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«LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES, TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES»
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Introduction

As we are aware, learning foreign languages, particularly English is becoming more and more crucial in our modernized era. From early years of our Independence Day, the president of Uzbekistan paid more attention to the young learners. Our country opened many opportunities for pupils to enhance their understanding of foreign languages. A decree “On measures to further improvement of foreign language learning system” signed on December 10, 2012 by the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan can be a good example of it. Currently we can witness that many Uzbek pupils are studying abroad with various scholarships that are arranged by President.¹ Furthermore, our president have stated that our children must be stronger, better educated and really need to be happy.² And we teachers should feel the responsibility of being dedicated and diligent in order to grow up such talented students.

In today’s competitive world, knowing foreign languages and the ability to communicate and understand spoken speech and written texts is a quality of an individual who wants to succeed in this society and get a myriad of information on any sphere.

The actuality of the graduate qualification work

In order to be a professional English teacher it is vitally important to know the strategies, methods and certain effective tools and techniques of foreign language teaching. New approaches and strategies are being used in English classrooms every day. The ability to teach English through various activities and new technical innovations are the demand of our today’s world. We can see that teachers all around the globe teaching English to their pupils with latest and

¹ Karimov I. A. A Decree “On measures to Further Improvement of Foreign Language Learning System”. – Toshkent, 2012. –P. 3-4.

² Karimov I. A. Uzbekistan on the Threshold of the 21st century. –Tashkent, 1998. –P. 98.

most efficient ways. Hence, it is our responsibility to know more information about teaching English and enhancing students' productivity.

The subject and object of graduate qualification work

While writing our final qualification work we have learned and used various literatures concerning tools and techniques of foreign language teaching and their analysis, which were published by Cambridge University Press. This is the subject of our work. The object of work can be the materials which give us information about the implementation of teaching English through effective tools and techniques.

The aim of the graduate qualification work

As we have already mentioned above, the most significant aspect of teaching English is via effective tools and techniques and the aim of our work is to find out recent and helpful ways of teaching English. Furthermore, we intended to distribute various effective lessons that are held by professional English teachers.

The tasks of graduate qualification work

- to define main role and necessity of tools and techniques in foreign language classes
- to find out the impact of various interaction patterns, visual aids in teaching English
- to enrich pupils' vocabulary word stock through various activities and strategies
- to develop learners awareness of the target language

The novelty of the graduate qualification work

During our practical research work we found out many approaches, methods and activities which can have great influence on improving students' language skills. After using them in English classes we knew which one was effective and engaging for students and which had less impact on learning. Besides, we observed some vocabulary classes in which teachers used various activities,

tools and techniques which we are going to express in this final qualification paper. We think that this can make the novelty of our work.

Theoretical and practical value of the graduate qualification work

While working on our graduate qualification work we come across the view points of many popular researchers, teachers who have great experience on this topic. We compared their ideas and experiences with one another and came to some conclusions. This can serve as a theoretical value of our final qualification paper. Following this we held and observed some English classes in which these tools and techniques were used. And this can be a practical part of our final qualification work.

The content of graduate qualification work

This final qualification paper consists of introduction, two chapters, conclusion and a list of used literature. There are 66 pages.

CHAPTER I. LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES, TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES

1.1. The main role and the necessity of tools and techniques in foreign language classes

According to the definition of Edward Anthony techniques are the specific activities manifested in the classroom that are consistent with the method and therefore are in the harmony with an approach as well. Even before Anthony discussed and defined the term, the language teaching literature generally accepted technique as a super-ordinate term to refer to various activities that either teachers or learners perform in the classroom. In other words, techniques include all tasks and activities. They are almost always planned and deliberate.³ They are the product of a choice made by the teacher. And they can, for your purposes as a language teacher, comfortably refer to the pedagogical units or components of a classroom session. You can think of a lesson as consisting of a number of techniques, some teacher-centered, some learner-centered, some production-oriented, some comprehension-oriented, some clustering together to form a task, and some as a task in and of themselves⁴.

Technique (also commonly referred to by other terms): Any wide variety of exercises, activities or tasks used in the language classroom for realizing lesson objectives. Besides, traditional classroom techniques for teaching pronunciation include imitation (“Repeat after me”), articulatory explanation (“Touch your tongue to the roof of your mouth”), minimal pair exercises (ship versus sheep), and reading aloud activities. More recent techniques include the use of kinesthetic reinforcement and drama. In addition, many gadgets, games, songs, and other items that are part of every language teacher’s toolbox have been adapted for teaching pronunciation. Last but not least, technology continues to

³ Anthony E. M. Approach, method and technique. - English Language Teaching 17, 1963. -P. 67.

⁴ Brown H. D. Teaching by principles: an interactive approach to language pedagogy. -San Francisco: Pearson Education. 2007. -P. 47.

enhance pronunciation instruction through access to models, opportunity for practice, and feedback for the learner. The term technique was introduced and defined but it was not noted in passing that some other commonly used term are considered by some to be virtually synonymous. These other terms include: task, procedure, activity, behavior, exercise and even strategy. Now we are going to give explanations to all these terms of techniques. Task usually refers to the specialized form of technique or series of techniques closely allied with communicative curricula, and as such must minimally have communicative goals. It focuses on the authentic use of language for meaningful communicative purpose beyond the language classroom. Activity may refer to virtually anything that learners do in the classroom. We usually refer to a reasonably unified set of student behavior, limited in time, proceeded by some direction from the teacher, with a particular objective. Activities include: role plays, drills, games, peer-editing, small group information-gap exercise, and much more. Because an activity implies some sort of active performance on the part of the learners, it is generally not used to refer to certain teacher behaviors like saying “good morning”, maintaining eye contact with students, explaining a grammar point, or writing a list of words on the chalkboard. Such teacher behavior, however can indeed be referred to as technique. And the next term is procedure. Richards and Rodgers used the term procedure to encompass “the actual moment-to-moment techniques, practices, and behavior that operate in teaching a language according to a particular method”. Procedures from this definition, include techniques. Thus, for Richards and Rodgers, this appears to be a catchall term, a thing for holding many small objects or a group of descriptions that includes different things and that does not state clearly what is included or not.⁵ Practice, behavior, exercise, strategy is defined as technique. Over time, students will develop their own learning strategies - which includes the ways in which they learn and remember information, how they study for tests and how they make the best use

⁵ Richards J. C and Rodgers T. S. Approaches and methods in language teaching. –Cambridge University Press, 2001. -P. 134.

of their learning strengths. Many students may not even be aware that they are using these strategies as it may have become a natural and automatic process for them. There are some strategies, on the other hand, that students may need to be taught, or at least brought to their attention. In this section we will discuss learning styles and strategies and how they apply to the language classroom. The strategies a student uses to learn a second language depend greatly on their individual learning style. Some students are outgoing and will experiment freely and frequently while learning a new language. Other students are more introverted, preferring a more individual, private approach to the way they learn and practice the language. The strategies used by an outgoing student may vary significantly when compared with the strategies of a more reserved student. The phrase 'learning style' refers to a person's general approach to learning and is dependent upon that person's cognitive, affective and behavioral characteristics.⁶

Over the years, several rubrics have been used to classify techniques. They are: from manipulation to communication. Techniques can be thought of as existing along a continuum of possibilities between highly manipulative and very communicative. At the extreme end of the manipulative side, a technique is totally controlled by the teacher and requires a predicted response from the students. Choral repetition and cued substitution drills are examples of oral techniques at this extreme. Other examples are dictation (listening and writing) and reading aloud. At the communicative extreme, students' responses are completely open-ended and therefore unpredictable. Examples include storytelling, brainstorming, role-plays, certain games etc. Teachers are usually put into a less controlled role here, as students become free to be creative with their responses and interactions with other students.⁷ However, keep in mind that a modicum of teacher control, whether overt or covert, should always be present

⁶Brown H. D. Teaching by principles: an interactive approach to language pedagogy. - San Francisco: Pearson Education, 2007. -P. 94.

⁷Larsen-Freeman D and Anderson M. Techniques and principles in language teaching.- Oxford University Press, 2001. -P. 156.

in the classroom. It is important to remember that manipulation-communication scale does not correspond to the beginning-through-advanced proficiency continuum. For too many years the language teaching profession labored under the incorrect assumption that beginners must have isolated, mechanical bits and pieces of language programmed into them (typically through memorized audio-lingual drill) and that only later could “real” communication take place. The whole CLT approach accentuates a diametrically opposed philosophy: that genuine communication can take place from the very first day of a language class. The extent to which a communicative technique can sustain itself for long periods of time in the classroom, will often be a factor of the overall proficiency level of your class. But even at the beginning level, students can engage in meaningful communication for significant stretches of time. Communicative techniques for beginners involve approximately small chunks of language and build in some repetition of patterns for establishing fluency. On one of the very first days of the class, for example, students can be taught to ask and respond to questions such as: How are you? What is your name? Where do you live? How old are you?⁸

At an intermediate level, students can get involved in a “mixer” in which they go around the room, getting information from, say, four or five other students. At the more advanced levels, a simple question or problem posed by the teacher can lead to sustained, meaningful student communication between student and teacher, in pairs and small groups.

The second one is mechanical, meaningful and communicative drills. In the decades of the 1940s through the 1960s, language pedagogy was obsessed with the drill. Great proportions of class time were often spend drilling: repeating, repeating, repeating, repeating. Today, thankfully, we have developed teaching practices that make only minimal-or optimal-use of such drilling.

A drill may be defined as a technique that focuses on a minimal number (usually one or two) of language forms (grammatical or phonological structures)

⁸ Littlewood W. Communicative language teaching. -Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1981. -P. 189.

through some type of repetition. Drills are commonly done chorally (the whole class repeating in unison) or individually. And they can take the form of simple repetition drills, substitution drills, and even the rather horrifying aberration known as the moving slot substitution drill. In a substitution drill, the teacher provides a sentence, students repeat; teacher cues students to change one word or structure in the sentence, students repeat. For example: Teacher says: "I went to the party yesterday" and students respond "I went to the party yesterday". Then, teacher says the word cinema and students continue as "I went to the cinema yesterday". Or, teacher says "hospital" and learners respond "I went to the hospital yesterday".⁹

Technique is implementational meaning that is something actually takes place in language teaching or learning in the classroom. Technique as super-ordinate term refers to various activities that either teachers or learners perform in the classroom. In other words, techniques include all tasks and activities. They are almost always planned and deliberate. They are the product of a choice made by the teacher. And they can, for your purposes as a language teacher, comfortably refer to the pedagogical units or components of a classroom session. You can think of a lesson as consisting of a number of techniques, some teacher centered, some learner centered, some production-orientated, some comprehension orientated, some clustering together to form a task, and some as a task in and of themselves. In a moving slot substitution drill, the slot moves, as in the following example: Teacher may say "I went to the store yesterday" and learners respond in the same way by saying "I went to the store yesterday". Then, teacher says "bank" and students "I went to the bank yesterday". In the next step teacher says only pronoun "he" and students should put "he" instead of "I".¹⁰

By this time, if students have not thrown up their arms in the frustration of having to retain each previous sentence alteration, they may have accomplished

⁹Benson. P. Teaching and searching autonomy in language learning. - London: Longman, 2001. -P. 342.

¹⁰Brown H. D. Teaching by principles: an interactive approach to language pedagogy. - San Francisco: Pearson Education, 2007. -P. 157.

only the feat of overworking their short-term memories. They certainly have gained no communicative ability.

Anthony distinguished the terms approach, method and technique as they apply to language teaching. For Anthony, an approach reflects a theoretical model or research paradigm. It provides a broad philosophical perspective on language teaching, such as found in the justifications for the direct method, the reading approach, or the communicative approach. A method, on the other hand, is a set of procedures for Anthony. It spells out rather precisely in a step-by-step manner how to teach second or foreign language. A method is more specific than an approach but less specific than a technique. Anthony's methods are typically compatible with one (or sometimes two) approaches. A technique, in Anthony's system is a specific classroom activity. It thus represents the most specific and concrete of the three concepts that he discusses. Some techniques are widely used and found in many methods (e.g., dictation, listen and repeat drills, and read the passage and fill the blanks); other techniques, however, are specific to or characteristic of a given method.¹¹ Here are some methods which have been using in English classes from past till now: *The grammar-translation method* also known as classical method was based on the belief that different kinds of knowledge were located in separate sections of the brain. The main goal for learning language was not for speaking and communication. The driving force was to exercise the mind and at the same time to be able to read in that language. The name of the method, grammar-translation, captures the main emphasis of this method (e.g., the study of grammatical aspects of language and the use of translation as a means of ascertaining comprehension).¹² Communicating in the language was not a goal, so classes were taught primarily in the students' native language, and the teacher made no effort to emphasize correct pronunciation. Grammar study was the focus of the lessons, with much rote memorization of grammatical aspects such as verb conjugations and

¹¹Anthony E. M. Approach, method and technique. - English Language Teaching 17, 1963. -P. 27.

¹²Stern. H. Fundamental concepts of language teaching. -Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1983. -P. 84.

recitation of the rules that described language functions. It was not surprising, then, that even students who spent several years studying foreign language were not able to speak that language. *The direct method* was a complete departure from the grammar-translation method. The emphasis is on the direct associations the student makes between objects and concepts and corresponding words on the target language. The use of native language, as in the grammar-translation method, is avoided; the use of the target language is emphasized all the times. In this method, the primary goals are for students to think and speak the language; thus no use of the native language is allowed. Teachers employ objects, visuals and realia to make the input comprehensible. Instruction revolves around specific topics. Aspects of grammar are taught inductively through the handling of the topic. For example, when studying different types of sports that people practice, students are also introduced to verbs. The focus is not verbs and verb conjugations, but a context is a logical way to expose students to aspects of grammar. By much exposure and handling of the content, students inductively learn appropriate use of different verbs that relate to sports. In addition, cultural aspects of the countries where the target language is spoken are also included in the lessons.¹³ *In the audio-lingual method*, the emphasis was on the memorization of a series of dialogues and the rote of practice of language structures. The basic premises on which the method was based were that language is speech, not writing, and language is a set of habits. It was believed that much practice of the dialogues would develop oral language proficiency. The use of native language was avoided. The method became very popular in the 1960s. Language laboratories began to surge and students were required to listen to audiotapes and repeat dialogues that capture the aspects of daily living. In addition, specific structural patterns of the language studied were embedded in those dialogues.¹⁴ Students were required to practice in a number of practice drills designed to help them memorize the structures and be able to plug other

¹³ Krause C. *The direct method in modern languages*. –New York: Charles Scribner, 1916. –P. 216.

¹⁴ Rivers W. *Teaching Foreign Language Skills*. –Chicago: Chicago University Press, 1968. –P. 189.

words into the structure. Although the intent was to develop fluent and proficient speakers by providing much oral practice of the dialogues and the use of numerous drills to help in this endeavor, the reality was that language proficiency was not the outcome. Years later, students, who studied with audio-lingual method still remembered dialogues but could not speak foreign language they had studied. Thus, the method was not successful at accomplishing the main goal. In *Suggestopedia* the classroom atmosphere is crucial. Creating a relaxed, non-threatening learning environment is essential for its success. The goal is that students will assimilate the content of the lessons without feeling any type of stress and fatigue. Classrooms are equipped with seating arrangements and dim lighting in an effort to provide an inviting and appealing environment. Soothing music is employed to invite relaxation and allow students to feel comfortable in the language classroom. The use of the native language is also allowed, especially in giving instructions and to create that welcoming atmosphere. Based on the belief that how students feel about learning will make difference in the learning process. Suggestopedia takes into consideration the effective domain. It could be said that the philosophy of the little engine that could – “I think I can, I think I can, I know I can” – is one of the basic underlying principles of Suggestopedia. If the students feel they can learn, they will.¹⁵ *The silent way* requires that the teacher remain silent much of the time, thus its time. In this method, students are responsible for their own learning. Based on the belief that students are initiators of learning and capable of independently acquiring language, the silent way provides a classroom environment in which this can take place. The teacher models once, and the students are then given the opportunity to work together to try to reproduce what have been modeled. Beginners are initially taught the sounds of the new language from color-coded sound charts.¹⁶ Next, students focus on the language

¹⁵Larsen-Freeman D and Anderson M. Techniques and principles in language teaching. –Oxford University Press, 2001. -P. 317.

¹⁶ Gettegnno. C. Teaching foreign language in schools. The silent way. –New York: Educational Solutions, 1972. -P. 164.

structures, sometimes using colored, plastic rods to visually represent parts of words and sentences. As students begin to understand more of the language, they are taught stories using rods as props. At all stages of the method, the teacher models as little as possible, and students try to repeat after careful listening with help from each other. The teacher leads them toward correct responses by nods or negative head shakes. The silent way is a fairly complex method that requires the teacher to receive extensive training in the use of methodology. Students also need to be well versed in the use of the charts and the rods to participate effectively in the lesson.

The total physical response (TPR) method is based on the principle that people learn better when they are involved physically as well as mentally. In TPR, students are required to respond nonverbally (physically) to a series of commands. As the teacher gives a command and the students respond physically, the teacher ascertains students' comprehension of the command.¹⁷ Initially, the teacher begins with simple commands such as: Teacher models "stand up", student responds by standing up. (physical response, not verbal). Teacher: Walk to the front of the room and student responds by walking to the front of the room. Once the students have practiced a number of times, the teacher simply gives the command and the students respond. Eventually the students will give the commands, thus developing oral proficiency. TPR is an excellent method to employ with students who are in the preproduction or silent stage of language development. Students who are not yet speaking are able to be involved in the lesson and respond nonverbally. Thus, these students begin to feel a sense of belonging and success as they participate in the lessons. The students benefit from the involvement in the lessons, and the teachers are able to ascertain that whether or not students are developing listening comprehension.¹⁸

The natural approach. The main goal of this method is to develop immediate communicative competency. For this reason, most, if not all, classroom

¹⁷ Savage. K. L. Total physical response: ESL techniques. -Longman Publishing Group, 1992.-P. 67.

¹⁸ Asher. J. Learning another language through actions. -CA: Oaks production, 2009. -P. 44.

activities are designed to encourage communication. As Terrell suggested that the entire class period be devoted to communication activities rather than to explanation of grammatical aspects of language. This method is based on Krashen's monitor model, so it should be easy to understand why the emphasis would be on providing the students with the opportunity to acquire language rather than forcing them to learn it, by emphasizing language form.¹⁹ In this method, the key to comprehension and oral production is the acquisition of vocabulary. Thus, much opportunity for listening/speaking is afforded to students. Class time is not devoted to grammatical lectures or mechanical exercises. Any explanation and practice of linguistic forms should be done outside of class for the most part. Outside work is planned carefully and structured to provide the necessary practice with language forms.

A comprehensive taxonomy of common techniques for language teaching, adapted from Crookes and Chaudron. Three broad categories are used: controlled and free. Bearing in the mind the somewhat slippery concept of control referred to above, you may be able to gain a broad picture from this taxonomy of a range of classroom language teaching techniques.²⁰ Controlled techniques include: *Warm-up*: Mimes, dance, songs, jokes, play. This activity gets the students stimulated, relaxed, motivated, attentive or otherwise engaged and ready for the lesson. It does not necessarily involve use of the target language. *Setting*: Focusing in on lesson topic. Teacher directs attention to the topic by verbal or non-verbal evocation of the context relevant to the context by questioning or miming or picture presentation, possibly by tape recording of situations and people. *Organizational*: Structuring the lesson or class activities include disciplinary action, organization of class furniture and seating, general procedures for class interaction and performance, structure and purpose of the lesson. *Context explanation*: Grammatical, phonological, lexical (vocabulary),

¹⁹ Krashen, S and Terrell, T. The natural approach: language acquisition in the classroom. -Hayward: The Alemany Press, 1983. -P. 165.

²⁰ Crookes G and Chaudron C. Guidelines for Classroom Language Teaching. -New York: Newbury House, 1991. -P. 378.

sociolinguistic, pragmatic, or any other aspects of the language. *Role-play demonstration*: Selected students or teacher illustrate the procedures to be applied in the lesson segment to follow. Includes brief illustration of language or other content to be incorporated. *Dialogue/Narrative presentation*: Reading or listening passage presented for passive reception. No implication of student production or other identification of specific target forms or functions. *Dialogue/Narrative recitation*: Reciting previously known or prepared text, either in unison or individually. *Reading aloud*: Reading directly from a given text. *Checking*: Teacher either circulating or guiding the correction of students' work, providing a feedback as an activity rather than within another activity. *Question-answer display*: Activity involving prompting of student responses by means of display questions (teacher or questioner already knows the response or has a very limited set of expectations for the appropriate response). Distinguished from referential questions by likelihood of the questioner's knowledge of the response and the speaker's awareness of that fact.²¹ *Drill*: Typical language activity involving fixed patterns of teacher prompting and student responding, usually with repetition, substitution and other mechanical alterations. Typically with little meaning attached. *Translation*: Student or teacher provision of L1 or L2 translation of given text. *Dictation*: Student writing down orally presented text. *Copying*: Student writing down the text presenting visually. *Identification*: Student picking out and producing/labeling or otherwise identifying a specific target form, function, definition, or other lesson-related item. *Recognition*: Student identifying forms, as in Identification (i.e., checking off items, drawing symbols, rearranging symbols), but without a verbal response. *Review*: Teacher-led review of previous week/month or other period as a formal summary and type of test of student recall performance. *Testing*: Formal testing procedures to evaluate student progress. *Meaningful drill*: Drill activity involving responses with meaningful choices, as in the

²¹ Celce-Mercia M. Teaching English as a second/foreign language (2nd ad). –New York: Newbury House, 1991. –P. 378.

reference to different information.²² Distinguished from information exchange by the regulated sequence and general forms of responses. *Brainstorming*: A form of preparation for the lesson, like Setting, which involves free, undirected contribution by the students and teacher on a given topic, to generate multiple associations without linking them; no explicit analysis or interpretation by the teacher. *Story telling* (especially student-generated): not necessarily lesson-based, a length presentation of story by teacher or student. May be used to maintain attention, motivate, or as lengthy practice. *Question-answer, referential*: Activity involving prompting of responses by means of referential questions (i.e., the questioner does not know beforehand the response information). Distinguished from Question-answer, display. *Cued narrative/dialogue*: Student production of narrative or dialogue following cues from miming, cue cards, pictures or other stimuli related narrative/dialogue (i.e., meta-language requesting functional acts.) *Information transfer*: Application from one mode (e.g., visual) to another (e.g., writing), which involves some transformation of information (e.g., students fill out diagram while listening to description). Distinguished from Identification in that the student is expected to transform and reinterpret the language or information. *Information exchange*: Task involving two-way communication as in information-gap exercises, when one or both parties (or a larger group) must share information to achieve some goal. Distinguished from question-answer, referential, in that sharing of information is critical for the task. *Wrap up*: Brief teacher- or student-produced summary of point and/or items that have been practiced or learned. *Narration/Exposition*: Presentation of a story or explanation derived from prior stimuli. Distinguished from cued narrative because of lack of immediate stimulus. *Preparation*: Student study, silent reading, pair-planning and rehearsing, preparing for later activity. Usually a student-directed or –orientated project.

²² Crookes. G and Chaudron C. Guidelines for classroom language teaching. –New York: Newbury House, 1991. –P. 382.

Free techniques are: *Role-play*: Relatively free acting out of specified roles and functions. Distinguished from Cued dialogues by the fact that cueing is provided only minimally at the beginning and not during the activity. *Games*: Various kind of language activity not like other previously defined activities (e.g., board and dice games making words).²³ *Report*: Report of student-prepared exposition on books, experiences, project work without immediate stimulus, and elaborated on according to student interests. Akin to composition in writing mode. *Problem solving*: Activity involving specified problem and limitations of means to resolve it; requires to corporation on part of participants in small or large group. *Drama*: Planned dramatic rendition of play, skit, story etc. *Simulation*: Activity involving complex interaction between groups and individuals based on simulation of real-life actions and experiences. *Interview*: A student is directed to get information from another student or students. *Discussion*: Debate or other form of grouped discussion of specified topic, with or without specified sides/positions of prearranged. *Composition*: As in Report (verbal), written development of ideas, story, or other exposition. *A Propos*: Conversation or other socially orientated interaction/speech by the teacher, students or even visitors, on general real-life topics. Typically authentic or genuine.

When we speak about tools, we have to mention that they are also deemed as the most significant part of the lesson. Tools and materials are the prime sources which is valuable to make the lesson more efficient and engaging. From remote past till now it can be seen that various tools are being used by teachers. They help students to learn and memorize every new theme and topics perfectly and students may acquire needed knowledge readily. Here some examples are given for tools: The most obvious and the most common material support for language instructions comes through *textbooks*. Most likely, as a relatively new teacher, your first concern will not be to choose a textbook, but rather to find creative use

²³Celce-Mercia M. Teaching English as a second/foreign language (2nd ad). –New York: Newbury House, 1991. –P. 379.

for the textbook that has been handed to you by your supervisor. So, even though you may have idealistic thoughts about other (or better) textbook, your challenge is to make the very best use of the textbook that you have.²⁴ Sometimes, new teachers, in their zeal for creating wonderful, marvelous written materials for their students, neglect the standard textbook prescribed by the school curriculum and fails to see that this resource may actually be quite useful. And you will no doubt find that, as a new teacher you already have enough on your hands just preparing a lesson, carrying it out, monitoring its unfolding and managing a dynamics of a classroom full of students. You do not need to add more stress to your life by trying to create brand-new materials. *Realia* are probably the oldest form of classroom aid. There is nothing like an “object” lesson. Objects – food items, cosmetics, household gadgets, tools and other materials – always add some significant reality to the classroom. Their effectiveness in helping students to connect language to reality cannot be underestimated. *Realia* are especially useful and important for teaching children, who benefit from tangible objects that can stimulate kinesthetic connections. The next tool that can be used in English classrooms is *text*. It needs to be made clear how the word text is normally used in the profession, especially to distinguish texts from textbooks. Texts are any of a wide variety of types or genres of linguistic forms. Texts can be spoken or written. Among written texts, the range of possibilities extends from labels and forms and charts to essays, manuals and books. Textbooks are one type of books, a book for use in an educational curriculum. Among other written text available for use in the classroom, an almost unlimited supply of real world textual material is available. Following effective and widely used tool is *visual aids*.²⁵ According to Bamford use of visual aids help teachers to bring real world into the classroom and make learning more meaningful and more exciting. Use of visuals is a key to obtain information, construct knowledge and build successful educational outcomes.

²⁴ Coleman A. The teaching of modern foreign languages in the United States: A report prepared for the modern language study. –New York: Macmillan, 1929. -P. 231.

²⁵ Canning-Wilson C. Visual support and language teaching. Volume 5. –London: Longman, 1998. -P. 3-4.

Visual aids can be very a powerful tool to enhance the impact of the lesson. Words and images presented in different formats may appeal directly to audience's imagination, adding power to spoken words. By using photographs, tables, diagrams, charts, drawings, key words, or video sequences teachers can succeed their objectives. *Paper handouts* are incredibly useful tools in language learning classrooms. Handouts are always helpful when the learners do not have a clear understanding of the theme or the theme is too detailed and students are not able to take all notes down.²⁶ When teachers bring various handouts with tasks, activities and authentic texts into the classroom students will be more involved and interested in the lesson. With the help of handouts teacher can readily have a successful lesson. *White or blackboards* can be very useful tool to explain the sequence of ideas or routines. Teachers can use them to record key points of the theme. Rather than expecting the audience to follow spoken description, teacher should write each stage on the board. This tool is being used from the very early years of teaching language. In every lesson teacher feel the necessity of this tool and use it. *Self-made paper-based visual aids* can also be used effectively. With the dominance of computer media in our world today, it may seem odd to think about some of the more traditional forms of visual aids. Posters, charts, magazine pictures represent "old-fashioned" but effective teaching aids. Teachers should consider trying their hand at creating posters or charts for classroom use. Otherwise, a resource that many teachers find helpful is an assemblage of a couple of hundred magazine pictures that you can file and cross-index. Start with a pile of fairly recent magazines and pick out pictures: photos, diagrams, advertisements that show people or objects large enough to be easily seen by all students in a classroom setting. Mounting them on cardboard or lamination will protect pictures from wrinkling. Technologies are becoming more and more common in the language classroom and demand for these types of tools are very high. One of them is *overhead projectors*. The advent of our

²⁶ Harmer J. The practice of English language teaching. -Harlow, UK: Pearson Educational Limited, 2001. -P. 97.

computerized visual presentations through such software as PowerPoint tends to dominate our profession. However, many classrooms around the world provide an overhead transparency projector as standard equipment. Commercially available transparencies are available that can enhance a textbook lesson. Teachers' own charts, lists, graphics and other visually presented material can be easily reproduced and offer stimulating visual input for students. Transparencies can save paper and can be reused in a subsequent term of teaching the same course.²⁷ The next effective tool is *E-mail*. The most obvious form of using e-mail for English teaching is giving students possibility for actual communication with individuals around the world. Discussion lists provide opportunities for reading and writings on topics of interest. E-mail pen pals have become popular. Through the web, chat programs offer students the novelty of asynchronous discussion. Teachers have used e-mail communication for such things as dialogue journals with students and collaboration with other teachers. Another relatively recent technology, *podcasting* is a method of distributing multimedia files- such as audio programs or music videos – over the Internet, for playback on mobile devices or personal computers. Podcasts can be a source of authentic listening for students of English, and, if students have a mobile device they can access such material at their outside of the classroom environment. Derwin offers a number of different sources and uses of podcasting as well as a set of references.²⁸

1.2. Effective tools and techniques as a need of learners

Community language learning advises teachers to consider their students as whole persons. Whole-person learning means that teachers consider not only their students' intellect, but they also have some understanding of the relationship among students' feelings, physical reactions, instinctive protective reactions, and desire to learn. The community language learning method takes

²⁷ Hanson-Smith E. Technology in the classroom: practice and promise in the 21st century. –Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to speakers of other languages, 1997. -P. 169.

²⁸ Lewis G. Bringing technology into the classroom. –Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2001. -P. 144.

its principles from the more general Counseling-Learning approach developed by Charles A. Curran.

Curran studied adult learning for many years. He found that adults often feel threatened by a new learning situation. They are threatened by the change inherent in learning and by the fear that they will appear foolish. Curran believed that a way to deal with the fears of students is for teachers to become language counselors.²⁹ A language counselor does not mean someone trained in psychology; it means someone who is a skillful “understander” of the struggle students face as they attempt to internalize another language. The teacher who can understand can indicate his acceptance of the student. By understanding students’ fears and being sensitive to them, can help students overcome their negative feelings and turn them into positive energy to further their learning.

Now, we are going to see how all these ideas are put in practice in the Community Language learning Method. We will observe a class in a private language institute.³⁰ The students arrive and take their seats. The chairs are in a circle around a table. After greeting the students, the teacher introduces himself and has the students introduce themselves. The name of the activity that teacher is going to introduce is “Human Computer”. The students are told in a warm manner, “For the next five to ten minutes I am going to turn into a “human computer” for you. You may use me to practice the pronunciation of any English word or phrase or entire sentence on the transcript. Raise your hand, and I will come behind you. Then you say either the sentence or number or the word you want to practice in English or your native language. As the computer, I am programmed to give back only correct English, so you will have to listen carefully to see if what you say matches what I am saying. You may repeat the word, phrase or sentence as many times as you want. I will stop only when you stop. You control me; you turn the computer on and off”. A student raises his

²⁹ Curran C. Counseling –learning : A whole-person approach for education (2nd addition). -Cliffside Park, NJ: Counseling-Learning Institutes, 1977. -P. 143.

³⁰Larsen-Freeman and Anderson M. Techniques and principles in language teaching. –Oxford University Press, 2001. -P. 330.

hand and says, “Thank you”. He has the trouble with the sound at the beginning of ‘thank’. The teacher repeats the phrase after him and the student says it again. The teacher repeats it. Three more times the student starts the computer by saying ‘thank you’. After the teacher has said it for the third time, the student stops, which in turn stops the computer. Another student raises his hand and says, ‘What do you do? Again the teacher moves behind the student and repeats the question the student has chosen to practice. The student works on this question several times just as the first student did. Several others practice saying some part of the transcript in a similar manner. The teacher then asks the students to work in groups of three to create new sentence. Each group writes its sentences down. The teacher walks from group to group to help. The first group writes the sentence ‘He not work in a bank’. The teacher gives the correct sentence to the group: ‘He does not work in a bank’. The second group writes ‘What is my name?’ “OK”, says the teacher. After the teachers finishes helping to the group, each group reads its sentences to the class. The teacher replays the tape two more times while the students listen. For the next classes, the teacher decides to have the students continue to work with the conversation they created. Some of the activities are as follows: The teacher selects the verb “be”, and together he and the students conjugate it for person and number in the present tense. They do the same for the verb “do” and for the regular verb “work”. The students work in small groups to make sentences with the new forms. They share the sentences they have created with the rest of the class. Students take turns reading the transcript, one student reading the English and another reading the native language. They have an opportunity to work on their English pronunciation again as well. The teacher puts a picture of a person on the whiteboard, and the students ask questions of that person as if they have just met them. The students reconstruct the conversation they have created. They create a new dialogue using words they have learned to say during their conversation. When they finish these activities, the class has another conversation, records it, and uses the new transcript as the basis for subsequent

activities. As we can see, this method is effective to enhance students' speaking skill. Besides, this method may help students to lessen their fear of making mistakes and speaking in front of whole class. Teachers who use CLL want their students to learn how to use the target language communicatively. In addition, they want their students to learn about their own learning, to take increasing responsibility for it, and to learn how to learn from one another. All these objectives can be accomplished in a non-defensive manner if the teacher and learners treat each other as whole persons, valuing both thoughts and feelings. Responding to the students' feelings is considered very important in CLL. One regular activity is inviting students to comment on how they feel. The teacher listens and responds to each comment carefully. By showing students he understands how they feel, the teacher can help them overcome negative feelings that might otherwise block their learning. Student security in this lesson was provided for in a number of ways. Some of these were the teacher's use of students' native language, telling students precisely what they would be doing during the lesson, respecting established time limits, giving students only as much language at a time as they could handle, and taking responsibility for structuring activities clearly in the most appropriate way. While security is the basic element of the process, the way in which it is provided will change depending upon the stage of a learner. Language is for communication. Curran writes that 'learning is persons' which means that both teacher and students work at building trust in one another and the learning process.³¹

Cooperative learning (sometimes called collaborative learning) essentially involves students learning from each other in groups. But it is not the group configuration that makes cooperative learning distinctive; it is the way that students and teachers work together that is important. In cooperative learning, teachers teach students collaborative or social skills so that they can work together more effectively. Indeed, cooperation is not only a way of learning, but

³¹ Halliday M. Explorations in the functions of language. -London: Edward Arnold, 1973. -P. 139.

also a theme to be communicated about and studied.³² Let us see how it is accomplished. As the fifth grade ESL students come into the lesson, the teacher asks for attention and announces that the day's vocabulary lesson will be done in cooperative groups. Several students ask, "Which groups, teacher?" 'We will stay in the same groups of six that you that you have been in so far this week,' he replies. "I will each group different part of a story. There are four parts. Your group's job is to read the part of a story that I will give you and to discuss the meaning of any new vocabulary words. Use your dictionaries or ask me when you cannot figure out the meaning of a word. In ten minutes, you will form new groups. Three of you will move to another group, and three of you will stay where you are and others will join you. In each new group you will tell your part of the story. You will teach your new group the meanings of any vocabulary words that the group members don't know. Listen to their part of the story. Learn the meaning of the new vocabulary in it. Then, we will change your groups again, and you will do the same thing. The third time you will return to your original group and tell the story from the beginning to end. You will work together to learn the new vocabulary. After ten minutes of practice time, you will be asked to match each new vocabulary word with its definition on a worksheet that I will give you. Your group will help you during the practice time. During the test you are each on your own. Your score will depend on your results as a group, since your scores will be added together". The teacher then writes the criteria on the board as he explains them: 90-100 percent = No one in your group has to take the test again. 89 percent or less = everyone in your group takes the test again. 'Everyone in the class will get an extra five minutes of recess tomorrow if the room score is 90 percent or better'.³³ There is a buzz of excitement about that possibility. One student asks, 'What social skills, teacher?' In response, the teacher says, "Today you are all to practice

³² Kagan S. Cooperative learning resources for teachers. -San Juan Capistrano, CA: Resources for teachers, 1990. -P. 143.

³³ Larsen-Freeman and Anderson M. Techniques and principles in language Teaching. -Oxford University Press, 2001. -P. 354.

encouraging others while your group works on learning the vocabulary words.’ He then asks, ‘What can you encouraging others sound like?’ One student responds, “Nice job!” Another says, “Way to go!” “Clapping and cheering,” offers a third. “Yes,” says the teacher. “Now what can encouraging others look like?” “A smile”, “A nod”, “A pat on the back.” ‘All right. You have got the idea. Today, I will observe each group. I will be looking for you to practice this social skill. Now, get into your groups. The teacher points out in which part of the room the groups are to sit. One group of students sits in a circle on the floor, two put chairs around two desks, and one group sits at a table in the back of the room. The teacher distributes handouts with the different part of the story to each group. He then moves from group to group spending two or three minutes with each one. The students appear to be busy working in their groups; there is much talking. After ten minutes, the teacher tells the students to stop and asks for three students to leave their group and join another group. After ten more minutes, they do this again. Then the students return to their original groups and work on putting the parts of the story together and teaching each other the new vocabulary. It is then time for the individual vocabulary test. After the test, the students correct their own work. Students compare and combine scores. The students put their groups’ scores on each of their papers. The teacher picks up each group’s paper and quickly figures the room score. There is much cheering and applauding when he announces that there will be five minutes of extra recess for everyone. He then tells the groups to look at how they did on the social skill of encouraging others and to complete two statements, which he has written on the board while they were taking the vocabulary test: Our group did best on encouraging others by _____, _____, and _____ (three specific behaviors). Goal setting: The social skill we will practice more often tomorrow is _____. He suggests that one of the students be the taskmaster to keep the group focused on the task of completing the statements, one be the recorder to write the group’s answers, one be the time keeper to keep track of the time, one be the checker to see that all of the work is

done, and one be the reporter who will give the group report later. He tells them that they have 10 minutes for the discussion. The teacher circulates among the groups, but does not say anything. After 10 minutes, he asks each group's reporter to share the group's responses. The teacher consults the notes that he has made during his observation and he offers his comments.³⁴

As it can be seen in cooperative learning, students often stay together in the same groups for a period of time so they can learn how to work better together. The teacher usually assigns students to the groups so that the groups are mixed-males and females, different ethnic groups, different proficiency level, etc. this allow students to learn from each other and also gives them practice in how to get along with people different from themselves. And besides, responsibility and accountability for each other's learning is shared. Each group member should be encouraged to feel responsible for participating and learning. Leadership is distributed. Teachers not only teach language; they teach cooperation as well. Of course, since social skills involve the use of language, cooperative learning teaches language for both academic and social purposes. Although, students work together, each student is individually accountable. That's why cooperative learning is considered to be one of the most effective ways of teaching English. All students can readily learn the language through this approach and it helps them to figure out how these interactions are important and helpful for language acquisition.³⁵

Now we are going to see how effective the usage of technology is in the classroom. First we define the word "technology" itself: There are two main ways to think about technology as providing teaching resources and technology as providing enhanced learning experiences. On the one hand, if we think of technology as providing resources, then it is clear that technology has long been associated with language teaching. For years, the technology may have only been chalk and a blackboard. Later, film strips, audio, and video recording and

³⁴ Gillies R. Cooperative learning: integrating theory and practice. –Thousand Oaks: Sage, 2007. –P. 162.

³⁵ Ashman A. Co-operative learning: the social and intellectual outcomes of learning in groups. –London: Routledge, 2003. –P. 35.

playback equipment were additions to the technological tools available to many teachers.³⁶ These days, of course, there are digital technological resources that teachers can draw on. The Internet, which connects millions of computers around the world, makes it possible to communicate from one computer to another. As a result, the world wide web (www or 'the web'), a way of accessing the information over the Internet, has enabled teachers to find authentic written, audio, and visual texts on most any topic imaginable. There is a breadth and depth of material available for those who know how to surf the web, i.e. use online research tools known as search engines to find it. Computers also provide the means to access online dictionaries, grammar and style checkers, and concordances. On the other hand, if we think of technology as providing enhanced learning experiences, then the implications are even greater: Technology is no longer simply contributing machinery or making authentic material or more resources available that teachers can use; it also provides learners with greater access to the target language. As a result, it has the potential to change where and when the learning takes place. Furthermore, it can even shape how we view the nature of what it is that we teach.

At first glance, neither definition of technology- providing teaching resources and providing enhanced learning experiences- would appear to constitute a method. Kern has put it: Rapid evolution of communication technologies has changed language pedagogy and language use, enabling new forms of discourse, new forms of authorship, and new ways to create and participate in communities. A classroom setting with the teacher in front at the blackboard and with students at their desks reading from a textbook, while still the norm in much of the world, is giving way to the practice of students working independently or collaboratively at computers and using other technology, such as cell phones (mobile phones), inside and outside of classrooms. The new discourse, which students use to author and post messages online, has features of both written and oral language, and students participate in online or virtual

³⁶ Lewis G. Bringing technology into the classroom. -Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2009. -P. 297.

communities that have no borders. Even if all their language learning done in formal learning contexts, learners who have access to computers have more autonomy in what they choose to focus on. Technology also allows teaching to be tailored to the individual to a greater extent than is normally possible. A few Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL) programs can even adapt to diverse learners by analyzing their input and providing customized feedback and remedial exercises suited to their proficiency.³⁷ There are also programs that feature computer adaptive testing so that students respond to test questions at an appropriate level.

Here are some helpful techniques which can be used in foreign language teaching: One rich source of language texts are *blogs*, which can be thought of as online diaries or journals. Most blogs allow for visitors to post comments. Since blogs are written by people remarking on their travels, daily life, current events, etc, they are a rich source of authentic material for reading, discussion and study. Blogs are available in many languages and are often created as an open source, which makes them searchable via any browser and search engine. Some blogs are specifically devoted to the author's language learning process or his or her experience in teaching a language. Searching on the web for "language learning blogs" will yield some interesting sites. Students may also be encouraged to create and write their own blogs as a regular assignment or ongoing reflective activity. In this way, they are not always writing only for the teacher. Since blog entries are chronologically ordered, students and teacher can create a progressive archive of student work.³⁸ There is a wide variety of *Computer-assisted Language Learning Software* (CALL) software (computer programs) and websites available for use by language learners. Some of the CALL programs are open source, which means that they are free and can easily be downloaded onto individual computers; others can be purchased. Some

³⁷ Egbert J. CALL essentials: principles and practices in CALL classrooms. -Alexandria, VA: TESOL, 2005. -P. 76.

³⁸ Oxford R and Oxford J. Second language teaching and learning in the net generation. -Honolulu, HI: National Foreign Language Resource Centre, 2009. -P. 321.

CALL programs focus on specific elements of language such as vocabulary or grammar practice. Others have a reading comprehension focus or provide guidance and practice for improving pronunciation. As with any materials for teachers or learners, there is a range of quality and usefulness among CALL programs. *Electronic chatting* is a synchronous activity. At least two people must be online simultaneously in order to chat. While the great majority of chats are in writing, there is also a fast growing number that also offer voice or video communication.³⁹ Skype is perhaps the best known example. It allows for real spoken communication across countries and continents. It also could be used locally, of course. For example, the teacher might have students conduct an interview of a local celebrity, using the target language. Once the use of e-mail became somewhat common, it was natural to use it for communicating with electronic or '*e-pen pals*'. Sometimes, the pen pal connections originate out of relationships between 'sister schools', extended family ties, or the personal networks of language teachers. Similar to the original pen pal idea, students are encouraged to share in writing about themselves, their lives, and their cultures in the target language. There are a number of models or designs for e-pen pal approach. Sometimes, teachers provide guiding questions that students can use to communicate with their e-pen pal (such as 'How would you describe your town?' 'What is distinctive about your community?' 'What would a day in your school be like?' 'Tell your pal about your family'). Another approach has students focusing on specific topics, such as current events. *Microsoft's PowerPoint* is a tool that allows presenters to use templates with a variety of formats to create slides for presentations. They can be multimedia, using texts, images, sound, animation, and video. The slides are presented by a computer hooked up to an LCD projector. PowerPoint is being used by increasing numbers of teachers and students for in-class presentations. Social networking sites include Facebook, My Space, LinkedIn, to name a few of dozens that are in existence. The purpose of such sites is for participants to share thoughts,

³⁹Pritchard A. Effective teaching with internet technologies. –London: Paul Chapman Publishing, 2007. -P. 214.

activities, photos, videos, and links to websites with others whom they are connected to through their social network site. Through the network provided at the site, one can share a key event or idea with many other participants simultaneously.⁴⁰ The whole class can have fun with these. Students do not have to be highly proficient in a language in order to participate. You should be aware, though, of privacy concerns. Once you or your students post a message online, it can be available to anyone who is a friend or a friend of friends. You need therefore to educate yourself and others on Internet safety. Technology is always evolving, and new forms of connection are constantly being developed. We realize, therefore, that any technology we referred above, will likely change in the coming months. Still, it is important to discuss the use of technology in providing enhanced language learning experiences.

The next helpful and widely used technique is *brainstorming*. Brainstorming is a technique whose purpose is to initiate some sort of thinking process. It gets students “creative juices” flowing without necessarily focusing on specific problems or decisions or values. Brainstorming is often put to excellent use in preparing students to read a text, to discuss a complex issue, or to write on a topic. Brainstorming involves the students in a rapid fire, free-association listing of concepts or ideas or facts or feelings relevant to some topic or context. Suppose you were about to read a passage on future means of transportation. You might ask small groups to brainstorm different forms of transportation, past and present, and current obstacles to more efficient means of transportation. The groups’ task would be to make a composite list of everything they can think of within the category, without evaluating it. In brainstorming, no discussion of relative merits of a thought takes place; everything and anything goes. This way, all ideas are legitimate, and students are released to soar the heights and plumb the depth, as it were, with no obligation to defend a concept. In whatever follow-

⁴⁰ Warschauer M. Technology and social inclusion: rethinking the digital divide. –Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 2003. -P. 133.

up to brainstorming you plan, at that point evaluation and discussion can take place.

The following technique which is quite commonly used in adult classes around the world is up and down the proficiency continuum. Information gap activities include a tremendous variety of techniques in which the objective is to convey or to request the information. The two focal characteristics of information gap techniques are their primary attention to information and not to language forms, and the necessity of communicative interaction in order to reach the objective.⁴¹ The information that students must seek can range from very simple to complex. At the beginning level, for example, each member of a small group could be given the objective of finding out from the others their birthday, address, favorite food, etc., and filling in a little chart with the information. In intermediate classes you could ask groups to collectively pool information about different occupations, how much the preparation costs, what typical job conditions are, what salary levels are and etc. in advanced classes, a small group discussion on determining an author's message, among many other possibilities, would be an informing-gap techniques.

Jigsaw techniques are a special form of information gap in which each member of a group is given some specific information and the goal is to pool all information to achieve some objective. Imagine four members of a group each with an application form, and on each form different information is provided. As students ask each other questions, without showing anyone their own application form, they eventually complete all the information on the form. Or you might provide maps to students in small groups, each student receiving different sets of information (where the bank is, where the park is, etc). The goal for beginners may be to simply locate everything correctly, and for intermediate learners to give directions on how to get from one place on the map to another, requiring a collaborative exchange of information in order to provide complete directions.

⁴¹Celce-Mercia M. Teaching English as a second/foreign language (2nd ad). –New York: Newbury House, 1991. –P. 298.

One very popular jigsaw technique that can be used in larger groups is known as a “strip story”. The teacher takes a moderately short written narrative or conversation and cuts each sentence of the text into a little strip, shuffles the strips and gives each student a strip. The goal is for students to determine where each of their sentences belongs in the whole context of the story, to stand in their position once it is determined, and to read off the reconstructed story. Students enjoy this technique and almost always find it challenging.⁴²

The next significant technique is *conducting feedback and error correction*. The term feedback can apply to a number of classroom situations and procedures, but here it refers to a range of techniques employed by the teacher to facilitate responses from the students to an exercise or task. Inevitably, teachers feel that the whole class needs and deserves to know the correct answer or response to a question, and students expect to be told whether their answers are right or wrong, but there are alternatives to traditional whole-class feedback conducted by the teacher or teacher-nomination in a lockstep pattern. Traditional feedback is teacher-led, involves little communication between learners and tends to be contrary to current good classroom practice. The teacher is in control and responsible for important group decisions such as when to move onto the next question. Considerable teacher talking time may occur, particularly if the teacher reads out the questions in full (often unnecessary as students already have these in front of them) or ‘echoes’ students’ answers for no apparent reason. Whole-class feedback is unlikely to reveal whether all or most of the students know what the correct answer is. Less-able students often get lost during the feedback, particularly if they are trying to use strategies for understanding their errors or attempting self-correction. Anxiety may be caused for students who are unsure of the correct response. The correct answer may be established, but understanding is not checked. Teacher-led feedback, usually involving only one student at a time, can be predictable, monotonous and time-

⁴²Brown H. D. Teaching by principles: an interactive approach to language pedagogy. - San Francisco: Pearson Education, 2007. -P. 47.

consuming. It may also be unnecessary for more able learners and potentially demotivating or embarrassing for the less-able. However, some form of feedback is required for a variety of reasons: feedback on an activity satisfies students' expectations and needs, both as a measure of success or failure and as reassurance that they have at least completed the task properly; as tasks, in particular the practice exercise type, are in effect a form of test, feedback which indicates a degree of success can be motivating. Often an element of competitiveness enters into feedback which encourages learners to participate.⁴³ The negative aspects of competition, together with the risk of demotivating some learners, can be reduced by the judicious use of nomination and sensitive management of feedback by the teacher; feedback acts as an effective signpost, signalling the end of a task or stage of a lesson; a variety of analytical skills can be fostered through the way that feedback is conducted. Learners not only need to know if their answers are correct, but also why they are correct or why they are making errors. Useful correction or re-teaching may take place during feedback on exercises, while reading skills may be enhanced by identifying clues in a text or checking a listening task by referring to the tapescript. Students may also provide useful information by indicating which questions they found most difficult and why; learners' performance in tasks performs an important diagnostic function. Errors may indicate the need for clarification, re-teaching or repair work, while successful completion of a task may indicate that learning has taken place and that the teacher is free to move on. However, repair is rarely accomplished by setting a similar task, while accurate conclusions can only be drawn from tasks that are manageable but achievable rather than too easy or too difficult. The need for time-consuming whole-class feedback can be minimized by effective teaching and classroom management, not only during the activity but also in earlier stages of the lesson.⁴⁴

⁴³ Celce-Mercia M. Teaching English as a second/foreign language (2nd ad). –New York: Newbury House, 1991.

⁴⁴ Cross D. A practical handbook of language teaching. –Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1991. –P. 258.

Clearly, feedback is more speedily conducted when the majority of student responses are correct. In language practice exercises, the likelihood of this is often a product of clear, contextualized presentation, a systematic focus, either inductive or deductive, on form and function, and the use of concept-checking questions to ensure understanding of meaning. Feedback is an ongoing process, and a good deal of gentle correction may take place while the teacher is monitoring, thus ensuring a minimum of feedback at the end of the task. The teacher may also notice specific difficulties and choose to conduct feedback only on problematic questions. Anticipating problems, grading tasks so that they are manageable and designating time for feedback rather than leaving it open-ended are all prerequisites for efficient feedback. Student-led feedback is also being used in language teaching classroom. Encouraging students to give each other feedback after activities and introducing the appropriate task language, not only provides opportunities for discussion, but also the opportunity to use language for a real purpose. Students practice conversational strategies of negotiating, agreeing and disagreeing and turn-taking as well as thinking skills such as rationalizing and problem-solving. Peer-checking also provides the teacher with a reason to recombine pairs and particularly to encourage stronger students to help the less able ones. Some students will always finish exercises more quickly than others and it is often useful to tell them how many of their answers are correct, but not which, so that they have a purpose for reflecting on their work.⁴⁵

Giving the swings of the methodological pendulum, we are aware that the view of what constitutes an “error” and how the teacher should react to errors has varied widely from method to method. It is safe to say that today’s communicative approaches are generally more tolerant of error than many previous methodologies, such as audio-lingual approach, with its behaviorist influences resulting in a view of errors as negative habits that needed to be

⁴⁵Larsen-Freeman D and Anderson M. Techniques and principles in language teaching. –Oxford University Press, 2001. -P. 317.

eradicated. Indicative of the more tolerant approach to errors today is preferred over the term error correction, with a further distinction made between explicit feedback (involving overt correction) and implicit feedback (involving a teacher recasting or rephrasing the learner's utterance). Similarly, teachers now tend to interpret student errors much more positively, for example, as an indication that the learner is formulating creative hypotheses about L2 and is taking risks which will ultimately (with positive or negative feedback and appropriate motivation on the part of the learner) lead to the acquisition and internalization of the linguistic item.

The research on error correction contributes on our understanding of how to frame feedback to learners. A few of the key research findings are worth highlighting. The first one is recasts. A recast is the formulation of a learner's utterance, usually by the teacher, in an attempt to provide the correct target form. Crookes and Chaudron note that, despite recasts being a highly prevalent form of teacher feedback, research shows them to be affective only 20-25% of the time. Often the learner interprets the teacher's recast as simply a confirmation of what he or she has said or as a clarification of meaning rather than as feedback on the form of the utterance. The next one is explicit correction. Crookes and Chaudron report that research conducted in language immersion classrooms indicate that explicit correction leads to a considerably higher rate of learner uptake (immediate recognition and acceptance) of the corrected form.⁴⁶ This finding, however, is contested by other researchers, who remain skeptical that negative feedback of this type really works. Teachers following a communicative approach are most likely to correct errors in content, followed by errors in vocabulary, and finally errors in grammar or pronunciation. Overall, more explicit feedback, is provided in contexts where the lesson focus is on language rather than in those where the language is being acquired through content, as in the immersion classroom.

⁴⁶ Crookes G and Chaudron C. *Guidelines for Classroom Language Teaching*. -New York: Newbury House, 1991. -P. 211.

The danger of over-correcting is that students will lose motivation and you may even destroy the flow of the class or the activity by butting in and correcting every single mistake. The other extreme is to let the conversation flow and not to correct any mistakes. There are times when this is appropriate but most students do want to have some of their mistakes corrected as it gives them a basis for improvement. The first port of call when correcting can be the students themselves. Students can often correct themselves when they realize they've made a mistake. Sometimes the mistake is simply a 'slip' and they are aware of the correct version. Give students a chance, and time, to correct themselves. Often by just raising your eyebrows or repeating the mistake students will know what you mean and back track to correct the error themselves. Some teachers create all sorts of hand signals to indicate the type of error.⁴⁷

⁴⁷ Cross D. A practical handbook of language teaching. -Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1991. -P. 221.

CHAPTER II. THE IMPLEMENTATION OF EFFECTIVE TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSES

2.1. Interaction patterns, use of visuals, classroom discourse are as effective techniques in the classroom

Interaction is a collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings, or ideas between two or more people, resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other. Theories of communicative competence emphasize the importance of interaction as human beings use language in various contexts to “negotiate” meaning, or simply stated, to get an idea out of one person’s head and into the head of another person and vice versa. From the very beginning of language study, classroom should be interactive. Wilga Rivers put it in this way: Through interaction, students can increase their language store as they listen to or read authentic linguistic material, or even the output of their fellow students in discussion skits, joint problem-solving tasks, or dialogue journals. In interaction, students can use all they possess of the language – all they have learned or casually absorbed – in real life exchanges. Even at an elementary stage, they learn in this way to exploit the elasticity of language.⁴⁸

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

⁴⁸ Rivers W. Teaching foreign language skills. –Chicago: Chicago University Press, 1968. -P. 86.

work: Group work generates interactive language. In so-called traditional classes, teacher talk is dominant.⁴⁹ Teacher's lecture explain grammar points, conduct drills, and at best lead whole-class discussion in which each student might get of few seconds of a class period to talk. Group work helps to solve the problem of classes that are too large to offer many opportunities to speak. Closely related to the sheer quantity of output made possible through group work is the variety and quality of interactive language. With traditional methods, language tends to be restricted to initiation only by the teacher in an artificial setting where the whole class becomes a "group interlocutor". Small groups provide opportunities for student initiation, for face-to-face give and take, for practice in negotiation of meaning, for extended conversational exchanges, and for, student adoption of roles that would otherwise be impossible. Group work offers an embracing affective climate. The second important advantage offered by group work is the security of a smaller group of students where each individual is not starkly on public display, vulnerable to what student may perceive as criticism and rejection. In group works, quite suddenly, reticent students become vocal participants in the process. The small group becomes a community of learners cooperating with each other in pursuit of common goals. Group work promotes learners responsibility and autonomy. Even in a relatively small class of 15to 20 students, whole-class activity often gives students a screen to hide behind. In whole-class work students do not feel any responsibility, do not pay attention what is going on, what others are busy with, what is the teacher explaining because they have an opportunity to "hide" and not to tell anything. It may take long till one particular students' turn comes. But in group-work all students can actively participate. Group work is a step toward individualizing instruction. Each student in a classroom has needs and abilities that are unique.⁵⁰ Usually the most salient individual difference that you observe is a range proficiency levels across your class and, even more specifically,

⁴⁹ Byrons H. Learning foreign and second languages: perspective in research and scholarship. -New York: Modern Languages Association, 1998. -P. 116.

⁵⁰ Brown H.D. Breaking the language barrier. -Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press,1989. -P. 213.

differences among students in their listening, speaking, reading and writing abilities. Small groups can help students with varying abilities to accomplish separate goals. The teacher can recognize and capitalize upon other individual differences (age, cultural heritage, field of study, cognitive style, to name a few) by careful selection of small groups and by administering different tasks to different groups.

And here are also some excuses for avoiding group work. Some teachers are afraid of group work. They feel they will lose control and students will use their native language, and so they shy away from it. Some of these apprehensions are understandable; group work does not mean simply putting students into groups and having them to do what you otherwise do as a whole class. But the limitations or drawbacks to group work are all surmountable obstacles when group work is used appropriately- that is, for objectives that clearly lend themselves to group work. The first excuse for avoiding group work is controlling groups. There is no doubt that group work requires some yielding of control to the students. In numerous cultures, students are indeed primed to be under the complete control and authority of the teacher, and group work therefore is a very strange activity to engage in. In such contexts the teacher must be very clever to orchestrate successful small-group work. But this is still “drawback” rather than a reason to avoid group work. By quietly introducing small doses of group work into your otherwise traditional classroom, you may be able to convince your administrators and students of the advantages.⁵¹ The second excuse is that students use their native language. In ESL settings where a multiple number of languages are often represented in a single classroom, teachers can avoid the native language syndrome by placing students in heterogeneous language groups. But in EFL situations, where all of the students have a common native language, it is indeed possible, if not probable, that students in small groups will covertly use their native language. The third

⁵¹ Krashen S. Principles and practice in second language acquisition. -Oxford, UK: Pergamon Press, 1982. -P. 168.

excuse is that students' errors will be reinforced in small groups. Teachers are usually concerned with the fact that, especially in large classes, students will simply reinforce each other's errors and the teacher won't get a chance to correct them. This concern can really be laid to rest.⁵² Errors are a "necessary" manifestation of inter-language development, and we do well not to become obsessed with their constant correction. Moreover, well-managed group work can encourage spontaneous peer feedback on errors within the small group itself. The next excuse is teacher cannot monitor all groups at once. Related to the issue of control is the sometimes misguided belief that the teacher should be "in on" everything a student says or does during the class hour. Interactive learning and teaching principles counter with the importance of meaningful, purposeful language and real communication, which in turn must allow the student to give vent to creative possibilities. Yes, the effective teacher will circulate among the groups, listen to students, and offer suggestions and criticism. But it is simply not necessary to be a party to all linguistic intercourse in the classroom.⁵³ The fifth excuse is that some learners prefer to work alone. It is true that many students, especially adult-age students, prefer to work alone because that is the way they have operated over since they started going to school. As a successful manager of a group work, teachers need to be sensitive to such preferences, acknowledging some if not many of your students will find group work frustrating because they may simply want you just to give them the answers to some problem and then move on. Teachers should help their students to see that language learning is not a skill where you can simply bone up on rules and words in isolation.⁵⁴ Language is for communicating with people and the more they engage in such face-to-face communication, the more their overall communicative competence will improve. Related to the work style issue are numerous other learning style variations among students that are magnified in

⁵² Ellis R. *SLA research and language teaching*. -Oxford, UK, 1997. -P. 169.

⁵³ Kinsella K. *Understanding and empowering diverse learners in the ESL classroom*. -Boston: Heinle & Heinle, 1995. -P. 321.

⁵⁴ Byrns H. *Learning foreign and second languages: perspective in research and scholarship*. -New York: Modern Languages Association, 1998. -P. 120.

small groups. Because the teacher is not present within the group at all times, groups are often left to derive their own dynamic inductively. In the process, individual differences become more salient than they are in whole class work. While such problems can and do occur in group work, virtually every problem that is rooted in learning style differences can be solved by carefully planning and management. In fact, when the group members know their task and know their roles in the group, learning style differences can be efficiently utilized and highly appreciated- much more so than in whole-class work.

According to K. Brown there is definite value in whole-class activities because these promote cohesion, especially in classes comprising learners from diverse cultural and L1 backgrounds. However, whole class work needs to be carefully balanced with pair and group work, each of which offers unique opportunity (along with certain risks) for language learning. Teacher can prevent potential misunderstandings by clearly delineating for students when they should work individually and when and how they should collaborate with peers. However, even with the best planning, teachers need to monitor pair and group work closely, identifying issues that interfere such as excessive use of the L1 and noise levels that impede communication. Some students embrace pair or group work; others dislike it; and yet others view its implementation as the teacher abandoning his or her responsibility to teach. To some extent attitudes may be culturally conditioned; however, even within groups of students from the same cultural/linguistic background there are differences in attitude. For this reason, it is important for teachers to explain the rationale behind group work and define what they hope to achieve with it. It is also important for them to understand their learners' stances on pair and group work before aggressively implementing such groupings.⁵⁵

The rationale for pairing and grouping students in the language classroom is multifaceted. Some of the most compelling arguments are found in the literature on the second language acquisition (SLA) are as following: coupled with the

⁵⁵ Celce-Mercia M. Teaching English as a second/foreign language. –New York: Newbury House, 1991. -P. 346.

need in SLA for comprehensible input is the need for ample opportunities for comprehensible output (i.e., meaningful opportunities to produce the target language); Controlled practice exercises (as typically found in L2 textbooks) do not provide the conditions for sustained or “pushed” output (i.e., output where the learner’s linguistic repertoire is extended and stretched to communicate the message effectively), which is necessary for successful SLA; Pairing and grouping learners is the surest way to foster SLA in the classroom setting. This includes structuring tasks in such a way that learners are required to interact with their peers, negotiate for meaning, and formulate and share their opinions on topics. Additional supporting evidence comes from research into the social aspect of the language classroom. According to this research, experienced language teachers confirm the importance of developing and maintaining classes where students have bonded and there is a general climate of cohesiveness. Key to this process is what Senior terms “breaking down the barriers”, creating an environment, in which the whole class knows something about every class member. Also critical, according to Senior, is harnessing students’ energy toward positive group-building and encouraging them to engage in new tasks harmoniously. A compelling rationale for pairing and grouping students is found in the literature on Cooperative Learning, a learner-centered approach emphasizing the importance of student cooperation.⁵⁶

The process of English teaching and learning in the classroom is very complicated, because it involves various factors. It has aroused interests and attentions of scholars’ from different disciplines, such as linguistics, pedagogy, psychology and sociology. Among all kinds of studies, classroom discourse has been one of the most heated topics in both classroom research and L2 (second language) acquisition. The term refers to the language that teachers and students use to communicate with each other in the classroom. Talking and conversation are the media through which most teaching takes place. In other words, the

⁵⁶ Curran C. Counseling-learning: A whole person model for education. –New York: Grune & Stratton, 1972. -P. 106.

fulfillment of teaching to a large degree depends on teacher-student interaction in the actual classroom teaching practice. Therefore, TT (teacher talk), which occupies a special place in the target language classroom, is closely related to the success of students' foreign language acquisition.⁵⁷ Teachers use target language to assign teaching activities and as the principle means for giving instructions and directions, modeling target language patterns and giving feedback on students' performances.

The concept of language classroom discourse has undergone various interpretations. Nunan views classroom discourse as the distinctive type of discourse that occurs in classrooms. Discourse in the language classroom is a matter of oral use of language in the classroom. At least 35 years ago, an important direction in applied linguistics and education research sought to understand the nature and implications of classroom interactions, or what is commonly referred to as classroom discourse. Broadly speaking, classroom studies can be viewed from three different perspectives: from the perspective of the interaction (between teacher/learners with each other); from the perspective of the effects of instruction on language development; from the perspective of whether different methods of instructions have different effects on language development. Discourse in a classroom can be divided into four structures as follows: 1. IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback), 2. Instruction, 3. Probing /Questions, 4. Argumentation. *IRF* may have a traditional pattern of discourse, when the teacher asks a question, the student answers and the teacher evaluates.⁵⁸ The teacher continues to ask another question and so the sequence continues. «In this typical three-part structure, the teacher initiates a question in order to check a student's knowledge, a student's responses, and the student's response is evaluated with feedback from the teacher». The students' answers are usually brief and students are concerned about giving correct answers that are expected by the teacher. The main role of the teacher is asking questions, but

⁵⁷ Brown H. D. Teaching by principles (2nd addition). –London: Longman, 2001. –P. 276.

⁵⁸ www.teachingenglish.org.uk

only a few students are actively involved. Another type of discourse is *giving instructions*. The teacher gives directive or informative statements. The students do not answer verbally; however, they understand the statements as instructions by following them physically. The *probing question* is another discourse structure.⁵⁹ The teacher asks referential questions or «thinking questions» and the students are encouraged to give longer answers through their thinking. Their answers may challenge the teacher's position. However, evaluation does not come immediately after the students' responses. *Argumentation* can be regarded as probing questions where the teacher involves the students in a challenging situation in order to make them to justify their reasons. The questions asked are commonly referential questions, which try to elicit predictions, explanations and clarification from the students. The argumentation may be in question or statement forms.

McTear observed four types of language use in EFL classroom discourse: 1. Mechanical (i.e. no exchange of meaning is involved), 2. Meaningful (i.e. meaning is contextualized but there is still no new information to be conveyed), 3. Pseudo-communication (i.e. new information is conveyed but in a manner that would be unlikely to occur outside the classroom), 4. Real communication (i.e. spontaneous speech resulting from the exchange of opinions, jokes, classroom management, etc.). Relevant to Mc Tear's argument here about the types of language use is Ellis's distinction that «pedagogical discourse is believed to be a product of mechanical and meaningful types of language use, whereas natural discourse is believed to result from real communication type of language use». The interaction between group members in a classroom moves between the two poles of this continuum consisting of instructional options.⁶⁰ Pedagogic discourse occurs when the teacher and the students act out institutional roles, the tasks are concerned with the transmission and reception of information

⁵⁹ McCarthy M. Discourse analysis for language teachers. –Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1991. -P. 89.

⁶⁰ Richards J.C. & Lockhart C. Reflective teaching in second language classrooms. –Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1991. -P. 149.

controlled by the teacher and there is a focus on knowledge as product and on accuracy. Natural discourse, on the other hand, is characterized by much more fluid roles established through interaction, tasks that encourage equal participation in the negotiation of meaning and a focus on the interactional process itself and on fluency.

According to another scholar, the term teacher classroom discourse encompasses different types of teacher talk, including pre-lesson chitchat, lesson warm-up, teacher questions, explanations, and teacher-fronted instruction, modeling language use, error correction and feedback to students, and praise and acknowledgement of student contributions. Regardless of which these discourse types we are considering, there is much in the literature on classroom research that can help to guide our practice. Edelhoff identifies the information and motivation stage as the first of four stages of the lesson. According to Edelhoff, in this warm-up stage the learner's background knowledge is tapped and their interest is aroused by being confronted with an experience that is novel and yet not totally unfamiliar.⁶¹ Crookes adds that the lesson warm-up is a part of larger framing of the lesson that includes its beginning and end, both of which assist in the learning process. The literature affirms the importance of the lesson warm-up in setting learner expectations and in creating a social event that motivates students and positively contributes to the learning process. Yet little empirical research on its effectiveness exists. As summarized by Lopes, the following findings from questionnaires and interviews conducted with Brazilian English as a foreign language learners indicate that learners recognize the value of the lesson warm-up: it sets a positive atmosphere via the teacher's affectionate greetings; the lesson review portion of the warm-up aids concentration; it establishes routine (such as the teacher asking what students have been doing and directing personal questions to individual students); It assists in getting attention, reducing anxiety, increasing motivation and establishing the lesson theme. To these, Crookes adds that the lesson should be considered as speech

⁶¹ Celce-Mercia M. Teaching English as a second/foreign language. -New York: Newbury House, 1991. -P. 365.

events, embedded in the culture of pedagogy; as such, they require an opening and closing.⁶²

McDonough and Shaw note that the typical teacher-fronted classroom follows a lockstep sequence of teacher stimulus, student response, and teacher evaluation. Add to this fact that 70% of such classroom time consists of the teacher talking or asking questions, and we can see how important it is that teachers learn to make productive use of this time and avoid falling into the trap of lockstep sequences. According to Lightbown and Spada, the most common discourse sequence in the classroom is initiation-response-evaluation (IRE), a teacher lead discourse sequence. This consists of a three-part exchange: 1. The teacher asks a student a display question (one to which there is one correct answer) to find out whether the student can respond. 2. A student responds (with correct or incorrect information). 3. The student answer is evaluated by the teacher, who makes a brief reply such as “Good” or “No, that is not right”. One factor in making the most productive use of class time concerns whether to use a *deductive or inductive approach* when presenting new material (e.g., grammar or pronunciation rules). Deductive approaches (also known as rule-driven learning) involve the teacher first presenting the rules and then providing examples that illustrate the rule. Inductive approaches, on the other hand, involve the teacher first presenting examples and then guiding the students to arrive at the rule based on the examples presented. The inductive approach (also known as discovery learning) is favored in communicative language teaching due to the amount of interaction that it fosters, and it has been shown to be appropriate for the teaching of complex structures. However, DeKeyser cautions that there is little evidence in the psychological literature concerning its superiority.⁶³

⁶² Crookes G and Chaudron C. Guidelines for classroom language teaching. –New York: Newbury House, 1991. –P. 124.

⁶³ Sinclair J & Coulthard M. Towards an analysis of discourse. –Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1975. –P. 108.

As noted before, in the realm of teacher questions an important decision is made between display questions and referential questions. The former are the questions that assume just one (or a small closet of) possible answers and are typically used to check student comprehension; the latter are the questions that allow the learner to provide an authentic response or an original, creative answer. Traditional approaches such as grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods used display questions almost exclusively, while extreme versions of communicative approach argued for the virtually exclusive use of referential questions in the classroom. Crookes and Chaudron emphasize that if our goal is to produce communicative users of the L2, the language of the classroom should mirror that of real-life interactions outside the classroom. Yet, in the domain of the teacher questions, research reveals that teachers' classroom questions deviate significantly from questions asked outside the classroom, with display questions vastly outnumbering referential questions. The implication of all these research findings is clear: display questions not only deprive the learner of the opportunity to negotiate meaning but also place the focus squarely on meaning. Note, however, that not all display questions serve the same function.⁶⁴ McCormick and Donato investigated the function of teachers' questions in an adult ESL class, discovering that some display questions served the purpose of scaffolding the learning. This research suggests that display questions may serve more functions than previously thought and that their usefulness should be examined within the wider framework of social and pedagogical interaction in the classroom. Closely related to the issue of teacher questions is that of how much *wait time* teachers allow after posing a question. Given that L2 learners require significantly more processing time to formulate their responses, allowing adequate wait time is essential. Tsui reminds us that this is especially true in the teacher-fronted portion of the lesson (i.e., where shy or reticent students may feel that all eyes are on them and thus do not want to risk failure).

⁶⁴ www.innovationsinenglish.org.uk

Nunan and Labm note that, on average, after posing a questions teachers allow one second or less before calling on a student, and (assuming no answer on the part of the student) allow a further second to elapse before reformulating their question, calling on another student, or providing the answer themselves.

The next effective and widely used tool is visual aids. Using visual aids such as pictures, posters, postcards, word calendars, realia, charts, graphic organizers, picture books, television, videos, and computers can help students easily understand and realize main points that they have leaned in the classroom. For each visual aid, students have different responses and expressions because of their different educational and cultural background. Using visual aids can help students understand the deep meaning of a topic and realize similarities and differences between each topic. In second language learning, using visual aids is essential teaching strategy in the English as a second language classroom and English as a foreign language classroom.⁶⁵ Most foreign language research has recognized that memorizing language forms and words is a very ineffective strategy for learning a target language. In the ESL/EFL classroom, using visual aids can help students to strengthen and reinforce what they have learned. The reason may be that they allow students to absorb the information through an additional sensory perception. We believe that if teachers use visual aids regularly, students will expect to learn the next language topic by using visual aids because each visual aid for them is an interesting leaning tool. Facilitating an interesting learning environment can enhance students' learning abilities and this is a major goal for ESL/EFL teachers. ELS/EFL teachers should be aware of various language strategies they can use to teach students as well as how to apply effective and varied instruction. Using visual aids can not only stimulate students' learning interest, but students also can interact with these visual aids and can relate them to their past experience or their daily life experience. Moreover, using visual aids cannot only develop students' literacy abilities, but also can develop their oral ability. Visual aids allow students to have a chance to

⁶⁵ Canning-Wilson C. Visual support and language teaching. -New York: Newbury House, 1998. -P. 132.

brainstorm and present their ideas or thoughts. They can create their own stories in which there are not right or wrong answers. Furthermore, they also can participate in group work such as paired grouping or small group activity. In group work, they can discuss the similarities and differences between each person's interpretation of a picture.⁶⁶

Using visual aids makes the material more “user friendly”. Visual aids help teachers' presentations and objectives by placing emphasis on what being taught. Clear visual aids multiply the learners' level of understanding of the material presented, and they can send clear messages and clarify points from teachers.

Moreover, visual aids can involve the audience by providing a change from one activity to another, and from hearing to seeing. In addition, learners are more fascinated by gestures and movement in the classroom. Additionally, visual aids impact and add interest to a presentation. They can create excitement. Visual aids enable learners to use more than one sense at the same time. One picture could elicit unlimited words. The most important reason for different perception of visual aid is because each student has a different cultural background and past experience. Therefore, one picture can be presented and internalized by different people in different ways. Furthermore, using visual aids may increase the learners' understanding and retention level. ESL learners may benefit when teachers give them opportunities to move beyond their stylistic comfort zone through the use of visual aids. However, they may feel uncomfortable initially. Whereas, visual learners can benefit from visual stimuli such as pictures, books, videos, charts, posters, and so on because they benefit from being shown rather than told, while analytic learners can benefit from these activities that involve understanding and improve their accuracy. Most of the English language teachers seem agree that the use of visual aids can enhance language teaching. As they help teachers to bring the real world into the classroom, they make learning more meaningful and more exciting. According

⁶⁶ Celce-Mercia M. Teaching English as a second/foreign language. –New York: Newbury House, 1991. -P. 310.

to Bamford, it must be taken into account that visual literacy is the key to obtain information, construct knowledge and build successful educational outcomes.⁶⁷ He asserts that this is due to an increase of the number of images in the world. It is important to point out that students bring to the classroom their own background that nowadays is associated with images provided by mass media, videogames, etc. Santos reflects on how teachers ask students to think without any of this help, what seems to require convincing them to give up what they have experienced in their lives. Visual aids can be a helpful tool in the language classroom as Mannan points out they 'help teachers to clarify, establish, correlate and coordinate accurate concepts, interpretations and appreciations, and enable him to make learning more concrete, effective, interesting, inspirational, vivid and meaningful. Visual materials or anything used to help the student see an immediate meaning in the language may benefit the student and the teacher by clarifying the message, if the visuals enhance or supplement the language point. These advantages suggest that visual can help make a task or situation more authentic. Researchers as Kemp and Dayton claim that visual aids in motivation and maintaining attention by adding variety and making the lesson more interesting. Watkins and Brobaker have collected in their paper several studies from different researches that conclude that visuals clarify and enhance students learning, and that this information is recognized and remembered for longer durations than verbal information alone.⁶⁸ Early researchers such as Adam and Chambers or Herber and Myers seem to agree with the idea that the memory for picture-word combination is superior to memory for words alone or pictures alone. As a tool for language learning, visuals have probably been always present in the L2 classroom. Given the pervasiveness of media in the outside world today, students expect a visually rich environment. Visuals include, but are not limited to, photos or line drawings in the course textbook; stick figures, written text or other graphics on the blackboard; student-generated posters;

⁶⁷ Byrnes H. *Learning foreign and second languages: perspective in research and scholarship*. -New York: Modern Languages Association, 1998. -P. 114.

⁶⁸ Canning-Wilson C. *Visual support and language teaching*. - New York: Newbury House, 1998. -P. 119.

graphic organizers (such as a matrix); magazine pictures; digital photos; images or clip art downloaded from the Internet; slide shows (e.g., PowerPoint); films and streaming videos.⁶⁹ Brinton notes that the use of visuals (along with other instructional media) not only lends authenticity to the language lesson but also can serve as an important conceptualizing device; that is a photo, a graphic organizer, or a video can serve as a springboard for the entire lesson. In addition, visuals provide a means of engaging students who are visual learners. According to S. Kang a very high proportion of sensory learning is visual. Thus, as educators, we cannot afford to ignore the educational significance of visual learning. As Kang noted: we are moving into an era in which visual literacy is as important as language/textual literacy. In this new reality, our ability to communicate ideas visually is as important as our ability to conceive them. As a result, EFL teachers should explore the potential of visuals, and exploit spatial instructional strategies to enhance learning and instruction. Much of the support for the use of visuals is found in the literature on learning style, especially Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences which posits that individuals have eight types of intelligence, among them spatial intelligence, or the ability to use maps and other forms of visual graphic information to access complex domains. Yet another source of support is the literature on schema theory.⁷⁰ According to his theory, learners prior knowledge is stored in memory in the form of distinct categories (schemata) and the processing of new knowledge is enhanced by accessing or activating these schemata. Extrapolating from schema theory to the teaching of language, it is posited that visuals provide a powerful means of activating the learner's schemata, thus, facilitating the presentation of new information. One type of visual that has been well documented in the research literature is the graphic (or visual) organizer. Graphic organizers consist of diagrams or charts that help students to organize knowledge using structures such as grids and matrices, spider maps, time lines, causal chains, network trees

⁶⁹ Celce-Mercia M. Teaching English as a second/foreign language. –New York: Newbury House, 1991. –P. 298.

⁷⁰ Arif M and Hashim F. Young learners' Second Language Visual Literacy Practices. –Oxford: Inter-Disciplinary Press, 2009. –P. 149.

and storyboards. Originating in the work of cognitive scientist Ausubel, graphic organizers were proposed as one form of advance of a lesson to emphasize its central idea that could improve student's level of understanding and recall.⁷¹

2.2. Presenting and reinforcing vocabulary through effective tools and techniques in English language classes

Vocabulary is the first and foremost step in language acquisition. In a classroom where students are not finding themselves comfortable with L2, language learning can be made interactive and interesting with the introduction of appropriate vocabulary exercises. This is how the linguist Scott Thornbury summed up the importance of vocabulary learning: "If you spend most of your time studying grammar, your English will not improve very much. You will see most improvement if you learn more words and expressions. You can say very little with grammar, but you can say almost anything with words!" However, vocabulary teaching has not always been very responsive to such problems, and teachers have not fully recognized the tremendous communicative advantage in developing an extensive vocabulary. When language teachers try to decide which view of the language learning process should be adopted as the most suitable for meeting the needs of their students they often face a major source of problems. Reading opposing views, language teachers face a dilemma in trying to decide how to organize their lessons as well as choose the most effective method. Teaching of grammatical structures was given for a long time a greater priority over the communicative function itself. The number of words introduced in such courses was kept fairly low. Those words which were taught were often chosen either because they were easily demonstrated, or translation even used to be the only way of demonstration. The access of communicative approach set era for reconsidering the role of vocabulary, as well as debates about effectiveness of teaching process. Nevertheless, most language courses were organized around grammar syllabuses. While vocabulary is largely a

⁷¹ Canning-Wilson C. Visual support and language teaching. - New York: Newbury House, 1998. -P. 129.

collection of items, grammar is a system of rules.⁷² Since one rule can generate a great many sentences, the teaching of grammar considered to be more productive. Grammar multiplies, while vocabulary merely adds. However, two key developments were to challenge the hegemony of grammar. One was the lexical syllabus, that is, a syllabus based on those words that appear with a high degree of frequency in spoken and written English. The other was recognition of the role of lexical chunks in the acquisition of language and in achieving fluency. Both these developments were fuelled by discoveries arising from the new science of corpus linguistics.

People have different understanding of what a vocabulary item is, how an item can be learned and consolidated, which items should be learned, and to what extent the items should be learned and practiced. It is very important for the students themselves to develop vocabulary awareness and vocabulary building strategies. For the students, perhaps it is less difficult to learn vocabulary items for the first time than to consolidate and remember them. It is too often that we here students to complain that they keep learning and forgetting. Some people say that vocabulary cannot be taught, it can only be learned by the students. This is perhaps partially true. When students study vocabulary individually, very often it is rote learning whose effectiveness is seldom guaranteed, particularly when they do not fully understand the meaning of the vocabulary. When students study vocabulary together, say in groups, through various activities and under the teacher's supervision, vocabulary learning becomes more fun and effective. Learning is also more effective when students understand the meaning of the new vocabulary. Below are some vocabulary consolidation activities that can be done in class. *Labeling*: Students are given a picture. They are to write the names of objects indicated in the picture. A competitive element can be introduced by making the first student to finish the winner. *Spotting the differences*: Students are put into pairs. Each member of the pair receives a picture which is slightly different from

⁷² Thornbury Scott. How to teach vocabulary. -London: Longman, 2002. -P. 141.

his partner's. Students hide the pictures from one another and then, by the process of describing, questioning and answering, discover what the differences are.⁷³*Describing and drawing:* Students are put into pairs. One student has a picture, the other a blank piece of paper and a pencil. The student having the picture must tell his partner what draw so that the drawing ends up the same as the original picture. The student must not show the picture until the drawing is completed. *Playing a game:* Students are shown a picture or a tray with many objects on it, or a series of different flash cards or magazine pictures. They have one or two minutes to memorize as many of the objects as they can. The cards, pictures or tray are taken away and the students have to say what they saw, or write down everything they can remember seeing, then compare their answers with the rest of the class. *Using word thermometers:* These are useful for indicating different degrees in size, speed, age, distance, emotion and etc. they have to place these words in correct place on the thermometer. *Using word series:* Students contrast the series following an example. Example: Cutlery, knife fork, spoon. *Word bingo:* The teacher thinks of an area of language that the students have recently been studying. Students draw nine squares on a piece of paper and put nine words connected with shopping in the squares. The teacher then calls out, one at a time, words connected with shopping. If the students have the word in the squares, they cross it out. The first student to cross out all the words in the squares is the winner. The game can be played for more than one round. *Word association:* The teacher says a key word. The students then have to write down all the words they can think of connected with travelling. They have a time limit. When time is up, the person with the highest number of acceptable words is the winner. *Odd and out:* The teacher writes a set of words on the blackboard and asks the students to find the “odd man out”. For example, in the set “cheese, eggs, oranges, bread, soap, and meat”, the word “soap” is the “odd man out”. *Synonyms and antonyms:* The students are given a list of words

⁷³ McCarthy M, Felicity O'Dell. English vocabulary in use. –Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2009. -P. 4-15.

and asked to find pairs of words, either synonyms or antonyms. *Using word categories*: Students put the jumbled words in the middle into the boxes marked with different categories.⁷⁴ Although, much of the work of vocabulary learning is the responsibility of the students, teachers' guidance and help are invaluable. If teachers present new vocabulary items effectively, it saves a lot of time and energy for consolidation.

As we can see above, there are plenty ways which help students to enhance their word stock. And now we want show how all these activities are held in the lesson and how much impact do they have on students' learning process.

We observed a vocabulary lesson that is held by Saidova Mukhayyo Umidullayevna in group 106. 10 students participated in the lesson. At the beginning of the lesson teacher greeted with students. Then, she started to write the words in the blackboard in the following order:

- board, projector, chalk →
- scalpel, mask, syringe →
- stapler, computer, paperclip →
- make up, microphone, script →
- tractor, plough, barn →
- scissors, needle, sewing machine →
- dishes, cooker, frying pan →
- brush, hairpin, scissors →

And after finishing writing, teacher asked students to work in pairs and to find in which profession does each line's items belong. All students were able to answer correctly. The teacher asked students what is their theme and all said "Profession" simultaneously. This warm-up activity was helpful for drawing students' attention to the lesson. Besides, it helped student to have a basic notion about what they were going to have during the lesson. Some unfamiliar words were defined by students who knew the definition of the words so they

⁷⁴ McCarthy M, Felicity O'Dell. English vocabulary in use. –Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2009. -P. 4-15.

exchanged their ideas about the meanings of the words and how can they be used properly.

In the next step, teacher divided students into three different groups and asked them to take a piece of paper. As there were 3 representatives in each group, each member of the group were asked to write trades, professions and work with wide range while teacher read the following words: director, architect, vet, tailor, administrator, clerk, manager, lawyer, designer, dentist, accountant, police officer, receptionist, supervisor, sales assistant, carpenter, electrician, plumber, engineer, dressmaker, hair dresser, mechanic, brick layer, chef, laborer. This activity was useful for students to have wide range of understanding of the given job functions. Furthermore, it helped students to develop their critical thinking. They together decided how to put the profession into appropriate groups. Following this, students were demonstrated their first handout where they found professions with their definitions. Students turn by turn read them and compared them with their own definitions.

After finishing this task, teacher asked one volunteer to go out of the door. Then she divided students into two groups and told them that they were going to play a game named “Enemy and friend”. As teacher told they chose one profession. The group of friends should tell the correct definition of the profession whereas the group of enemies try to confuse the student. And at the end that student should name the profession which she or he thinks being told by friends. This activity helped students to be more engaged into the lesson and improved their acting skills. Besides, it helped them to enhance their speaking skills as they did not use their native language and gave merely definitions of the professions.

In general, we can say that the lesson was well-organized and various helpful and effective tools and techniques were used during the class. For examples, use of wide range of vocabulary exercises and activities helped learners to strengthen their word stock, or using interaction patterns during the class was quite useful for improving communication skills and oral proficiency of

students. Besides, teacher used pre-, while-, and post-, activities made the lesson more accurate and meaningful. Students were not confused while doing all tasks. They had clear understanding of what was going on and what they were supposed to do. After every response of the student teacher gave feedback which resulted in more involvement of the learners. While correcting the mistakes of the students teacher used explicit correction which lead to a considerably higher rate of learner uptake of the corrected form. All these used tools and techniques in vocabulary lesson were highly effective to consolidate and reinforce the knowledge of the learners. These tools and techniques can be used in all vocabulary classes in order to achieve higher results and to accomplish all tasks that teacher put forward at the beginning of the lesson.

The next vocabulary lesson which we are going to introduce took place in lyceum 4, in group 206. After greeting with the students teacher started to write following words in the blackboard: *sincere, creative, bashful, extroverted, introverted, confident, two-faced, ambitious, trustworthy, apathetic, sociable, frank, fun-loving, callous, candid, nosy, artistic, adventurous, bright, sedate, picky, assertive, affable, ignorant, ardent, betrayer, compassionate, audacious, free-spirit;*

Then, teacher divided students into two groups and told them to divide these words into positive and negative. Students did the task and compared their answers. After finishing reading teacher asked to guess today's theme. And the theme was "Describing character". Then, teacher put several pictures on the board which had various face expressions or actions that people were doing. Students' task was to find what adjectives do belong to each picture. Students were asked to do the task in pairs.

In the next part teacher distributed handout 1. There was a list of personality types with their definitions. But all of them were jumbled, so students were asked to match personality types with their definitions in pairs. After finishing the task pairs changed their handouts and checked each other's answers. Teacher

asked students to read their answers one by one and corrected their mistakes by giving more clear explanations.

Then teacher distributed handout 2. In this task students were asked to find “synonyms and antonyms” individually. In two columns the adjectives were given and students had to find the opposite meaning of the first column adjectives. The next task was as following: Students are divided into 2 groups. Teacher put many little cards on the desk in which adjectives were written. Each representative of the group comes and in 30 seconds they have to choose as many cards as possible and give the definition. Students should guess what word is written in the card. The group which finds more adjectives is a winner. In the second part of the activity students are again given 30 seconds. But this time they cannot give the definition of the words. They just have to show written words with mimics. And again the group which finds more correct answers is a winner.

The last activity was “Describe your friends”. In this activity students worked individually. All of them had to write adjectives which describes any group members. They should give clear description of their group-mate and the rest of the group should find who is being described.

The lesson was learner-centered. Because the main role was played by students and teacher merely gave instructions to students. That’s why the productivity of the lesson was high. We could see that the lesson was mainly based on cooperative learning. Students were divided into groups, worked in pairs and individually. And these interaction patterns showed that these students were quite good at working together. However, we have to mention that there were several challenges that occurred during interaction patterns. The first challenge was that students used their native language while worked in pairs and groups although they were warned to use merely their target language several times. The second challenge was error reinforcement. Students made mistakes in pronunciation and in grammar and others followed them by doing these mistakes again and again. Monitoring all groups and pairs at once was also one

issue. To check whether all groups following the rules or not was impossible. And besides there were some students who preferred to work alone and did not join in pair and group works. The advantages of interaction patterns should also be mentioned here. Using various interaction patterns helped students how to work alone, how to work in pairs and in groups and with this to enhance their oral proficiency. Students were told several times that language learning is not only the ability to understand everything but to have enough ability to communicate with others.

The use of visuals helped student clear vision of the word meaning and learners could readily remember words. Furthermore, various handouts were distributed. Teacher used pre, while and post activities during the lesson. *Pre activity* was distinguishing words into positive and negative. This activity which is done in groups, helped students to exchange their ideas about meaning of adjectives. It gave them basic notion about the adjectives and enriched their word stock. *While activity* had much influence on students' learning procedure as well. Students matched words with their definitions. And in this part peer correction was used. And with this type of error correction students could feel more responsibility and could exchange their ideas about word meanings. Next while activity, where students were asked to give definitions for the words helped them to increase both their speaking skills and critical thinking. This activity helped students to be more engaged in the lesson as there was a time limit. Post activity was an appropriate sum up part of the lesson. With this individual work students could share their opinion about others and checked how well do they know about one another. Overall, students could acquire intended knowledge from the lesson. All words were perfectly explained and used in their speeches. Till the end of the lesson learner had wide understanding of personality types.

We can sum up that tools and techniques as handouts, visual aids, pre, while, post activities, interaction patterns should be used in language classroom and they have tremendous effect on students' uptake. All these tools and techniques

help teacher to have a successful and interesting lesson where learners can easily be involved and quickly interested. Wide range of different activities, tasks, role plays should always be arranged by the teacher in language learning classroom as they help student to acquire knowledge more effectively and quickly. Every lesson should be aimed at having high results.

Conclusion

This graduate work deals with various effective and helpful tools and techniques of foreign language teaching and its influence on classroom atmosphere. Within the period of three months when we were in pedagogical practice we studied these issues, witnessed the outcomes, tried to find out what effect will these tools and techniques may lead. We have studied wide variety of effective tools and techniques, their function, and learned the ways of teaching English through these effective techniques.

To implement new and effective tools and techniques in language learning classroom teachers should first activate background knowledge, know how to use these techniques effectively. Furthermore, they should have a clear understanding of how these tools and techniques can be distributed effectively to learners. There must also be attention to relevant details of bottom-up language processing. There should be follow-up activities to practice any challenging language features that the learners are ready to tackle and more global communicative activities that allow for the consolidation of the language and content through skills-based activities for listening, reading, speaking, and writing. In the graduating work following tasks are accomplished:

- Identifying the term “technique” and about the history and taxonomy of techniques in educational and particularly in language teaching. It would be difficult to analyze the work without the understanding of the term and what effect it has been leading till now. Investigating its historical developing periods, comparing several scholars’ works on this issue;
- Analyzing the importance of tools and techniques in foreign language teaching and investigating ways of using them effectively for improving language skills; Without clarifying the role of effective tools and techniques, it is not useful to implement it in the process;

- Investigating the implementation of effective tools and techniques in our educational system; analyzing and adopting tools and techniques and practicing them in the lesson and evaluating the results.

In the first part of the work complete information was given about approaches, methods, taxonomy of techniques, free and controlled techniques, various effective tools which are being used widely all around the world by professional English language teachers. Their impact and importance, and the effective role of tools and techniques were also analyzed. We came across different viewpoints, discussions and dilemmas of the researchers. For this purpose various methodological literatures were taken as a source.

The second part was devoted to the implementation of effective tools and techniques in English language classes and consolidating vocabulary through various tools and techniques to improve language skills and to learn English. Besides, we have conducted a lesson in lyceum number 4, in group 206 in order to see the impact of certain tools and techniques on foreign language acquisition and observed a vocabulary lesson that is conducted by professional English teacher where we could witness the effectiveness tools and techniques.

In conclusion, present graduate work provides insight into ways and strategies of using tools and techniques in second/foreign language classes. We hope that our work proves valid database for further investigation and self-study.

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