main or global
- learning logs - an official record of events during the learning

Writing as a means of written communication.

Writing is a powerful instrument of thinking because it provides students with a way of gaining control over their thoughts. Writing shapes their perceptions of themselves and the world. It aids in their personal growth and in their effecting change on the environment. Students are often unaware of the power of the written word, yet the written word:

... enables the writer, perhaps for the first time, to sense the power of ... language to affect another. Through using, selecting and rejecting, arranging and rearranging language, the student comes to understand how language is used (Greenberg & Rath, 1985, p. 12).

Adolescents' writing abilities develop gradually with incremental and uneven progress. In order to become empowered in writing, students need concentration, instruction, practice, and patience. The teacher's mandate is to assist adolescents to gain control over the written word. Students should:

- develop an explicit knowledge of phases of the writing process
- write frequently on a variety of topics for a variety of purposes and audiences
- develop an understanding of the structures and conventions of language.

The objectives of developing writing skill.

Writing is basically a process of communicating on paper to audience, because if the writer has nothing to say, writing will not occur. The practical value of writing is great, because it can fix patterns of all kinds (words, phrases, sentences) in pupils' memory, thus producing a powerful effect on their mind. During the development of writing skill all other skills are activated and developed. It helps to pupils to assimilate letters and sounds, its vocabulary and grammar, to develop skills in pronunciation, speaking and reading.

Writing skill should be developed through the formation of such habits as

- 1) the habit of writing letters;
- 2) the habit of correct spelling of words, phrases and sentences;
- 3) the habit of writing various exercises, dictation, fill- in- the- blank exercises; notes and lectures.

In forming writing habits following objectives are developed:

- Students will be able to summarize material or texts which they have read
- Students will be able to take notes on lectures or readings
- Students will be able to compose essays, compositions, topics
- Students will be able to write short letters, telegrams in standard format

Steps of writing. There is no one answer to the question of how to teach writing. Teaching writing should be based on such methodological and should proceed by steps:

- 1) in the beginning level teacher shows both capital and small letters
- 2) the teacher shows how to write the letters and words
- 3) **Copying.** The aim of this exercise is to allow the pupils to practice what has been taught. It helps for better assimilation, endings, word formations and speech patterns. Every new word, phrase after it has been thoroughly learnt, should be practiced by copying.
- 4) **Dictation.** This kind of writing exercise is much more difficult than copying, but it should never be given as a test to young beginners. It's a means of fixings of what is already known. Dictation is a valuable exercise, because it trains the ear and the hand as well as eye. It fixes the pupils' mind the division of each sentence pattern.

For example: Tom and I / go/ to school/ together

Dictations can be different in forms:

- a) **Visual dictation:** the teacher writes a word or sentence on the blackboard. The pupils are told to read it and memorize. Then it's rubbed out and the pupils write it from memory.
- b) **Dictation drill:** the teacher dictates a sentence with difficult spelling written on the blackboard then the pupils are told to write the sentence. The teacher walks about the class and watches them writing. He asks one of the pupils who has written correctly to go to the blackboard and write the sentence for other students to correct their mistakes, if they have any.
- c) **Self- dictation.** Pupils are given a text to learn by heart. Then teacher asks them to recite it. They are told to write it in their exercise- books from memory. So they dictate it themselves. It may be given at junior and intermediate stages.

In advanced level many teachers give their students the opportunity to explore a topic fully is such prewriting activities as discussion, reading, debate; brains forming and list making. Teacher who uses process approach give their students two crucial supports, time for the students to try out ideas and feedback on the content of what they write in their papers.

Writing as Process. Writing is a messy process. It is not linear; it is recursive, "a loop rather than a straight line", where the writer writes, then plans or revises, and then writes again (Emig, 1971). Teachers can help students write more effectively by getting them to examine their own creative processes. Although the process of writing is essentially idiosyncratic, writers usually work through a few basic phases. Students can be shown the different stages in the production of a piece of writing and be encouraged to discover what works best for them. Students can be shown the basic phases of the writing process: pre-writing, drafting, revising (editing and

proofreading), and presenting. The "writing process is the thinking processes that go on during writing" (Crowhurst, 1988, p. 7). The writing process can be summarized as follows.

Prewriting: using pre-writing techniques to gather ideas choosing a purpose and an audience ordering ideas;

Drafting putting ideas down on paper exploring new ideas during writing;

Revising Editing: considering ideas and organization;

Proofreading: correcting errors including sentence structure, usage, spelling, punctuation, and capitalization;

Polishing- *Presenting* Sharing writing.

Pre-writing: Pre-writing centers on engaging students in the writing process and helps them discover what is important or true for them about any subject at a particular time. Unfortunately, no one has found the perfect system for teaching the writing process. What is certain, however, is that if students are to become capable writers they must develop pre-drafting skills. Experienced writers have their own methods, but inexperienced writers need motivation to write and assistance in uncovering concepts, experiences, and ideas about which to write. During the pre-writing phase, students need direction--a topic or something to discuss in writing. Topics can come from teachers but students also need to develop the skill of using their own insights and experiences (and those of others) as writing material. Most often, the potential of possible topics is revealed through pre-drafting experiences such as the following:

- talking with and interviewing people who know something about a topic
- brainstorming
- focused free writing (i.e., nonstop writing on an intended subject to crystallize ideas and feelings)
- mapping and webbing (i.e., drawing thought webs or graphic representations of the topic)
- writing "leads" (i.e., creating three or more opening sentences as a way of determining the shape and scope of the topic)
- listing
- using reporters' questions (i.e., Who? What? When? Where? Why? How?)
- making similes and metaphors (i.e., asking "What is it like?")
- finding similarities and differences by comparing and contrasting concepts, pictures, and objects
- reading and examining written models to gather information about the topic or to notice genre, style, or tone
- viewing pictures, paintings, television, films, CD-ROMs, or slides
- using visualization and guided imagery
- listening to CDs, tapes, and records
- debating, role playing, and improvising
- exploring ideas in a journal.

Writers must not only think about what they are going to say, but also about how they are going to say it. During the pre-drafting stage students need to establish, at least tentatively, their **purpose, audience, and form**. Although experienced writers often say that content dictates form (i.e., that their ideas tell them which form to use), inexperienced writers need to realize that audience and purpose can help determine form. Students need to achieve competency in a variety of forms and consider a range of purposes and audiences such as the following.

Purposes

- to reflect, clarify, and explore ideas
- to express understanding
- to explain, inform, instruct, or report
- to describe
- to retell and narrate
- to state an opinion, evaluate, or convince

- to experiment.

Audiences

- specific person (e.g., self, teacher, friend, older person, younger person, parent)
- specific group (e.g., class, team/club, grade, age group, special interest group)
- general audience (e.g., school, community, adults, peers, students, unspecified).

Writing Forms

The ability to shape and organize ideas requires choosing a form that is appropriate to the audience and purpose. Students need experiences with a range of forms. Some examples include:

- personal experience narratives
- autobiographies
- biographies
- fictional narratives (e.g., short stories and novellas)
- diary entries
- journal entries
- learning logs
- poetry (e.g., ballads, acrostics, counted-syllable formats, free verse, song lyrics, other formats)
- parodies
- essays
- research reports
- reviews
- news stories
- editorials and opinions
- advertisements
- correspondence (e.g., friendly letters; invitations; letters of thanks, complaint, application, sympathy, inquiry, protest, congratulation, apology)
- scripts (e.g., skits, plays, radio plays, TV commercials)
- oral histories
- eulogies and last will and testaments
- speeches
- memoranda and messages
- instructions and advice
- rules and regulations
- minutes and forms
- pamphlets
- Résumés and cover letters.

Through an appropriate balance of experiences with the previous purposes, audiences, and forms, students can become competent in a range of writing tasks. As teachers plan their writing assignments, they should identify and define the appropriate learning objectives, address the elements of effective communication (subject, purpose, audience, and form), and establish guidelines or criteria to evaluate the outcome of the students' work.

Learning to Write by Writing

The best way to encourage students to become practiced writers is to have them write often and experience firsthand the phases of the writing process. By preparing for composing, actually composing, and revising, students learn the phases of the writing process. The gains of a process approach to writing can only be realized if teachers have an understanding of the various roles they play in helping students to become more proficient writers. The teacher is no longer simply a setter and corrector of assignments. The teacher is a writer along with the students, as well as an instructor, responder, coach, diagnostician, and supporter. Students need someone to encourage them, to support them during each phase of their writing, to read and respond to their

writing, and to provide direct instruction in the mechanics of writing. While students focus on the writing process, the teacher provides appropriate support.

Planning writing lessons. Successful teachers are invariably good planners and thinkers. They didn't get that way overnight. The road to success requires commitment and practice, especially of those skills involved in planning lessons, activities, and managing classroom behavior. Planning lessons is a fundamental skill all teachers must develop and hone, although implementation of this skill in actual teaching can, and usually does, take some time. Being able to develop an effective lesson plan format is a core skill for all who teach. So let's begin at the beginning. In my career as a teacher and teacher educator, I have read and evaluated thousands of lesson plans written by education students at all levels. On a consistent basis, I see mistakes that distort or weaken what the plans are

supposed to communicate. If you are serious about improving your skill in planning lessons, you should begin by first **thinking** carefully about what the lesson is supposed to accomplish. *There is no substitute for this.* In teaching students how to develop lesson plans, the following are mistakes I have observed that students make most often:

1. The objective of the lesson does not specify what the student will actually do that can be observed. Remember, an objective is a description of what a student does that forms the basis for making an inference about learning. Poorly written objectives lead to faulty inferences.

2. The lesson assessment is disconnected from the behavior indicated in the objective. An assessment in a lesson plan is simply a description of how the teacher will determine whether the objective has been accomplished. It must be based on the same behavior that is incorporated in the objective. Anything else is flawed.

3. The prerequisites are not specified or are inconsistent with what is actually required to succeed with the lesson. Prerequisites mean just that ó a statement of what a student *needs to know or be able to do* to succeed and accomplish the lesson objective. It is not easy to determine what is required, but it is necessary. Some research indicates that as much as 70% of learning is dependent on students having the appropriate prerequisites.

4. The materials specified in the lesson are extraneous to the actual described learning activities. This means keep the list of materials in line with what you actually plan to do. Overkilling with materials is not a virtue!

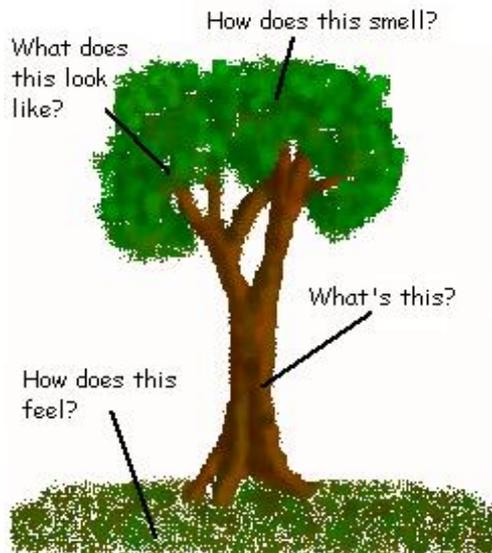
5. The instruction in which the teacher will engage is not efficient for the level of intended student learning. Efficiency is a measure that means getting more done with the same amount of effort, or the same amount with less effort. With so much to be learned, it should be obvious that instructional efficiency is paramount.

6. The student activities described in the lesson plan do not contribute in a direct and effective way to the lesson objective. Don't have your students engaged in activities just to keep them busy. Whatever you have your students do should contribute in a direct way to their accomplishing the lesson objective. A lesson plan that contains one or more of these mistakes needs rethinking and revision. Below is a rationale and guide to help you develop effective lesson plans and avoid the six common mistakes.

FIRST, YOU MUST KNOW HOW TO PLAN

The purpose of a lesson plan is really quite simple; it is to **communicate**. But, you might ask, communicate to whom? The answer to this question, on a practical basis, is YOU! The lesson plans you develop are to guide you in organizing your material and yourself for the purpose of helping your students achieve intended learning outcomes. Whether a lesson plan fits a particular format is not as relevant as whether or not it actually describes

what you want, and what you have determined is the best means to an end. If you write a lesson plan that can be interpreted or implemented in many different ways, it is probably not a very good plan. This leads one to conclude that a key principle in creating a lesson plan is **specificity**. It is sort of like saying, "almost any series of connecting roads will take you from Key West Florida to Anchorage Alaska, eventually." There is however, one any only one set of connecting



roads that represents the shortest and best route. Best means that, for example, getting to Anchorage by using an unreliable car is a different problem than getting there using a brand new car. What process one uses to get to a destination depends on available resources and time. So, if you agree that the purpose of a lesson plan is to communicate, then, in order to accomplish that purpose, the plan must contain a set of elements that are descriptive of the process. Let's look at what those elements should be.

A brief review on essays.

An *essay* is a short piece of writing that discusses, describes or analyzes one topic. It can discuss a subject directly or indirectly, seriously or humorously. It can describe personal opinions, or just report information. An essay can be written from any perspective, but essays are most commonly written in the first person (*I*), or third person (subjects that can be substituted with the *he, she, it, or they* pronouns). There are many different kinds of essays. The following are a some of the most common ones:

descriptive	cause/effect	argumentative
definition	narrative	critical
compare/contrast	process	

Descriptive: Examples: A **descriptive essay** could describe . . .

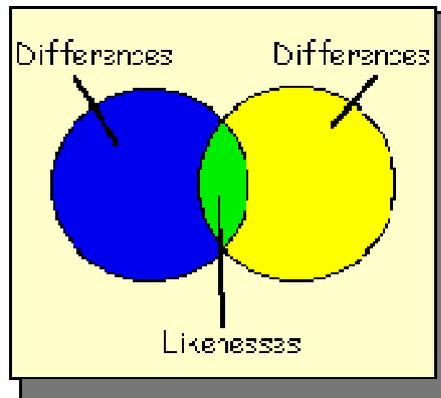
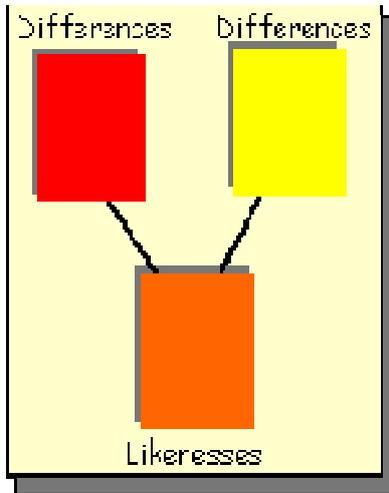


- * a tree in my backyard;
- * a visit to the children's ward of a hospital;
- * a hot fudge sundae;
- * what an athlete did in order to make it to the Olympics.

The **descriptive essay** provides details about how something looks, feels, tastes, smells, makes one feel, or sounds. It can also describe what something is, or how something happened. These essays generally use a lot of sensory details. The essay could be a list-like description that provides point by point details. Or, it could function as a story, keeping the reader interested in the plot and theme of the event described. **Definition:** Examples: A **definition essay** may try and define . . .

- * the meaning of an abstract concept, like *love*;
- * the true meaning and importance of *honesty*;
- * how the meaning of *family* goes deeper than just your blood relatives.

A **definition essay** attempts to define a specific term. It could try to pin down the meaning of a specific word, or define an abstract concept. The analysis goes deeper than a simple dictionary definition; it should attempt to explain *why* the term is defined as such. It could define the term directly, giving no information other than the explanation of the term. Or,



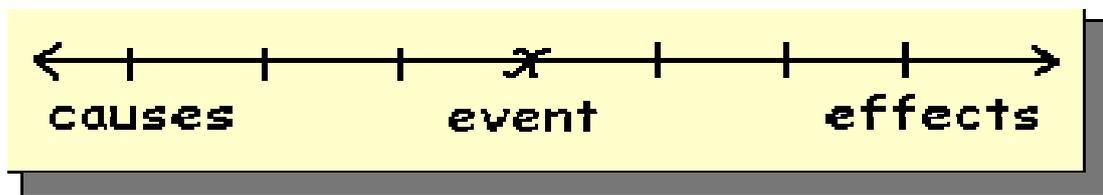
	Men	Women
Bones	larger	smaller
Skin	thicker	thinner
Fat	less fat	more fat

it could imply the definition of the term, telling a story that requires the

reader to infer the meaning. **Compare/Contrast:**

Examples: A **compare/contrast** essay may discuss . . .

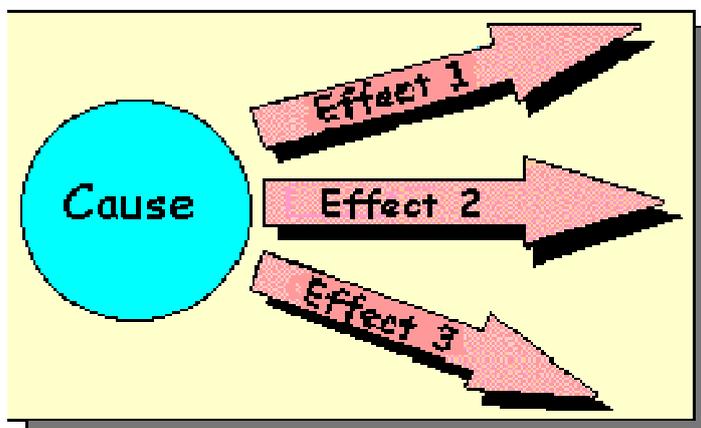
- * the likenesses and differences between two places, like New York City and Los Angeles;
- * the similarities and differences between two religions, like Christianity and Judaism;
- * two people, like my brother and myself.



The compare/contrast essay

discusses the similarities and differences between two things, people, concepts, places, etc. The essay could be an unbiased discussion, or an attempt to convince the reader of the benefits of one thing, person, or concept. It could also be written simply to entertain the reader, or to arrive at an insight into human nature. The essay could discuss both similarities and differences, or it could just focus on one or the other.

A **comparison essay** usually discusses the similarities between two things, while the **contrast essay** discusses the differences.



The next example shows an *effect essay*, one that would explain all the effects that happened after a specific event, like a volcanic eruption. ed homes, forests, and pollut

Narrative:

My brother always knew how to find the best fishing spots. I used to love to go fishing with him, because that's when he would tell me his secrets. He told me which fly was best for catching bass, and what time of day was

A **narrative essay** could tell of .

- * my brother's and my fishing trips;
- * a boring trip to the grocery store;
- * my near-death experience at the beach.

The **narrative essay** tells a story. It can also be called a "short story." Generally the narrative essay is conversational in style, and tells of a personal experience. It is most commonly written in the first person (uses *I*). This essay could tell of a single, life-shaping event, or simply a mundane daily experience.

Process:

Examples: A **process essay** may explain . . .

- * how to properly re-pot a plant;
- * how an individual came to appreciate hard work.

A **process essay** describes how something is done. It generally explains actions that should be performed in a series. It can explain in detail how to accomplish a specific task, or it can show how an individual came to a certain personal awareness. The

essay could be in the form of step-by-step instructions, or in story form, with the instructions/explanations subtly given along the way.

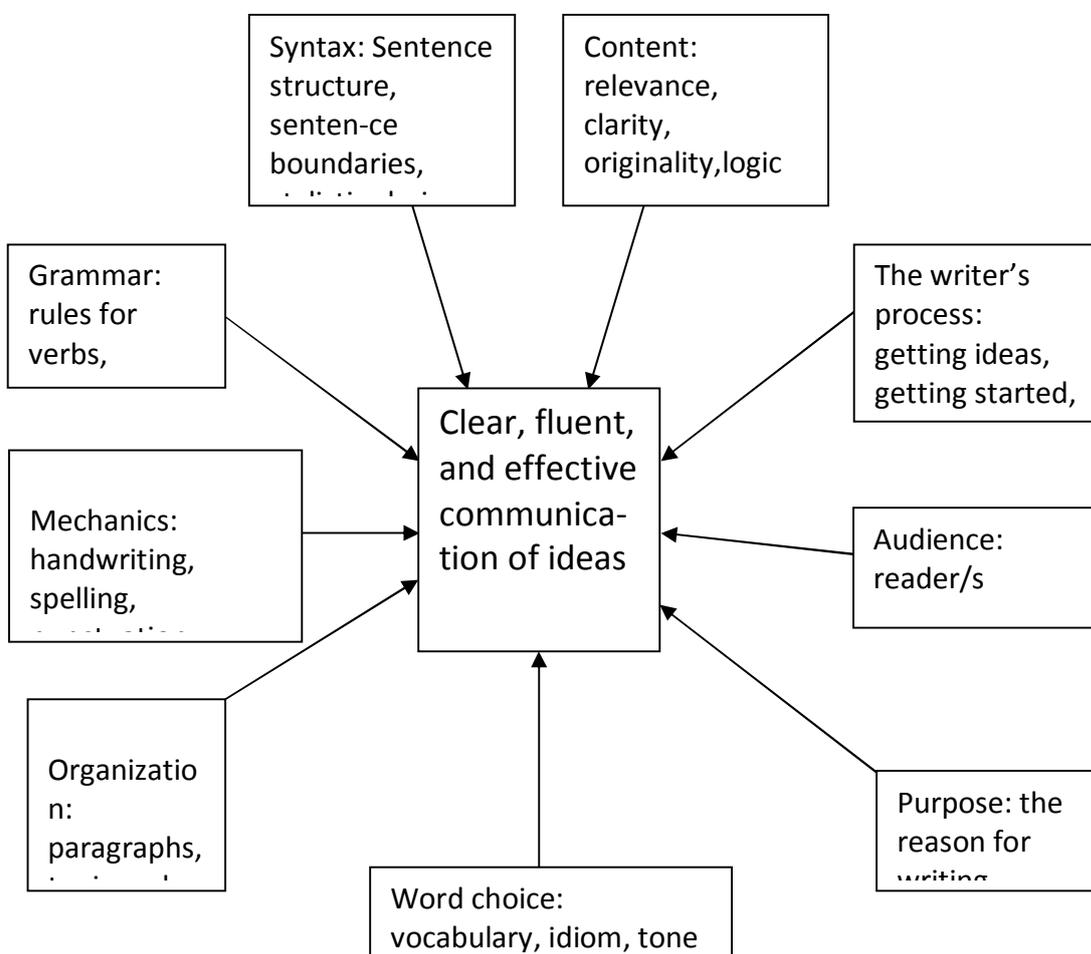
Recommendations:

- Focus on the content, avoiding language errors. Since the student will be deleting, adding, and re-writing a great part of the composition, making language mistakes would be a waste of time at this stage. On the other hand, focusing on the content separately from grammar helps us to deal with the rhetorical structure óan essential part of composing that is unfortunately neglected by English teachers most of the time.
- Make specific comments avoiding cryptic language, jargon and symbols, and respond with questions as well as statements. Just as our students should write with an audience in mind, it's our responsibility to show an awareness of the student writer as audience.
- Do not impose your own interpretation on the students' writing. They may misunderstand that what they have to say is not as important as what teacher wants to say. In this way the changes that follow may have nothing to do with what the student originally intended.
- Note strengths as well weaknesses. Do not allow the errors to distract you from commenting positively on a student's attempt to produce something to the best of his or her potential. It's easier to locate the weaknesses in a paper than the strengths, but we should never forget that doing justice to our students involves noting both the pos and the cons.
- Do not correct errors in grammar by providing the correct lexical or grammatical item. We should point out errors or categories of errors and let the students do the editing. Literature reveals that direct types of corrective procedures have proven ineffective.
- Diagnose some general problems along with the individual errors and work on them in class. We can develop, for example, supporting sentences from the students' own writing to deal with general trouble spots in grammar and mechanics.

Planning writing works.

When we learn a second language, we learn to communicate with other people: to understand them, talk to them, read what they have written and write to them. An integral part participating fully in a new cultural setting is learning how to communicate when the other person is not right there in front of us, listening to our words and looking at our gestures and facial expressions. Visitors to another country will often have to leave a note for the mailman, fill out a customs declaration form, give written instructions, or write a thank you letter. But the fact that people frequently have to communicate with each other in writing is not the only reason to include writing as a part of our second language syllabus. There is an additional and very important reason: writing helps our students learn. How? First, writing reinforces the grammatical structures, idioms, and vocabulary that we have been teaching our students. Second, when our students write, they also have a chance to be adventurous with the language, to go beyond what they have just learned to say, to take risks. Third, when they write, they necessarily become very involved with the new language; the effort to express ideas and the constant use of eye, hand, and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning. As writers struggle with what to put it down next or how to put it down on paper, they often discover something new to write or new way of expressing their idea. They discover a real need for finding the right word and the right sentence. The close relationship between writing and thinking makes writing a valuable part of any language course. A great deal of writing that goes on English as a Second Language (ESL) lessons, especially in an elementary level class, is sentence writing. Students repeat or complete given sentences to reinforce the structure, grammar, and vocabulary they have learned. They work with pattern sentences, performing substitutions or transformations. There is no answer to the question of how to teach writing in ESL classes. There are as many answers as there are teachers and teaching styles, or learners and learning styles. The following diagram shows what writers have to deal with as produce a piece of writing:

Producing a Piece of Writing



As teachers have stressed different features of the diagram, combining them with how they think writing is learned, they have developed a variety of approaches to the teaching of writing: the controlled to free approach, the free writing approach, the paragraph pattern approach, the grammar syntax organization approach, the communicative approach, the process approach.

Techniques in planning the class. Choosing classroom techniques is the day to day business of every writing teacher. Any decision we make such as whether to provide students with a first sentence or not, or whether to mark all errors or only a selected few is a decision about a teaching technique. The variety of techniques available to teachers nowadays in textbooks and training courses can be bewildering. Examining them with some basic questions in mind will help us sort out which ones suit our class, our student level, and the approach that underlies our own curriculum and our own teaching. How can writing help students learn their second language better? While writing and the process of struggling with language to get ideas down on paper is a valuable aid to the whole learning process, it should not be singled out as though it exists in a vacuum. There is rarely a situation in a real life in which we do not talk to someone or read something at some point in our writing process, before we write, while we are engaged in writing, or after we have written. When students complain, as they often do, about how difficult it is to write in a second language, they are talking not only about the difficulty of finding the right words and using the correct grammar but about the difficulty of finding and expressing ideas in a new language. For them the problem is with communicating and not just with writing.

A writing lesson need not, therefore, take place in heads down, silent classroom. For any task, we should consider what classroom activities will help them write it with more confidence. How can I find enough topics? ESL writing teachers think up a topic or search through the textbook to find one, ask students to write about it, mark all the papers, and then much too quickly move on and think up about another topic. A good topic seldom explored beyond the one composition that students write. What a waste that is! The longer students grapple with a subject, the more their command of the necessary vocabulary and idiom develops; the more they read on the topic, the more they learn about organizational structure and sentence structure; the more they discuss a topic, the more ideas they develop. Our problem isn't really finding enough topics; it's developing enough tasks from the good topics we have. Unfortunately, good topics are not always plentiful. One useful source that is often overlooked is the students themselves and their interests. We find out about these from class discussion, from questionnaires, or when we ask the students to write daily notes or to do ten minutes in class free writing. Wherever we originally get a topic from students, from a book, or from our own invention the first thing we should consider is not which one assignment will be best but how many assignments we can develop so that our students can explore the subject as fully as possible. A reading passage, a controlled composition, a sentence combining exercise, scrambled sentences to organize into a paragraph, a dictation, a lecture, role playing activities, a passage to copy, a letter to write, a form to fill out, or a graph to interpret all of these can emerge from the same topic instead one being about space travel and another about John and Mary's picnic. As the students do the tasks we assign, they thus learn both about the new language and about the subject the language is dealing with. So for us, finding enough topics means finding a few excellent topics of interest to students and building a whole series of assignments around them.

How can we help to make the subject matter meaningful? If we ask all our students to practice chronological order by writing an account of a fictional Mai Ling's daily routine by using the information in a list like: 7:00 a.m. gets up 8:00 a.m. has breakfast etc. we know, don't we, that as we read our students' compositions we will not be very interested in what they are writing but rather in how they are writing it and whether their spelling and grammar are accurate. But it is easy to make the same type of task much more interesting and meaningful. If, for instance, only

half the students in the class have list of Mai Ling's activities in front of them, there is then an information gap in the classroom. Those with the lists know something that others do not. When they write to those without the lists, they are therefore telling them write something that they did not know before. Students who read the completed written account can respond by trying to reconstruct the original list that provided the information. Or, students can write for each other about their own daily routine; the reader is then reading totally new and original subject matter. The reader certainly needs to find the subject matter of a piece of writing interesting, but even before that, the writer needs to be interested in the task. It therefore needs a purpose to it other than just language practice. Of course, personal topics (autobiography, family biography, pastimes, preferences, problems) always permit real information to be conveyed. But when topics move away from personal narrative, students find it helpful if we specify a communicative purpose for each piece of writing, not just, "Write a composition telling why you would like a new bicycle" but, "You have entered a competition to win a new bicycle. The winner will be the one who writes the most convincing reasons why he or she wants that bicycle. Try to win the competition." The same principle applies to guided and controlled writing. The assignment to "Write an advertisement for a beach resort and try to convince people to take a beach vacation instead of traveling abroad" gives the task more meaning for the writer. Consider also such directions as: "Change the verbs in the following passage to the past tense. Make any other changes necessary." The directions are clear, but they leave a student wondering if in English it is an entirely arbitrary matter whether we use present or past tense! Better directions would be: "the passage below contains a description of the daily activities of a man who is being watched by the police. You are a detective who observed the suspect yesterday. Write an account for your boss of what the suspect did."

So with every task we assign our students, we should consider how to make it as meaningful as possible for both the reader and the writer. The writer will put more thought and effort into a piece of writing that communicates his own interests and opinions to a reader, and a reader, whether the teacher or another student, will certainly be able to respond to a piece of writing if he or she is made interested in the content. The subject matter of the topics should, as far as possible, involve writers and readers in the communication of real meaning.

Who will read what students write? Traditionally, the teacher has been not so much the reader as the judge of students' writing. Teachers correct errors in grammar and spelling, they make evaluative comments like "Very good" or "Could be improved," and they rewrite the students' muddled sentences. Students have therefore seen writing as something where what they say is less important than the fact that the grammar and syntax follow the rules.

One problem that arises from this is that student writers rarely see that their writing is a piece of reading for someone else – a piece that should be clear and interesting to the reader. The presence of a reader – a real reader, that is, and not a judge – helps the writer establish the goal of his writing: communication with the reader. For each writing task, we should specify one or more of the following readers:

1. The teacher, helping in the process by reading and commenting on drafts and not correcting errors until a predetermined point in the process, as distinct from the teacher as test giver and evaluator, judging and making the final product;
2. One other student in the class, exchanging a draft with the writer and commenting on the draft he reads;
3. A group of student in the class, reading a draft or listening to it read aloud and commenting on it;
4. A real outside audience: such a reader is addressed by, for example, a letter to a student travel organization, a class magazine of student writing, writing samples displayed on a bulletin board, a letter to a pen pal, or a description of a national custom for a school in another country. My daughter's school regularly receives descriptions of Japanese customs and events - written in English by a class of eight or nine year old children in Japan

ó and displays the description on bulletin boards for all the English ó speaking children to read in their study of Japan;

5. An imaginary outside audience: with this type of reader, students engaged in a simulation game, a role ó playing activity in writing. Pretending that they are in a specific situation, they write for a specific reader, as in: "You are a landscape architect. Write a description for the city council of how you will design the new city park." In most cases, the real readers will, of course, be the students or the teacher. As readers they, too, can role ó play and respond to the piece of writing as a member of the city council might respond;
6. The student himself, writing a poem, a few notes, or draft for his eyes alone.

Ensuring that the students know whom they are writing for is an important step in the planning of any class. How are the students going to work together in the classroom? Once we have established topics, purpose, audience, and some integrated language activities, we have to think of our actual class time and what directions we will give the students. Will they work together as a class, in groups, in pairs, or individually? Will they write in class or at home? How will the class actually proceed once the subject matter for writing has been introduced?

Group work in the classroom has been shown to be valuable for native speakers who are less fearful when a few of their peers produce, and they welcome the unthreatening exchange of ideas that happens in small group. For second ó language learners, who need more time and opportunity to practice using the language with others, group work is especially beneficial. The problem is that the teacher might justifiably feel that with groups of students talking to each other, away from the teacher's direct supervision, a little of the teacher's control of the class is sacrificed. To some extent, it probably is. But when control means that it is mostly the teacher who is speaking and asking questions, we have to realize how drastically student participation and involvement drops. The students, not the teacher, need the practice in language use. Our planning should take that into account. Before we start a lesson, it is useful for us to decide exactly how we will set up the classroom and structure the activities. If we decide that working in pairs or small groups will be beneficial, then we also have to decide whether to select the pairs or groups ourselves or to let the students do that. Here we have to take into account the operations of the group of students do not work well together, we have to be prepared to adapt our plan: perhaps a whole ó class discussion, with all the students a chance to have their say in front of a large audience so that afterwards, in groups, the less vocal students continue and comment on the whole ó class discussion.

Group work can be as beneficial to the teacher as it is to the students. A small group of students can collaborate in the process of writing, for instance, a letter of inquiry to a Tourist Information Office. They all agree on the format and wording and all write out the agreed ó upon version. The teacher, however, collects only one version from each group to comment on. Later, the students in each group discuss the teacher's comments on their piece of writing and revise it accordingly. Thus the students benefit by helping each other with vocabulary, syntax, content, and organization and by doing a lot of speaking and listening to each other, and the teacher benefits by cutting down on the number of compositions he collected. It is important to remember while planning a writing lesson that while writing is often an individual activity, it does not always have to be so in the classroom. Students can interact with each other at all points in the process: before they write, while they are writing, and after they have written. How much time should teacher give students for their writing? Obviously, a lot of language activities and group work take a lot more time than the usual writing assignment. Before we can assess how much time to allow for a writing task, we have to examine what writers actually do when they write. Here are activities that a lot of writers say they do, though not necessarily all of these, and certainly not always in this order:

- ✚ They identify why they are writing;
- ✚ They identify whom they are writing for;
- ✚ They gather material through observing, brainstorming, making notes or lists, talking to others, and reading;

- ✚ They plan how to go about the task and how to organize the material;
- ✚ They write a draft;
- ✚ They read the draft critically;
- ✚ They revise;
- ✚ They prepare more drafts and then a final version;
- ✚ They proofread for errors.

These procedures do not, of course, occur in a step ó by ó step linear fashion. Even as we write a draft, we might change our plan, rewrite sections, or alter our intended audience. What is clear from our examination of what writers actually do is that time is a crucial element in the writing from speaking. Writers have time to make decisions, time to play around with ideas, time to construct and reconstruct sentences, to form and re ó form arguments, to experiment with new words, and above all, time to change their minds. Time should not be a constraint, and revision should not be a punishment for the writer but a built ó in part of the writing process.

So when we plan our curriculum, it is important for us to include enough time for students to explore a topic thoroughly and to try again. Students need to be encouraged to write òmessyö notes, to scribble ideas, to tear up what they have written and to start again. Only in that way will they be able to make their writing more interesting, organized, and accurate.

What does teacher do about errors? Our principal job as teachers of composition is not to search for errors ó that, after all, is what our students should be doing before they hand in their papers to us. But obviously, when our ESL students write, they do make a lot of mistakes and it becomes necessary for us to devise ways of dealing with the errors so that they do not become the sole focus of the piece of writing. A specific assignment will call for its own schedule and method of error correction. Some general strategies for all assignments follow. See errors as friends and not as enemies to be conquered; they tell you a great deal about your students and their learning processes, for in errors we can see evidence of the learning process at work. Use in studentsø writing to plan ahead: What do the students need to work on next? What are they having trouble with? Give your students time and opportunity to correct errors before you do. Find out if they can correct: Was the error due to carelessness, lack of knowledge of a structure? Establishing the causes of errors can be helpful to us and to our students. If your students are producing notes, lists, or a first draft, concentrate on meaning. Question only the really major errors, like jumbled sentences, which interfere with communication so much that you cannot work out what the student is trying to say. Let the students, with your help, identify and correct all the other errors later. This is difficult for teachers to do. Most of us automatically reach for a pen or pencil as soon as we pick up a piece of student writing, so we have to train ourselves to read without a pen in our hand and to consider what ideas the writer has tried to express.

Devise a system for indicating some or all of the errors in the studentø second or third draft. Explain the system to the students, along with the follow ó up procedures that you expect. Learn to expect errors that occur regularly at certain stages in a student are learning development. For instance, after learning the past tense forms of regular verbs, students will tend to over generalize and produce forms like *bringed* and *cuted*. View these as signs of learning rather than as unforgivable errors.

Questions:

- Speak about writing as a means of written communication.
- What are the objectives of developing writing skill?
- What is writing as Process?
- What type of writing Forms do you know?
- What is the connection of writing skill with other skills?
- Speak about the problems developing writing skill.
- What is a dictation? What are essays? Writing drills and exercises. Writing letters and official papers.

- How to correct writing work?

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Lecture Ten. Integrating Language Skills through Storytelling

Plan:

- ✚ Overviewing integrated skill through telling stories
- ✚ Theoretical Background of using stories for skills
- ✚ Methods
- ✚ The Suggested Training Model
- ✚ Conclusion and Recommendations

Overviewing integrated skill through telling stories

This paper reports the effectiveness of using storytelling in integrating the four language skills and enhancing the language proficiency level of adult English language learners. Forty adult English language learners participated in the present study on a voluntary basis. They were instructed and trained in the four language skills through a storytelling-based suggested integrated instructional model developed by the writer. The effectiveness of the integrated instructional model was measured by using a pre-posttest and applying Blake's modified gain ratio. The findings of the study indicated that the scores obtained by the participants on the post-test were higher than those on the pre-test. The suggested model proved to be effective in integrating the four language skills and enhancing the language proficiency level of the participants. Teachers of English generally acknowledge the close links among the four strands of the language arts: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. For the context of the present study, the integration of language skills is defined as the process in which each language skill is learned in terms of the others. Learning to listen, talk, read, and write always involves something-some content to listen, talk, read, or write about. The teaching of language skills cannot be left to chance. The integration of language skills can best be achieved through involving students in hands-on communicative language learning activities. The active involvement of students in communicative language learning activities enhances the integration of the language strands. According to Hiep (2007), the students' communicative skills are developed by interacting with each other on meaningful things. Shen (2003) argues that using 'Language + Communication (L+C) Approach' improves the learners' communicative skills. School environments for integrated learning must be safe and structured, with ample opportunities for long periods of reading, writing, and carrying on task- or topic-oriented conversations in the classroom. Teachers can serve as models by engaging in all of these activities with their students. Students can learn sub-skills efficiently within meaningful interactions with others and with print.

Theoretical Background of using stories for skills

Children's literature is not just for kids; it can be used successfully with adults. Its successful use in adult ESL programs is enhanced by age-sensitive book selections, clear class presentations, and the creative development of related lesson and unit plans. Children's literature can be one of the most effective teaching materials available for students of all ages and can be adapted to adult ESL programs (Smallwood, 1992). One of the different forms of children's literature is storytelling. It is sometimes called oral literature.

2.1 Integrating Language Skills

The issue of integration is clearly raised in language learning than in other school participants. Nunn (2006) asserts that the language learning theory has seen a gradual move towards a more holistic view of language use. According to Wagner (1985), integrating the language arts means providing natural learning situations in which listening, speaking, reading, and writing can be developed together for real purposes and real audiences. Literature on language learning supports the integration of the language arts and asserts its significance in developing language learners' communicative competence and enhancing their language proficiency level (e. g., Darn, 2006; Jing, 2006.)

The storytelling process is enjoyable for both teachers and learners. Storytelling emphasizes a positive, collaborative, and supportive classroom learning environment in which English language learners could develop skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. It decreases the students' affective filter and encourages their imagination and cooperation. Engaging English language learners in storytelling-based language learning activities encourages their oral expression and improves their oral communication skills. The integration of storytelling into the language arts curriculum could lead to an improvement of general language proficiency in listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing.

2.2 Storytelling and Language Learning

Storytelling is an old tradition that has existed since the dawn of time in every culture. It is as old as speech. According to Bruner (2002), storytelling is universal, perhaps the dominant form of discourse. Schell (2004) states, "Our daily communication with others and our understanding of history rely heavily on storytelling and storytellers" (p. 1). Green (2004) claims, "Indeed, some writers have even claimed that all knowledge comes in the form of stories" (p. 2). Zacher (2006) supports the finding that when people hear or read stories, they create their own identities and compare their ideas to those of others. Daiute (2004) writes that telling one's story creates self-concept and identity claims.

Storytelling as a pedagogical strategy is not new or unique. It is one of the most accessible teaching tools available to all teachers, especially language teachers. Storytelling is widely used in language teaching. It is a special activity that may be reserved for special times or for all times. It can be exploited at all learning levels and ages for varied purposes. Many studies have been conducted to look at the plausibility of storytelling in ESL and EFL classrooms (Lin, 2003; Yao, 2003). In ESL settings, many language teachers consider storytelling the cornerstone of their teaching profession. They use stories to enhance English language learners' abilities to acquire and integrate the four language arts: listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and raise their cultural awareness. Storytelling is beneficial in teaching and learning of languages. Using storytelling in ESL settings enhances the language teaching and learning process as well as the learners' process of transformation. Findings of studies utilizing storytelling showed that storytelling enhanced the integration of language skills improved students' reading comprehension and inferential skills (Craig, Hull, Haggart, & Crowder, 2001), built vocabulary developed students' literacy developed oral language skills improved students' writing skills enriched students' learning experience, encouraged students to express their ideas and thoughts helped students develop competence with print literature empowered students' critical and visual thinking (Gakhar & Thompson, 2007; Myatt, 2008), and improved social interactions and language outcomes. Using storytelling in ESL and EFL settings improves learners' general language proficiency in listening, reading, writing, and speaking. Storytelling is effective in fostering diversity in the classroom of students from different cultural, religious, and linguistic backgrounds. It enhances global networking by increasing the awareness and understanding of cultural differences. Storytelling emphasizes a positive, collaborative, and supportive classroom climate in which students could develop skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing. The benefits of using storytelling in the classroom include decreasing the students' affective filter, encouraging their imagination and cooperation, and enhancing their listening skills and verbal proficiency. Adult learners can benefit in many ways from storytelling. The stories are

contextually whole and inherently meaningful. They provide an authentic source of comprehensible English language input and can lower inhibitions. Storytelling can help develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Therefore, teachers should integrate storytelling into their teaching. After a story has been enjoyed and understood, numerous listening, speaking, reading, and writing opportunities can emerge. The teacher can adjust the story to learners' interests, needs, and levels of second or foreign language proficiency by carefully selecting appropriate books and by modifying the language during telling the story or reading it orally. Picture books offer the advantage of illustrations to explain much of the vocabulary. Repeated patterns provide an additional aid for language learning.

The writer strongly believes that storytelling, the art of orally sharing a story or experience to an audience, is one of the best techniques that can be used to integrate language skills. Storytelling is an invaluable teaching technique. The present study attempted to answer the question: "How effective is the use of storytelling in integrating the four language skills and enhancing the language proficiency level of adult English language learners?" In light of reviewing the most related literature, the present study was concerned with testing the following directional hypotheses:

1. There would be significant differences (favoring the post-test) between means of scores obtained by the participants on a pre-test, post-test comparison.
2. The suggested integrated instructional model of storytelling would prove to be effective in integrating the four language skills.
3. The suggested integrated instructional model of storytelling would prove to be effective in enhancing the participants' language proficiency level.

Methods

3.1 Participants

Forty male and female adult English language learners served as the participants of the present study. They were involved in the study on a voluntary basis. Their ages range from thirty to fifty years old. They were exposed to English as a foreign language for six to twelve years before moving to the United States of America.

Data Collection

The writer used two data collection instruments: A pre-posttest and a suggested training model. The Pre-post Test. The test utilized in the present study (Appendix 1) has been developed by the writer to be used as a pre-posttest. It has been designed to assess the participants' language proficiency level. It has been judged and piloted on a pilot study group (different from the group of the study). Modifications have been made in the light of the judges' comments and the results of the pilot study. The modified version of the test consisted of four components: listening, reading, writing, and telling a story. The maximum score on the test was one hundred points. The time allotted for responding to the questions on the test was three hours. The test has been constructed in light of the specific behavioral objectives and content area points of the training activities of the suggested integrated instructional model of storytelling. The instructions of the test were simple, brief, and clear. They contained information about the objective of the test, the time allowed for the participants to complete the test, and the directions of how to record their answers. The intra-rater reliability of the test was (0.96), and the statistical validity of the test, which was obtained from the square root of the reliability score, was (0.98). The scores of the participants on the test indicated that it has discriminated among the participants' language proficiency level. It was administered to the participants twice before training as a pre-test to measure the participants' language proficiency level, and after training as a post-test to measure the effectiveness of the suggested integrated instructional model of storytelling in integrating the four language skills and enhancing the participants' language proficiency level.

The Suggested Training Model

The training model utilized in the present study was a suggested integrated instructional model for the language arts that required careful planning and implementation. It capitalized on the centrality of language. Skills to be taught have been clearly defined and consciously included in

setting óup activities. The ideas and activities in the model have been designed to help students to communicate with each other; increase knowledge across the curriculum; strengthen creative abilities; develop fluency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing; and engage in both cooperative and independent learning.

The model contained fifteen stories adapted for classroom use. The writer used three types of stories: a) spoken stories (folktales) whose language is folksy, and b) written stories to be read and retold; some of these stories included repeated patterns: rhyming, as well as repetitions of words, refrains, or entire sentences to provide an additional aid for language learning, and c) picture book stories to offer the advantage of illustration to explain much of the vocabulary in the story. To enhance the students' communicative abilities, the writer used the following classroom interaction models: a) Teacher tells stories and students listen, b) Student(s) tell stories and other students listen, and c) A student tells a story and both the teacher and the other students listen. Most of the techniques used in telling stories to students aimed to encourage them to hear stories, see them, act them out, retell them, revise and rewrite them. In telling stories to the students, the writer used the following four techniques: picture book storytelling, total physical response storytelling, mime storytelling, and into- through beyond storytelling.

Before, during, and after telling the stories, the students were involved in a variety of communicative language learning activities that aimed at providing them with ample opportunities for active participation and enhancing their abilities to use the four language skills. These activities were classified as follows:

- a) oral activities (listening and speaking),
- b) writing activities,
- c) reading activities,
- d) visual activities,
- e) drama activities.

To train students to develop their own stories, the writer used these story eliciting techniques: a) imitating the models provided by the teacher as a storyteller; b) developing stories based on their own experiences; c) developing stories based on illustrations; d) translating stories from Arabic; and e) modifying the original stories they read at home as home assignment to make them more interesting and more humorous. The writer also used different activities to elicit stories from the students such as: story models, story web, story pyramid, story games, clustering, pairing-off, create and write, think-pair-share, draw and tell, and jigsaw puzzles.

The activities and tasks of the model were written on handouts. The activities were intended to be worked through **individually, in pairs, and in small groups**. During students' participation in the activities, the writer served as a facilitator, director and monitor, making sure that communication was taking place. Teaching the suggested integrated instructional model lasted for 28 hours (four hours per week) excluding the time devoted to the orientation of the training model and the administration of the pre-post test.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The current findings of the present study showed that the test designed and used in the present study has proven to be reliable and valid. They indicated that the participants' language level has been enhanced ($p < 0.001$). This means that the suggested integrated instructional model of storytelling has been effective in enhancing the participants' language proficiency level since the obtained gain ratio was (1.03). They also revealed that storytelling is a very effective teaching technique that can be utilized in improving adult language learners' proficiency level and integrate their language skills. The results were astonishing. The students were surprised at the richness of their writing and speaking, and pleased with the final results. They ended up liking storytelling. They were always eager to share their work with peers. They enjoyed storytelling from the time it was first introduced to them. They were glad to be telling a story that was of interest to them, excited to actively communicate with another person, and conscious of their success in communicating in English. Real-life dialogue activities including checking for understanding, stopping a conversation to ask for clarity, and circumlocution, spontaneously

occurred in class. Students began to ask for and give information to each other in English. Some students who could not work well in a group became good storytellers. Many of the students, who had known little success previously, found success by performing for others. It was exciting to see students communicating, and having fun doing it. Many of the students who were motivated spent a long time working on their story. Students mentioned that the vocabulary they learned during storytelling experiences provided them with a common language to facilitate discussion. They also mentioned that they had learned about plot, narration, dialogue, characterization, setting, and point of view by writing and performing stories and folktales and acquired many concepts through listening to, telling, and writing stories.

Storytelling led to story making. Students formed small groups of storytellers to produce and perform their own stories or folktales for other groups of students. In fact, the body of stories that grew from the students' initiatives expanded their collective folklore. The results of the present study provide empirical support for the importance of using storytelling in the language curriculum. Perhaps the most significant pedagogical implication to be drawn is that any language teacher can make a good use of storytelling in the classroom

Based on the findings and conclusion of the present study, the writer recommends the following

1. Storytelling should have its place in curriculum for English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL).
2. The links among the strands of the language arts must be actively nurtured, so that improvement in one strand carries over into another.
3. Classroom pair work and group work should be encouraged.

Appendix 1: An Integrated Language Skills Pre-Post Test on Storytelling

Name: _____ **Score:** _____

100

Instructions:

This is a test on the integrated language skills based on storytelling. It has been designed to assess your ability to listen with understanding, to read with understanding, tell, and write a story. It has four components: listening, reading, writing, and speaking. The maximum score on the test is 100. The time allotted for answering the test questions is three hours.

A) Listening (25 Points)

You are going to listen to a true story. Listen carefully. You will hear the story three times. The first time only listen. The second time, listen and complete the tasks. The third time, listen and check your answers.

Task 1: Complete the paragraph.

Juliana left Lima on Christmas Eve _____. She was _____ Year old. The plane broke up in a _____ . She _____ to the ground. Her collar _____ was broken. She decided to _____ of the jungle. She was in a bad trouble from _____ bites. She walked and swam down to a _____. She came to a _____. People found her and took her to a _____ in the next village.

Task 2: Complete the table.

Date / Time:

What happened?

On Christmas Eve Juliana left Lima by air

Forty-five minutes later í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í ..
 í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í

Juliana lay unconscious

The next morning í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í ..

One day í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í .

í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í ..she came to a river

For another five day í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í ..í í

It took Juliana í í í í to get out of the jungle

Task 3: Mark true [] or false []:

- [] 1. Juliana was on her way to see her uncle.
- [] 2. The trees saved Juliana.
- [] 3. She did not find her mother.
- [] 4. Her nick was broken.
- [] 5. She was wearing a long dress.
- [] 6. She found many things to eat.
- [] 7. The helicopters saw Juliana.
- [] 8. She got out of the jungle after ten day.

B) Reading (25 Points)

1. Read the story.* Then answer the questions.

There was a couple who used to go to England every year to shop in the beautiful stores. This was their twenty-fifth wedding anniversary. They both liked antiques and pottery and especially teacups. *One day in this beautiful shop they saw a beautiful teacup. They said, "May we see that? We've never seen one quite so beautiful."* As the lady handed it to them, suddenly the teacup spoke. "You don't understand," it said. "I haven't always been a teacup. There was a time when I was red and I was clay. My master took me and rolled me and patted me over and over and I yelled out, 'let me alone,' but he only smiled, 'Not yet'.

"Then I was placed on a spinning wheel," the teacup said, "and suddenly I was spun around and around and around. -Stop it! I'm getting dizzy!" I screamed. But the master only nodded and said, 'Not yet.' Then he put me in the oven. I never felt such heat. I wondered why he wanted to burn me, and I yelled, and I knocked at the door. I could see him through the opening and I could read his lips, as he shook his head, 'Not yet.' Finally the door opened, he put me on the shelf, and I began to cool. 'There, that's better,' I said. And he brushed and painted me all over. The fumes were horrible. I thought I would gag. 'Stop it, stop it!' I cried. He only nodded, 'Not yet.'

Then suddenly he put me back into the oven, not like the first one. This was twice as hot and I knew I would suffocate. I begged. I pleaded. I screamed. I cried. All the time I could see him through the opening nodding his head, saying, 'Not yet.' Then I knew there wasn't any hope. I would never make it. I was ready to give up. But the door opened and he took me out and placed me on the shelf. One hour later he handed me a mirror and said, "Look at yourself." And I did. I said, "That's not me; that couldn't be me. It's beautiful. I'm beautiful." "I want you to remember, then," he said, "I know it hurt to be rolled and patted, but if I just left you, you'd have dried up. I know it made you dizzy to spin around on the wheel, but if I had stopped, you would have crumbled. I know it hurt and it was hot and disagreeable in the oven, but if I hadn't put you there, you would have cracked. I know the fumes were bad when I brushed and painted you all over, but if I hadn't done that, you never would have hardened. You would not have had any color in your life, and if I hadn't put you back in that second oven, you wouldn't survive for very long because the hardness would not have held. Now you are a finished product. You are what I had in mind when I first began with you."

Questions:

1. Why did the couple use to go to London?
2. How many times have they been to London?
3. What happened when the lady handed the teacup to the couple?
4. What did the potter do with the piece of clay?
5. Why was the piece of clay placed on a spinning wheel?
6. How could the piece of clay see the potter from inside the oven?
7. Why did the potter put the teacup on the shelf?
8. What did the potter do with the teacup when it cooled down?
9. Why did the potter give the teacup a mirror?
10. What did the potter tell the teacup?
11. Complete the following sentences:

- a) If the potter had left the piece of clay without rolling and patting
- b) If the potter had stopped the spinning wheel
- c) If the potter hadn't put the teacup in the oven
- d) If the potter hadn't brushed and painted the teacup
- e) If the potter hadn't put the teacup back in second oven

2. Read the text and mark true [] or false []:

- [] 1. The couple liked antiques and pottery and especially teapots.
- [] 2. The master stopped rolling the clay when it yelled out.
- [] 3. The oven was not hot.
- [] 4. The potter put the piece of clay in the oven to burn it.
- [] 5. The fumes were good.

C) Writing (25 Points)

1. Write a story that goes with these pictures. (12 ½ Points)
2. Write a story about a bad day or dream in your life. (12 ½ Points)

D) Speaking (25 Points)

1. Say your name. Then tell a story that you know or tell about a bad or a happy day in your life.
2. Look at the pictures and tell a story. Begin like this. Last week a man

Appendix 2: A Sample of the Activities Included in the Suggested Integrated Instructional Model

Activity 6

Objectives: By the time this activity is completed, you are expected to be able to:

1. Demonstrate comprehension by answering some comprehension questions through discussion;
2. Identify character traits by filling out a character chart;
3. Report your character chart to the class;
4. Orally express your feelings pretending to be one of the two children in the story;
5. Write a thank-you note to Jamaica imagining that you are Kristin;
6. Summarize the story of Jamaica using a given comprehension chart;
7. Orally compare your comprehension chart with another student;
8. Use your comprehension chart to retell the story to the class;
9. Tell your partner about something special you have ever found;
10. Write a letter to Jamaica to tell her about it;
11. Write a similar story that includes: a beginning, a middle and an end of the story; and
12. Tell your story to the class.

Questions:

- ✚ Overviewing integrated skill through telling stories
- ✚ What is the theoretical Background of using stories for skills?
- ✚ Which methods are used?
- ✚ What is the Suggested Training Model?
- ✚ What is your conclusion?

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