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Методика викладання англійської мови: навчально-методичний посібник для студентів закладів вищої освіти (англійською мовою). Укладачі: Рогач Л.В. (ред.), Андрусяк І.В., Мигалина З.І., Решетар О.В., Сливка М.І., Чендей Н.В., Шовак-Миголинець О.І. Ужгород, 2023. 129 с.

Навчально-методичний посібник із дисципліни «Методика викладання англійської мови» призначений для здобувачів вищої освіти денної та заочної форм навчання першого (бакалаврського) та другого (магістерського) рівнів вищої освіти спеціальності «014 Середня освіта (Мова та література (англійська))» факультету іноземної філології Ужгородського національного університету, а також здобувачів вищої освіти за освітньою програмою «Українська мова і література. Англійська мова і література» на філологічному факультеті УжНУ та студентів інших закладів вищої освіти, які цікавляться запропонованою тематикою.

Збірник містить навчальні матеріали, що розкривають теоретичні, практичні аспекти навчання англійської мови та репрезентують традиційні й інноваційні методи, стратегії, техніки навчання учнів загальноосвітніх навчальних закладів усім видам іншомовної мовленнєвої діяльності, а також особливості викладання англійської мови на різних етапах навчання: в початковій, основній та старшій школах.

Структура навчально-методичного посібника відповідає модулям «Типової програми «Методика навчання англійської мови» (Освітній ступінь бакалавра)», яку було розроблено у рамках спільного проєкту Міністерства освіти і науки України та Британської Ради в Україні «Шкільний учитель нового покоління».

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UNDERSTANDING LEARNERS AND LEARNING

Psychological Factors in Language Learning

Affective Factors in EFL teaching. Teacher's strategies to reduce the affective filter.

Anxiety

Anxiety is associated with the feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, worry or fear that a person feels under certain circumstances.

It is generally believed that individuals with high levels of anxiety seem to be less successful in learning second languages than more relaxed individuals [Gardner 1985]. Teachers and students feel strongly that anxiety is a major obstacle to be overcome in learning to speak another language [Horwitz 1986].

Anxiety can be seen either as a *trait*, being a relatively stable personality trait, or as a *state* (a temporary situation). State anxiety is experienced in relation to some particular event or act.

Language anxiety refers to the situational nature of state anxiety, i.e. it recurs in some kind of situation (e.g. learning a foreign language).

Three components of foreign language anxiety have been identified:

1. communication apprehension, arising from learners' inability to adequately express mature thoughts and ideas;
2. fear of negative social evaluation, arising from a learner's need to make a positive social impression on others;
3. test anxiety, or apprehension over academic evaluation.

Psychologists distinguish between facilitating and debilitating anxiety. Depending on its type, foreign language anxiety can have both a negative effect and a positive effect on the language learning process.

Facilitative Anxiety (helpful anxiety)

Facilitative anxiety is associated with some concern over a task to be accomplished. Scovel suggests, 'Facilitating anxiety motivated the learner to 'fight' the new learning task; it gears the learner emotionally for approach behaviour' [Scovel 1978].

Debilitating anxiety (harmful anxiety)

'Debilitating anxiety … motivates the learner to flee the new learning task' [Scovel 1978]. As a result, learners exhibit avoidance behaviour such as missing class and postponing homework [Horwitz 1986]. Anxious foreign language learners have difficulty concentrating, become forgetful, sweat, and have palpitations.

S. Krashen believes that anxiety represents serious impediments to the development of second language fluency as well as to performance. Anxiety can affect the communication strategies students employ in language class.

Anxiety contributes to an affective filter, according to S. Krashen, which makes the individual unreceptive to language input; thus, the learner fails to "take in" the

available target language messages and language acquisition does not progress [Krashen 2002].

Low motivation, low self-esteem, and debilitating anxiety can combine to 'raise' the affective filter and form a 'mental block' that prevents comprehensible input from being used for acquisition.

Self-esteem

Self-esteem refers to a personal evaluation and judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that individuals hold towards themselves. It relates to 'confidence in our ability to think and to cope with the challenges of life. Confidence in our right to be happy, the feeling of being worthy, deserving, entitled to assert our needs and wants and to enjoy the fruits of our efforts.' [Braden 1992].

Self-esteem is one of the traits relating to self-confidence. It is hypothesized that the self-confident or secure person will be more able to encourage intake and will also have a lower affective filter [Krashen 2002].

H. D. Brown states: "Presumably, the person with high self-esteem is able to reach out beyond himself more freely, to be less inhibited, and because of his ego strength, to make the necessary mistakes involved in language learning with less threat to his ego" [Brown 2000].

Where does self-esteem comes from? People derive their sense of self-esteem from:
- the accumulation of experiences with themselves and with others and
- assessments of the external world around them.

Three general levels of self-esteem have been described in the literature to capture its multidimensionality:

1. General, or Global Self-Esteem is the general assessment that one makes of one's own worth over time and across a number of situations a general assessment one makes of his or her worth over time. It is relatively stable and is resistant to change in a mature adult.

2. Situational or Specific Self-Esteem refers to one's self-appraisals in particular life situations. The degree of specific self-esteem a person has may vary depending upon the situation or the trait in question.

3**. Task Self-Esteem** relates to particular tasks within specific situations. In second language acquisition, it may refer to one of the aspects of the learning process: speaking or writing, for instance.

There are many factors that contribute to learners' willingness to communicate, i.e. to predisposing one learner to seek and another learner to avoid second language communication. They noted that a high level of communicative ability does not necessarily correspond with a high willingness to communicate and that willingness is more related to task self-esteem than to an actual communicative ability.

So, we come across a chicken-or-egg question: does high self-esteem cause language success, or does language success cause high self-esteem?

Clearly, both are interacting factors.

It is difficult to say whether teachers should try to 'improve' global self-esteem or simply improve a learner's proficiency and let self-esteem take care of itself.

Inhibition

Cambridge Advanced Learners' Dictionary (2003) defines inhibition as 'a feeling of embarrassment or worry that prevents you from saying or doing what you want'.

All human beings, in their understanding of themselves, build sets of defences to protect the ego. Inhibition refers to the degree to which individuals allow their ego boundary to be open to a new set of knowledge and value systems.

H. Brown describes the 'language ego' Guiora. He says: 'The human ego encompasses what Guiora called the language ego to refer to the very personal, egoistic nature of second language acquisition. Meaningful language acquisition involves some degree of identity conflict as language learners take on a new identity with their newly acquired competence' [Brown 2000].

Thin ego boundaries are believed to allow learners to be open and tolerant of ambiguity, and therefore more creative when learning a second language, and it is commonly believed that by lowering inhibition in the language classroom, we can promote freer communication and a willingness to learn from trial and error.

The degree of inhibition a person displays depends on their age.

A child's ego is dynamic and growing and flexible; so, a new language at this stage does not pose a substantial threat or inhibition to it. Adults, on the other hand, manifest a number of inhibitions in language classes where their attempts to speak in the foreign language are often fraught with embarrassment. As people grow, they become more aware of themselves and this self-identity, which in turn is bound to language ego and gives rise to the emergence of inhibitions as a defensive mechanism.

Inhibited children react against many different types of unfamiliarity with avoidance, distress, or subdued emotion. The source of the unfamiliarity can be people, situations, objects, or events.

Many findings from inhibition studies have given rise to a number of steps that have been taken in practices to create techniques that reduce inhibition in the foreign language classroom.

Language teaching approaches in the last three decades have been characterized by the creation of contexts in which students are made to feel free to take risks and to orally try out hypotheses. What did this do?

It broke down some of the barriers that often make learners reluctant to try out their new language.

Anyone who has learned a foreign language is aware that second language learning actually needs the making of mistakes. We test out hypotheses about language by trial and many errors. Children learning their first language and adults learning a second can really make progress only by learning from their mistakes. If we never ventured to speak a sentence until we were absolutely certain of its total correctness, we would likely never communicate productively at all.

Why can mistakes be viewed as threats to one's ego!

Because they pose both internal and external threats:

- Internally: one's critical self and one's performing self can be in conflict: the learner performs something "wrong" and becomes critical of his or her own mistake.
- Externally: learners perceive others to be critical.

Risk-taking

In psychology risk-taking is referred to tendency to engage in behaviours that can be harmful, dangerous, frightening, … yet it provides the opportunity for positive outcomes to appear [Fryt 2021].

In language learning, risk-taking relates to being prepared to have a go at saying or writing something even if you are not exactly sure how to do it, without worrying that you might get wrong. It is associated with situations where students face challenging tasks, and the possibility of failure is very expected [Nunan 2015].

Risk-taking is a style that could have positive effects on language success. Learners have to be able to gamble a bit, to be willing to try out hunches about the language and take the risk of being wrong.

Some of the causes that might prevent students from being risk-takers:
• In the classroom: a bad grade in the course, a fail on the exam, a reproach from the teacher, a smirk from a classmate, punishment or embarrassment imposed by oneself.
• Outside the classroom: fear of looking ridiculous, fear of the frustration coming from a listener's blank look, fear of the alienation of not being able to communicate and thereby get close to other human beings & fear of losing their identity.

How can we resolve this problem?

According to H.Brown, 'interaction requires the risk of failing to produce intended meaning, of failing to interpret intended meaning, of being laughed at, of being shunned or rejected. The rewards, of course, are great and worth the risks' [Brown 2000]. In other words, teachers need to establish a correct affective framework so that learners 'feel comfortable' as they take their first public steps in the strange world of a foreign language.

Therefore, if a language learner interacts with the teacher automatically, he/she can acquire a foreign language without any difficulty.

According to H.Brown, "The key to risk-taking as a peak performance strategy is not simply in taking the risks. It is in learning from your 'failures'. [Brown 2000]. In this case, it is essential to accept the fiasco and internalize it as the learning experience. Afterward, language learners can master that language gradually.

However, we may be tempted to assume that high risk-takers have better results in second language learning; yet, such is not usually the case. A number of studies have found that successful language learners make willing and accurate guesses.

So, impulsivity is not always a good thing. Speaking aloud whatever comes to your mind is not always a good idea. The point here is that the overly high risk-takers, who enjoy dominating the classroom with wild gambles, may need to be 'tamed' a bit by the teacher.

Reducing Affective Filter: Teacher techniques and strategies

Attention to affective aspects can lead to more effective language learning. When dealing with the affective side of language learners, attention needs to be given both to

how we can overcome problems created by negative emotions and to how we can create and use more positive, facilitative emotions.

In what follows teacher techniques and strategies that lower the affective filter in foreign language classroom are given.

- assess what kind of anxiety their language learners are facing
- develop engaging lessons suited to learners' preferred styles
- don't correct every word that came out of learner's mouth
- challenge learners with a developmentally appropriate, multiple step task
- prepare lessons that make the learner feel successful
- handle learners' errors in a helpful, non-threatening and appropriate manner (e.g. by accurate modelling of the language)
- make learners feel that it is okay to experiment with the language
- make learners aware that making mistakes and learning from them is a positive and productive experience
- function as partners and mentors (positive roles) but not as testers and judges (negative roles)
- be careful about showing his/her attitude in his/her voice and with his/her body language
- don't laugh at learners' mistakes or place learners in awkward or high-risk environments
- institute a policy in the classroom that prohibits learners from making fun of their peers or laughing at errors made by other learners
- greet everyone with a smile
- avoid making students speak in front of the class
- always praise students
- crate activities which have communicative learning as its main goal
- make sure the target language inputs are comprehensible for learners' level
- respect the silent period for language learners

Strategies and Ways of Motivating Learners To Learn English against the background of affective factors in the EFL classroom

Mark Hancock describes the concept of motivation in terms of four principle ways of motivating: firstly, making your lessons clearly *useful*; secondly, making the content of your lessons *inspiring*; thirdly, by making sure that the classroom environment is *convivial*; and fourthly, by ensuring that the task of learning is *doable.* These four principles are located in four corners of the motivation map and relate to learners' aspirations, language and content, classroom and learning [Hancock 2013].

<u>Aspirations</u>
The Useful Corner
Students will perceive a lesson to be useful if they can understand how it contributes to achieving their aspirations. Their aspirations may be purely extrinsic such as passing an exam or getting a better job. They may want to learn English for purely

instrumental reasons, e.g. to communicate for specific purpose. Or they may have a more intrinsic motivation such as a wish to become better acquainted with the language and culture. If their purpose is just to pass the exam then teachers can motivate them by making their lessons into exam rehearsals. In this case the shape of the course is determined by the exam, a process known as washback. If their purpose is communicate with speakers who don't share their mother tongue then a teacher will need to demonstrate how each teaching point prepares them for or practices realistic communication. This kind of realism is known as action-orientation. Whatever students' objectives are the teacher needs to make sure that whatever they teach has value in terms of achieving them and needs to make this value visible or transparent to the students. Students' long-term aspirations can't be fulfilled all at once and we need to show them how the task can be broken down through short-term goals.

Subject (Language and Content)

The inspiring corner

The idea is that we can motivate through the subject we are teaching, i.e. through the language and the content, which is conveyed through the language. This may be partially achieved through you, the teacher, being enthusiastic about what you teach and making this enthusiasm evident with your students. You also need to make sure that the content is relevant, something that the students can understand and identify with and which they are likely to find interesting. Also, the activities in your lesson can motivate by allowing personal investment on the part of the students, tasks which allow them to express themselves and their enthusiasms. It is also worth mentioning a surprise factor here. Surprise is a real attention magnet while a totally predictable routine tends to kill attention.

With regard to the language and content corner of the map the concept of flow is helpful. The picturegraph with challenges increasing along the vertical axis and skills increasing along the horizontal axis. If you draw a diagonal band rising up from the bottom of left-hand corner this shows the place where is an ideal balance between challenges and skills. In the area above this band the language and content is too difficult in relation to the students' skills causing anxiety that demotivates. In the area below the band language and content is too easy in relation to the students' skills causing boredom which also kills off motivation. Within the band where the balance is ideal the student is capable of becoming 100% absorbed in exercising her or his skill to the full and in this state which is called flow they are extremely motivated

Classroom

The convivial corner

Here is where we focus on the social aspect recognising that the classroom is a minisociety and your students will have social motivation. The key is to recognise that learning a language is a face-threatening activity. The student is in a constant danger of appearing foolish in front of his or her peers and, of course, you. If their self-worth is damaged in this way they are unlikely to make progress. Language learning requires the learners to risk. If there is a fear of humiliation in the classroom they are unlikely to do this. You need to encourage them to take risks by ensuring that errors do not create any loss of face, by, for example, not ridiculing their bungled attempts and by not being overzealous in correcting the student who is trying to communicate something

meaningful. Encourage the atmosphere of cooperation in the class where students feel responsible for one another's progress.

Learning

The doable corner

This is the true motor of motivation. Let's imagine the students' aspirations are a tow truck pulling them along. In this image learning is a motor which allows the students eventually to move forward under their own drive autonomously. In order for learning to become this motor the student has to succeed and know it. Consequently, your class needs to be success-oriented. This cannot be simply by setting your bar so low that everyone succeeds effortlessly. They need an experience of meeting a challenge and overcoming it through their own effort firstly with support and later without help.

This is at the heart of the psychologist Vygotsky's concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). This zone is what lies between what students can do and what they can't do. Let's assume that now the students can't do something on their own. But they are able to succeed if they have help from a teacher or a more able fellow student. This aided success experience is crucial in helping them to make a transition from 'can't do' to 'can do'. It's central to what learning is about. This is why the idea of scaffolding or support is important in teaching and learning. Students need to succeed but they also need to know when they are succeeding and this self-knowledge comes from reflection and self-assessment. To facilitate this reflection you need to provide clear objective criteria by which to measure their progress such as 'can-do' statements recommended in CEFR. Of course, a student can rightly self-diagnose that he or she hasn't performed successfully in a given task. In this case, you should encourage them to attribute this to insufficient effort rather than to their insufficient ability. Effort is something they can do about whereas ability is something fixed. Attributing failure to a lack of ability leads to I'm-not-good-at-languages attitude and that's a motivation wrecker.

Principles for the development effective aims, objectives and learning outcomes

Defining Key Terms

Learning Outcomes → Learners' Perspective

• They are statements that describe the knowledge or skills students should acquire by the end of a particular assignment, class, course, or program, and help students understand why that knowledge and those skills will be useful to them. They focus on the context and potential applications of knowledge and skills, help students connect learning in various contexts, and help guide assessment and evaluation.

• a set of statements setting out what the participants should be able to do or understand by the end of the training event

• provide a learner-focused approach to our learning design. So instead of using objectives to list what a learner will be taught during the course, we use them to define what a learner can expect of themselves when they reach the end of the course and any assessments.

- If we consider them in their simplest form, they are the skills and/or knowledge the learner should be able to demonstrate upon course completion.
- They emphasize the application and integration of knowledge. Instead of focusing on coverage of material, they articulate how students will be able to employ the material, both in the context of the class and more broadly.

Effective learning outcomes:

- Are student-centered
- Focus on learning resulting from an activity rather than the activity itself
- Reflect the institution's mission and the values it represents
- Align at the course/program, academic program/department, divisional, and institutional levels

Aims → Teacher's Perspective (More General)

- concise descriptions of the overall goals or purposes of a piece of learning (a programme, a module or even an individual lesson, lecture or seminar). They are like 'mission statements' that encapsulate the scope and values of the offering.
- overall statements of what you hope the training event will achieve.
- give a general statement about the piece of learning. They define the purpose and direction for the lesson/course we are developing. We can then use them to give the learner the 'big picture' about what to expect from the learning content. They do not state what the learner will learn or do, but are more about the purpose of the learning, and what it is trying to achieve.

Some teachers write aims that are only statements of procedure (i.e. what students will do during the class) rather than stating what the teacher hopes the students will achieve by doing them). Hence, it makes sense to differentiate between achievement aims (e.g. "Students will be better able to ask and answer simple informal questions about a person's life, likes and dislikes) and Procedure aim (e.g. "Students will have done a role play about meeting new clients") [Scrivener].

Yet another type of aims is teacher's personal aims. They are what the teacher intends to improve in his/her performance, which reflects positively on his/her students' performance in the classroom: e.g. "make sure instructions are clear"; "keep to timing better", etc.). They are long term objectives i.e. the teacher can achieve each one of them in one session, two sessions, three sessions or even in the whole term or a year. That means they can be repeated in different lessons or periods.

Objectives → Teacher's Perspective (More Specific)

- brief descriptions of how the learning aims are going to be fulfilled. They explain the operational aspects of the teaching and learning in more detail than the learning aims, and they are written from the perspective of the educator.
- more specific statements of what you will present to the learners.
- describe what you want your learners to achieve by completing your piece of learning. They need to be clearly defined to give details of the elements that learners will have covered and hopefully mastered by the time they complete the course.
- One key consideration is the fact that they are very much about the content being covered and are from the authors' perspective. They are the steps the learner is taking towards the end goal.

Developing Learning aims, Objectives and Outcomes
When defining learning aims, it can be helpful to ask questions such as:

- From your perspective as a teacher, what is this piece of learning for?
- How does this lesson that you're teaching today fit into the bigger picture of what your students want or need to achieve on the course?
- What are the main benefits for learners?
- What is the module or the unit trying to achieve?

What should the main aim be? Ideally it should come from a course plan which outlines a logical progression of aims for every lesson in a course. How does this lesson that you're teaching today fit into the bigger picture of what your students want or need to achieve on the course? The aim might be based on a language point (grammatical, lexical or phonological), or it might be based on a skill (reading, writing, listening or speaking).

The key is to think not in terms of what you want to teach, but in terms of what you want your students to be able to do. By thinking from your students' perspective you are more likely to choose activities which will help them achieve this aim, rather than activities which are easy for you to teach. if your aim is grammar or vocabulary based, you also avoid the risk of "teaching" the form and then thinking "okay, they've got it, job done".

So, instead of "to teach will and going to" or "to practice listing for gist" try "to enable students to discuss future plans using will and going to" or "to develop students' ability to identify the main ideas in a reading text". Think along the lines of "to help / to enable / to develop/ to improve…" rather than "to teach / to practice".

It's also a good idea to make a note of how you will recognise when your students have achieved the main aim. This can help you afterwards to critically analyse your lesson, think about ways to improve it if they didn't achieve the aim, and decide what further work is needed on a particular language point or skill.

A good learning aim should comprise three elements. These three elements are based heavily on a model of competency derived largely from Bloom's Taxonomy, which is an assessment tool for measuring people's abilities based on their Knowledge, Skills and Attitude. The idea there is that in order to be considered 'competent' in a given field or position, one must possess the necessary knowledge and skills and have the right attitude. If one does possess these three things, then they are a good fit for a given occupation.

However, in the EFL field it is context that makes the language taught and learnt in the classroom of real value to the students. Moreover, context shapes an EFL learner's ability to apply and combine skills and knowledge appropriately in different ways according to the given situation. It follows that alongside knowledge and skills the EFL proficiency model requires context rather than attitude.

The first thing the teacher must do is identify these three elements within the subject.

The knowledge is the language elements themselves, the building blocks: e.g. grammar, organization, spellings, pronunciation, words and their meanings, etc..

Without these, there is nothing to communicate, no message. However, if we have only this component without skill, then we have no way of delivering our message. With knowledge, we simply have a head full of linguistic items but no way of communicating them to other people. Language skills (listening, reading, writing and speaking) give us the ability to communicate, either by the spoken or the written word. Even so, without an understanding of the contexts relevant to the language, we will not be able to communicate effectively. Examples of contexts to consider include register, appropriacy, shared information, etc.

For example, if you want to teach language related to holidays, it is not enough to say that your learning aim is "language related to holidays". You need to check for knowledge, skills and context.

Starting with the *knowledge component*, decide what language element you plan to focus on. It might be a vocabulary lesson - in which case you might choose words to describe places or words for holiday activities or words for different types of accommodation. It may well be a structure lesson - in which case you might choose to focus on past tense structures to describe holiday experiences or future structures to discuss holiday plans.

Once you've decided on the knowledge component, you need to set a *skill focus*. Will your students be developing their speaking skill, perhaps by making holiday plans with a friend, or will they be practicing their writing skill, maybe by writing a postcard about their holiday activities? Will they be improving their reading skills, for example by comparing hotels and choosing the best one for their needs, or perhaps their listening skills, by hearing some complaints from unsatisfied holidaymakers? Whichever skill you choose - and it's possible to combine skills- your lesson should be designed to give maximum opportunity for the students to practise and develop that skill. It doesn't mean the other skills won't be used - all lessons make use of all skills holistically - but the skill you choose for your learning objective will be the focus for development.

Finally, you need a *context* for the language you are teaching. The context is how the language that is learned in the classroom relates to the experiences the students will have outside of the classroom. In this example, the broad context is holidays, and more specifically it could be in conversation with friends or postcards or making/receiving complaints and so on. It is the thing that you expect your students to do with the target language in their real lives.

How do you write aims and learning outcomes?

As part of your planning you need to decide what your students need to be able to DO after they have learned something that you have taught. Beginning your planning with the learning outcomes will also help you ensure that your tasks and activities are appropriate and will help your students achieve their objectives.

When defining learning objectives, it can be helpful to ask questions such as:

- What teaching methods will be used?
- What are students going to be doing? What kinds of learning activities will they engage in?

What new knowledge, skills or understanding do you intend learners to gain, and at what level?

A lesson aim is a very general statement of what the overall goal is in a lesson – the intention behind the teaching. The lesson objective/objectives are the measurable stages that a learner will go through and need to achieve in order to achieve the overall goal. Aims are like strategy, objective are like tactic.

Examples of lesson aims and objectives:

Lesson aim: To practise the future tenses

Lesson objectives:

- The learners will be able to use the "will" future
- The learners will be able to use "going to" future
- The learners will be able to build their plans for the weekend using appropriately the 'will" and "going to" future

Learning outcomes should be **S.M.A.R.T**., that is:

S – Specific – says exactly what the learner will be able to do

M – Measurable – can be observed by the end of the lesson, a sequence of lessons, term, etc

A – Attainable for the learners within scheduled time and specified conditions

R – Relevant to the needs of the learners

T – Time-framed - achievable by the end of a specific period

A learning objective must not include the phrases *'to know'* or *'to understand'* but instead active

verbs such as *'state', 'explain', 'outline', 'list'* or *'describe'*. Avoid using verbs that are difficult to

measure objectively. The following verbs are difficult to assess and measure and therefore should be used with caution:

- Know, comprehend, understand, appreciate, familiarize, study, be aware, become acquainted with, gain knowledge of, cover, learn, realize

Know and *understand* do not specify any overt 'doing' and although knowing and understanding

underpin learning, objectives are always written using active doing verbs.

They are statements of what you want your learners to do and should

- be stated clearly
- define or describe an action

Examples of Measurable Action Words (examples)

explain	demonstrate	analyze	formulate	discuss
compare	differentiate	describe	name	asses
evaluate	identify	design	define	list

An example of a SMART learning outcome:

By the end of the class, the learners will be able to use appropriate vocabulary to describe their holiday activities

Second Language Acquisition

Internal factors

Internal factors in SLA are those that the individual language learner brings with him or her to the particular learning situation.

Age: Second language acquisition is influenced by the age of the learner. Learners, who already have solid literacy skills in their own language, seem to be in the best position to acquire a new language efficiently. Motivated, older learners can be very successful too, but usually struggle to achieve native-speaker-equivalent pronunciation and intonation.

Personality: Introverted or anxious learners usually make slower progress, particularly in the development of oral skills. They are less likely to take advantage of opportunities to speak, or to seek out such opportunities. More outgoing students will not worry about the inevitability of making mistakes. They will take risks, and thus will give themselves much more practice.

Motivation (intrinsic): Intrinsic motivation has been found to correlate strongly with educational achievement. Clearly, students who enjoy language learning and take pride in their progress will do better than those who don't. Extrinsic motivation is also a significant factor. ESL students, for example, who need to learn English in order to take a place at an American university or to communicate with a new English boy/girlfriend are likely to make greater efforts and thus greater progress.

Experiences: Learners who have acquired general knowledge and experience are in a stronger position to develop a new language than those who haven't. The student, for example, who has already lived in 3 different countries and been exposed to various languages and cultures has a stronger base for learning a further language than the student who hasn't had such experiences.

Cognition: In general, it seems that students with greater cognitive abilities (intelligence) will make the faster progress. Some linguists believe that there is a specific, innate language learning ability that is stronger in some students than in others.

Native language: Students who are learning a second language which is from the same language family as their first language have, in general, a much easier task than those who aren't. So, for example, a Dutch child will learn English more quickly than a Japanese child.

External factors

External factors are those that characterize the particular language learning situation.

Curriculum: For ESL students in particular it is important that the totality of their educational experience is appropriate for their needs. Language learning is less likely to

place if students are fully submersed into the mainstream program without any extra assistance or, conversely, not allowed to be part of the mainstream until they have reached a certain level of language proficiency.

Instruction: Clearly, some language teachers are better than others at providing appropriate and effective learning experiences for the students in their classrooms. These students will make faster progress. The same applies to mainstream teachers in second language situations. The science teacher, for example, who is aware that she too is responsible for the students' English language development, and makes certain accommodations, will contribute to their linguistic development.

Culture and status: There is some evidence that students in situations where their own culture has a lower status than that of the culture in which they are learning the language make slower progress.

Motivation (extrinsic): Students who are given continuing, appropriate encouragement to learn by their teachers and parents will generally fare better than those who aren't. For example, students from families that place little importance on language learning are likely to progress less quickly.

Access to native speakers: The opportunity to interact with native speakers both within and outside of the classroom is a significant advantage. Native speakers are linguistic models and can provide appropriate feedback. Clearly, second-language learners who have no extensive access to native speakers are likely to make slower progress, particularly in the oral/aural aspects of language acquisition.

Affective factors

The affective filter hypothesis accounts for the influence of affective factors on second language acquisition. Affect refers to non-linguistic variables such as motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety. According to the hypothesis, affect effects acquisition by facilitating or preventing comprehensible input. In other words, fear, nervousness, boredom, etc. can affect the acquisition of a second language by preventing information about the second language from reaching the language areas of the mind.

Developing Learner Autonomy

Learner Autonomy: Conditions and Strategies for Development

Developing learner independence has an important role in the theory and practice of language teaching. Language learning is a lifelong endeavour, not one that begins and ends in a language class room. Most learners and teachers feel that language learning consumes a considerable amount of time. Learners have to work within and beyond the class room to develop their language skills. The notion of learner independence or learner autonomy moves into an area where learners can direct their own learning. It could mean those learning activities which take place without the immediate intervention of the teacher. In this scenario, learners set their own objectives

and follow strategies devised by themselves to fulfil them. This facilitates the learner to become more efficient and effective when they study independently. Learners are compelled to assume responsibility for their own learning. Learner independence demands learner involvement and such involvement may lead to a deeper and better learning. Thus it can be said that the fostering of learner independence may start in a classroom environment and extend beyond it.

Learner autonomy describes the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his learning and the implementation of those decisions. In full autonomy, there is no involvement of a teacher or an institution. And the learner is also independent of specially prepared materials. Autonomy is a capacity – for detachment, critical reflection, decision making, and independent action.

Autonomous learners have learned how to learn. They have acquired the learning strategies, the knowledge about learning, and the attitudes that enable them to use these skills and knowledge confidently, flexibly, appropriately and independently of a teacher. Learner autonomy is characterized by a readiness to take charge of one's own learning in the service of one's needs and purposes. This entails a capacity and willingness to act independently and in cooperation with others, as a socially responsible person.

Conditions for Developing Learner Autonomy.

A teacher who wants to train autonomous learners should know that it is not an easy task to change students who are accustomed to the teacher-centered methods. Autonomous learners should be active in the whole process of language learning and take responsibility for their learning. Students won't be autonomous unless their ideas of the process of learning, their attitude to learning and their behavioral patterns in an educational environment change. The social learning environment should be supportive, accepting and caring. In this environment, students are free to experiment new behaviors, attitudes and action theories. If autonomy in learning is limited only to the classroom environments and students can't transfer this autonomy to outside the classroom, the whole process of training autonomy in learners would be useless. A course should prepare conditions for students to transfer their autonomy in learning to outside of the classroom.

It is very difficult for teachers to develop autonomy in the classroom especially when learners are used to traditional methods and techniques where teachers play the main role. The course should be designed in such a way that students become aware of pedagogical goals, different contents and strategies, language learning theories and themselves as learners.

In addition, they should have enough motivation to modify and adapt goals, styles and strategies and create their own goals and plans for self - directed learning. Also, the course should take into consideration the learner's goals since the starting point in this course is not the text book but a learner who has its own history, culture and educational needs.

Collaboration is one of fundamental conditions to promote autonomy and the course should provide conditions by which learners could construct their shared learning space collaboratively. The course should be designed in such a way that there

should be room for freedom of choice for individuals and groups of learners since in this environment, students decide on the direction of the learning process.

It is necessary for teachers to provide conditions for students to think and act autonomously. It is crucial that choice, flexibility, adaptability, modifiability, reflectivity and shareability should exist in an autonomous based classroom. Learners should be given an opportunity to choose learning content and learning methodology. They should have a share of responsibility for planning and conducting teaching learning activities. Flexibility refers to the possibility of selfrepair and change of the options for students. For example, they could choose to stop doing an activity and change it to another form. If the learning materials are accessible for students it means the course has adaptability. Modifiability makes it possible for students to modify the existing materials. Reflectivity emphasizes on the ability of a course to provide conditions for student to reflect on their own leaning, evaluate the outcomes, draw conclusions and make their future plans. Shareability refers to the ability to share activities and problems with others.

Autonomy in the Classroom. Group-oriented Approaches to Developing Autonomy.

Group and pair work are techniques for collaborative teaching that provide a chance for social interaction. Group work and pair work is a class management strategy and the role the teacher has to play while teaching is of a facilitator. Teacher's role in group work is very difficult and at the same time it is very important role too. Group work allows teacher to monitor, move around the class and really listen to the language students are producing.

In a traditional classroom, the teacher controls the class with authority, there is no active role of students during teaching-learning process. Contrary to this group work makes students autonomous learners who work collaboratively for their own learning. Group work takes the spotlight off the teacher and puts it onto the students. Language classroom is the place where teachers and learners come together for interaction and can learn in natural settings. Group work allows students to mix with everyone in the group. Teaches students how to lead and be led by someone other than the teacher, besides, it allows students to mix with everyone in the group. Group work is a teaching strategy at all levels of education. It gives students a sense of achievement when reaching a team goal, gives learners more speaking time and changes the pace of the lesson. The effective use of group work in language class can provide a valuable learning experience to students and give them the opportunity to practically experience the ideas presented and strengthen their learning.

Project work in the ELT classroom.

Project work is becoming an increasingly popular feature within the ELT classroom. Common projects are class magazines, group wall displays about students' countries and designs for cities of the future. A project involves students in deciding together what they want to do to complete a project whilst the teacher plays a more supporting role.

Some advantages of project work are:

- Increased motivation - learners become personally involved in the project.

- All four skills, reading, writing, listening and speaking are integrated.
- Autonomous learning is promoted as learners become more responsible for their own learning.
- There are learning outcomes -learners have an end product.
- Authentic tasks and therefore the language input are more authentic.
- Interpersonal relations are developed through working as a group.
- Content and methodology can be decided between the learners and the teacher and within the group themselves so it is more learner centred.
- Learners often get help from parents for project work thus involving the parent more in the child's learning. If the project is also displayed parents can see it at open days or when they pick the child up from the school.
- A break from routine and the chance to do something different.
- A context is established which balances the need for fluency and accuracy.

Autonomy beyond the Classroom.

'Self-access' is a way of describing learning materials that are designed and organized in such a way that students can select and work on tasks on their own (although this does not preclude the possibility of various kinds of support), and obtain feedback on their performance, for example by comparing their answers to a key which accompanies the material. 'Self-access' cannot be equated with 'learner autonomy'. Self-access refers to materials that are made available for learners to work on their own. However, this does not imply that learners who use self-access materials are autonomous. Likewise, learners who choose to have lessons with a teacher are no less autonomous than others who learn a language using self-access materials.

Nevertheless, there clearly exists a close relationship between self-access and learner autonomy: autonomy aims at giving learners the possibility of making choices and taking charge of their learning, whereas self-access provides learners with manifold ways of learning. Thus, self-access can be seen as one context in which autonomy can be developed. The term 'self-access center' is used to refer to the places in language institutions where learning resources and materials are organized and displayed for students to work in a self-access mode.

CALL. With the advent of the Internet, computer technology has played a pervasive role in institutionalized and non-institutionalized language learning. Several recent contributions to the vast literature in this area have emphasized opportunities for learner autonomy within CALL and the importance of attention to autonomy in the development and use of CALL technologies.

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is defined as "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning". CALL embraces a wide range of information and communications technology applications and approaches to teaching and learning foreign languages, from the "traditional" drill-and-practice programs that characterised CALL in the 1960s and 1970s to more recent manifestations of CALL, e.g. as used in a virtual learning environment and Web-based distance learning.

The current philosophy of CALL puts a strong emphasis on student-centred materials that allow learners to work on their own. Such materials may be structured or unstructured, but they normally embody two important features: interactive learning and

individualised learning. CALL is essentially a tool that helps teachers to facilitate the language learning process. It can be used to reinforce what has already been learned in the classroom or as a remedial tool to help learners who require additional support.

A combination of face-to-face teaching and CALL is usually referred to as blended learning. Blended learning is designed to increase learning potential and is more commonly found than pure CALL.

Distance Learning. Distance learning, the independent learning mode without formal constraints, also reflects the characteristics of autonomous learning. Distance learning has begun to merge with CALL through concepts such as 'online learning', 'cyberschools', 'asynchronous learning networks' and 'telematics'.

Tandem Learning. Tandem learning, in which two people are learning each other's' language work to help one another, has long association with autonomy. While it was something of a minority interest before the rise of the Internet, now a great number universities offer tandem learning to their students.

Study Abroad. In study abroad program, students spend time in target language communities. Although many of the programs involve classroom instruction, their main purpose is usually for the students to learn independently through interaction with the native speakers.

Self-Instruction. In a narrow sense, self-instruction refers to the use of printed or broadcast self-study materials. In a broader sense, it refers to situations in which learners undertake language study largely or entirely without the aid of teachers.

Out-of-class learning.

As the traditional teaching approach involves teachers delivering and directing a formal class lesson according to an exam-oriented curriculum plan, teachers could begin with transforming this curriculum, that is, to combine what is taught in the class with extracurricular activities outside the class.

For instance, the school could set an extracurricular course, which is one proportion of students' final grade, for students to complete during their out-of-class time. An example of this could be to build an English learning website that could only be accessible to students attending the school in question; they could log in using their student number. This website could contain various English learning resources and exercises including reading and listening exercises that cover all the content from English textbooks for the different majors and different grade levels of students. For instance, students majoring in English will do exercises pertaining to the content of their professional English texts, while those majoring in other areas will do exercises pertaining to the content of college English texts. These exercises could be an extension of the content from these textbooks. Each exercise would be scored and students would be allowed to choose any of these exercises as long as they achieve a certain score in each period. With this test system, students conduct self-directed naturalistic language learning; it is quite different from traditional classes and exams. When students encounter problems during the learning process, they have easy access to the Internet to solve problems with such things as vocabulary. When students become interested in the content of the exercises, they are able to search for more information on the Internet right away. In this case, students can increase their vocabulary, their English reading ability is facilitated through the searching process, and the contents of their English

textbooks could be learned and understood much better, which make in-class learning more effective.

When extracurricular courses and projects are added to school curriculum, learning becomes more interesting and flexible as learning forms become more varied. Instead of traditional rigid homework and exams, students have more choices to learn different things and achieve learning success, especially in projects where there are no standard answers. During the learning process, students will develop their autonomous abilities through self-directed naturalistic learning activities, for example, listening exercises, reading exercises, or searching for information and data online for their projects. Moreover, teachers will no longer play a dominant role, instead, they will act as an advisor, a helper, an information provider, a facilitator, and take on many other roles, for example, they may provide writing guidance when students encounter problems in writing the project report. Students may realize that they are responsible for their own learning by experiencing extracurricular courses and projects. When students benefit from autonomous learning through these courses and projects, they may become more willing to make use of the autonomous learning facilities and participate in those out-of-class learning activities the teachers and schools will create for them.

Specific areas of transferred responsibility include explicit statements of lesson objectives and self- or peer-correction of errors. Explicit statements of lesson objectives enable students to understand what exactly they should learn in one lesson so that they can make learning plans and take charge of their learning.

An easy way to decrease students' fear of criticism when speaking English would be for schools to build autonomous learning facilities with a room intended for practicing oral English. These rooms could be equipped with a blackboard, a table, some chairs and pens, and some English newspapers for students to use. English teachers should be there to take turns to help students when they have problems, for instance, some students may need conversation partners. Students could book the room in advance using the school's website.

One effective way to motivate students is to advertise employment information to them. Many universities hold a job fair in which many companies advertise work to senior students twice a year. Some positions have requirements for English capacity. In my opinion, not only senior students should be required to participate in the job fair, but students in other grades should also be invited. This way, if students are interested in those positions that require English certificates, they have more time to prepare for these future jobs and thus, are motivated to learn English in order to meet the requirements. When they are preparing for these certificate exams, out-of-class English learning activities are a good way for them to further improve their English. For example, students could do their exercises independently first and then seek for help from English teachers at the autonomous learning centre when they have problems with the exercises. As the composition portion is a large percentage of these English certificate exams, schools could also provide an English Academic Writing Centre within the autonomous learning centre so that students could make an appointment with the teachers there to obtain guidance with their writing.

Another effective way to keep students motivated to learn autonomously during out-of-class learning activities is the combination of in-class teaching with daily life. To

be specific, teachers need to add more content pertaining to students' daily life to their in-class teaching content. An English teacher can arrange a period of time for English songs in one class once a week. Students may become very interested in English songs and try to imitate the lyrics, which will help them greatly to improve their oral English pronunciation.

PREPARING TO TEACH 1

Principles of Communicative Language Teaching

The main features of CLT

Since the 1990s, the communicative approach has been widely implemented. Because it describes a set of very general principles grounded in the notion of communicative competence as the goal of second and foreign language teaching, and a communicative syllabus and methodology as the way of achieving this goal, communicative language teaching has continued to evolve as our understanding of the processes of second language learning has developed.

Communicative language teaching today refers to a set of generally agreed upon principles that can be applied in different ways, depending on the teaching context, the age of the learners, their level, their learning goals, and so on.

The following core assumptions underlie current practices in communicative language teaching:

1. Second language learning is facilitated when learners are engaged in interaction and meaningful communication.

 2. Effective classroom learning tasks and exercises provide opportunities for students to negotiate meaning, expand their language resources, notice how language is used, and take part in meaningful interpersonal exchange.

  3. Meaningful communication results from students processing content that is relevant, purposeful, interesting, and engaging.

  4. Communication is a holistic process that often calls upon the use of several language skills or modalities.

5. Language learning is facilitated both by activities that involve inductive or discovery learning of underlying rules of language use and organization, as well as by those involving language analysis and reflection.

 6. Language learning is a gradual process that involves creative use of language, and trial and error. Although errors are a normal product of learning, the ultimate goal of learning is to be able to use the new language both accurately and fluently.

7. Learners develop their own routes to language learning, progress at different rates, and have different needs and motivations for language learning.

8. Successful language learning involves the use of effective learning and communication strategies.

9. The role of the teacher in the language classroom is that of a facilitator, who creates a classroom climate conducive to language learning and provides opportunities for students to use and practice the language and to reflect on language use and language learning.

10. The classroom is a community where learners learn through collaboration and sharing.

The main principles of CLT

Jacobs and Farrell suggest that the CLT paradigm shift outlined above has led to eight major changes in approaches to language teaching. These changes are:

1. **Learner autonomy**: Giving learners greater choice over their own learning, both in terms of the content of learning as well as processes they might employ. The use of small groups is one example of this, as well as the use of self-assessment.

2. **The social nature of learning**: Learning is not an individual, private activity, but a social one that depends upon interaction with others. The movement known as cooperative learning reflects this viewpoint.

3. **Curricular integration**: The connection between different strands of the curriculum is emphasized, so that English is not seen as a stand-alone subject but is linked to other subjects in the curriculum. Text-based learning reflects this approach, and seeks to develop fluency in text types that can be used across the curriculum. Project work in language teaching also requires students to explore issues outside of the language classroom.

4. **Focus on meaning**: Meaning is viewed as the driving force of learning. Content-based teaching reflects this view and seeks to make the exploration of meaning through content the core of language learning activities.

5. **Diversity**: Learners learn in different ways and have different strengths. Teaching needs to take these differences into account rather than try to force students into a single mold. In language teaching, this has led to an emphasis on developing students' use and awareness of learning strategies.

6. **Thinking skills**: Language should serve as a means of developing higher-order thinking skills, also known as critical and creative thinking. In language teaching, this means that students do not learn language for its own sake but in order to develop and apply their thinking skills in situations that go beyond the language classroom.

7**. Alternative assessment**: New forms of assessment are needed to replace traditional multiple-choice and other items that test lower-order skills. Multiple forms of assessment (e.g., observation, interviews, journals, portfolios) can be used to build a comprehensive picture of what students can do in a second language.

8. **Teachers as co-learners**: The teacher is viewed as a facilitator who is constantly trying out different alternatives, i.e., learning through doing. In language teaching, this has led to an interest in action research and other forms of classroom investigation.

The role of teachers and learners

The type of classroom activities proposed in CLT also implied new roles in the classroom for teachers and learners. Learners now had to participate in classroom activities that were based on a cooperative rather than individualistic approach to learning. Students had to become comfortable with listening to their peers in group work or pair work tasks, rather than relying on the teacher for a model. They were expected to take on a greater degree of responsibility for their own learning. And teachers now had to assume the role of facilitator and monitor. Rather than being a model for correct speech and writing and one with the primary responsibility of making students produce plenty of error-free sentences, the teacher had to develop a different view of learners' errors and of her/his own role in facilitating language learning.

CLT Teacher's Role:
- to facilitate interactive communicative opportunities
- to establish situations that prompt communication
- to monitor performance and offer feedback
- to use authentic materials
- to emphasize function over form
- to promote all language skills from the beginning
- to tolerate errors during fluency-based activities

CLT Learner's Role:
- the learner is a negotiator between himself, the learning process, and the object of learning
- the learner should contribute as much as he gains and learn in an independent way
- students are expected to interact primarily with each other rather than with the teacher
- students give and receive information

Communicative language competences

Linguistic competence is concerned with knowledge of the language itself, its form and meaning. It involves knowledge of spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary, word formation, grammatical structure, sentence structure, etc.

Linguistic competence is an integral part of communicative competence. It is impossible to conceive of a person being communicatively competent without being linguistically competent. However, the most difficult question to resolve is how to achieve a balance between "form-focused" classroom activities which aim at linguistic accuracy and "unfocused" activities which involve learners in negotiation of meaning and aim at fluency. How can these two types of activity be integrated in a lesson? What should the organizing principle be? These are the key questions in ELT.

Pragmatic competence involves two kinds of ability. In part it means knowing how to use language in order to achieve certain communicative goals or intentions. This has been called illocutionary competence. An example would be "It's so hot today". It might be a statement about the physical atmosphere, a request to open the window, or an attempt to elicit the offer of a cold drink.

The social knowledge is necessary to select the language forms to use in different settings, and with people in different roles and with different status. This has been called sociolinguistic competence. It can relate as much to verbal communication. It can also relate to knowing when to speak and when to be silent, or what to say in certain circumstances, that is to know when to speak, when not, what to talk about with whom, when, where and in what manner.

Discourse competence involves three other aspects of competence in conversational use of language: how to perform the terns in discourse; how to maintain the conversation, and how to develop the topic. Second language learners will need to acquire useful language for strategies such as initiating, entering, interrupting, checking and confirming in conversation. For example, they will need to learn the typical discourse markers which signal the direction of discourse such as "By the way" (introducing an incidental remark) or "That's all very well, but" (challenging an argument).

Learners will need to develop a similar kind of competence for written texts. Various abilities needed to create coherent written texts or conversation, and to understand them, have together been termed **textual competence**.

Strategic competence is defined as how to cope in an authentic communicative situation and how to keep the communicative channel open. Strategic competence consists of using communication strategies. These strategies come into play when learners are unable to express what they what to say because they lack the recourses to do successfully. They compensate for this either by changing their original intention or by searching for other means of expression.

Accuracy versus fluency

One of the goals of CLT is to develop fluency in language use. Fluency is natural language use occurring when a speaker engages in meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitations in his or her communicative competence. Fluency is developed by creating classroom activities in which students must negotiate meaning, use communication strategies, correct misunderstandings, and work to avoid communication breakdowns.

They list three types of fluency: semantic fluency, lexical-syntactical fluency and articulatory fluency.

Fluency practice can be contrasted with accuracy practice, which focuses on creating correct examples of language use. Differences between activities that focus on fluency and those that focus on accuracy can be summarized as follows:

Activities focusing on fluency
- Reflect natural use of language
- Focus on achieving communication
- Require meaningful use of language
- Require the use of communication strategies
- Produce language that may not be predictable
- Seek to link language use to context

Example: Students act out a dialogue in which a customer returns a faulty object to a department store. The clerk asks what the problem is and promises to get a refund for the customer or to replace the item. In groups, now try to recreate the dialogue using language items of your choice. Act out your dialogues in front of the class.

Activities focusing on accuracy
- Reflect classroom use of language
- Focus on the formation of correct examples of language
- Practice language out of context
- Practice small samples of language
- Do not require meaningful communication
- Control choice of language

Example: Students are practicing dialogues. The dialogues contain examples of falling intonation in Wh-questions. The class is organized in groups of three, two students practicing the dialogue, and the third playing the role of monitor. The monitor checks that the others are using the correct intonation pattern and corrects them where necessary.

Categories of tasks

Information-gap activity, which involves a transfer of given information from one person to another, generally calling for the decoding or encoding of information from or into language. One example is pair work in which each member of the pair has a part of the total information (for example an incomplete picture) and attempts to convey it verbally to the other.
Another example is completing a tabular representation with information available in a given piece of text. The activity often involves selection of relevant information as well, and learners may have to meet criteria of completeness and correctness in making the transfer.

Reasoning-gap activity, which involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, etc. One example is working out a teacher's timetable on the basis of given class timetables. The activity necessarily involves comprehending and conveying information, but the

information to be conveyed is not identical with that initially comprehended. There is a piece of reasoning which connects the two.

Opinion-gap activity, which involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude in response to a given situation. One example is story completion; another is taking part in the discussion of a social issue. The activity may involve using factual information and formulating arguments to justify one's opinion, but there is no objective procedure for demonstrating outcomes as right or wrong, and no reason to expect the same outcome from different individuals or on different occasions.

Notion of a task:
- A task involves a primary focus on (pragmatic) meaning.
- A task has some kind of "gap" (information gap, reasoning gap, and opinion gap)
- The learners choose the linguistic resources to complete the task.
- A task has a clearly defined, non-linguistic outcome.

Types of tasks:

- Listing and / or brainstorming. You can list people, actions, reasons, everyday problems, things to do, etc.
- Ordering / sorting. This can be sequencing, ranking, or classifying.
- Matching. You can match captions / texts / recorded extracts to pictures; short notes or headlines to longer texts, e.g. news items.
- Comparing: finding similarities or differences.
- Problem-solving.
- Sharing personal experiences and storytelling.

Characteristics of a communicative task:

- Clear communicative purpose
- Information/opinion gap
- Communicative situation resembles that in real life
- Spontaneous use of English by the learners
- Authenticity of materials
- Clear evidence of task completion

An example of information-gap activity

Students are divided into A-B pairs. One set (for A students) contains a picture of a group of people. The other set (for B students) contains a similar picture but it contains a number of slight differences from the A-picture. Students must sit back to

back and ask questions to try to find out how many differences there are between the two pictures.

Jigsaw activities are also based on the information-gap principle. Typically, the class is divided into groups and each group has part of the information needed to complete an activity. The class must fit the pieces together to complete the whole. The teacher takes a narrative and divides it into sections (as many sections as there are students in the class). Each student gets one section of the story. Students must then move around the class, and by listening to each section read aloud, decide where in the story their section belongs. Eventually the students have to put the entire story together in the correct sequence.

Many of the activities proposed in the early days of CLT can be described as tasks according to the definition above, i.e., information-gap and information-sharing activities that we find in many course books and ELT materials. From the point of view of TBI, two kinds of tasks can usefully be distinguished:

Pedagogical tasks are specially designed classroom tasks that are intended to require the use of specific interactional strategies and may also require the use of specific types of language (skills, grammar, vocabulary). A task in which two learners have to try to find the number of differences between two similar pictures is an example of a pedagogical task. The task itself is not something one would normally encounter in the real world. However, the interactional processes it requires provides useful input to language development.

Main Lesson Formats

The principles of a P-P-P lesson or teaching format

Present-Practice / Present-Practice-Production (PPP)

The teacher first presents / introduces / explains / clarifies / inputs the language point that the lesson is aiming to work on and then when it seems reasonably understood moves on to give learners a chance to practice using the language themselves.
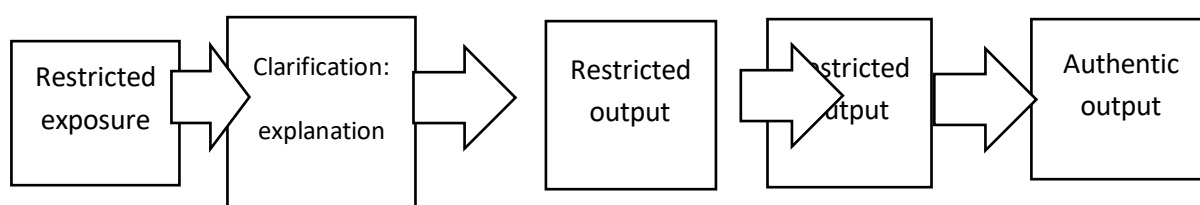
Basic PPP lesson structures
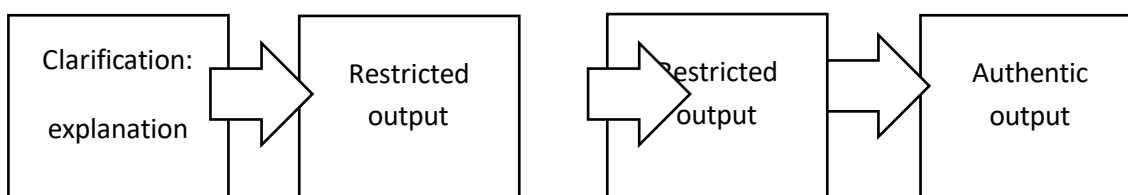
| Clarification: explanation | → | Restricted output | → | Restricted output | → | Authentic output |

1.   **Lead-in**: The teacher shows pictures connected to the lesson topic and elicits ideas from students.

2.   **Teacher clarification**: The teacher gives / elicits examples of the language and explains / elicits information about them from studnets.

3.   **Restricted output**: The students work on oral practice of examples of those items.

4.   **Restricted output:** The students do a written exercise to practise these items.

5.   **Authentic output**: The students are given the opportunity to use these items, along with theother language thet know, in communicative activities.

Typical restricted output activities are oral drills, written exercises, elicited dialogues and grammar practice activities/games.

The variation of the PPP lesoon structure looks as follows:

| Restricted exposure | → | Clarification: explanation | → | Restricted output | → | stricted tput | → | Authentic output |

Many PPP lessons make use of restricted textual material (printed in the coursebook or using specially recorded material to provide examples of the target language items being used in context).

1.   **Lead-in**: The teacher shows pictures connected to the lesson topic and elicits ideas from students.

2.   **Restricted Exposure**: Learners read / listen to a text and get a general understanding of it (mayby via a sequence of tasks and feedback)

3.   **Teacher clarification**: The teacher uses the text to give / elicit examples of the language and explain / elicit information about the item of language.

4.   **Restricted output**: The students work on oral practice of examples of those items.

5.   **Restricted output:** The students do a written exercise to practise these items.

6.   **Authentic output**: The students are given the opportunity to use these items, along with theother language thet know, in communicative activities.
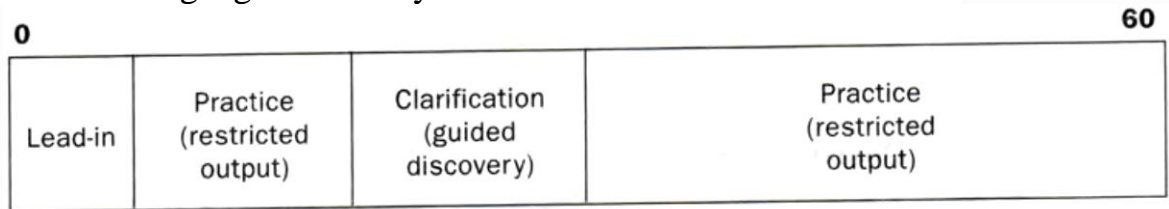
In practice, PPP lessons are more complex than the ones presented here, the stages are not necessarily clear and distinct: e.g. a cycle of examples, explanations and learner drills offered within a few minutes (explanation and practice elements intermingled).

Test-Teach-Test

The TTT model is based on the assumption that 'new' grammar is often not completely new for students and they may have met it many times before it is actually 'taught'

In the TTT model the production stage occurs first: the learners are required to perform a task without any input or guidance from the teacher. The grammatical or

lexical problems that this activity generates are used by the teacher for language analysis, the learners then being asked to do a similar/the same task again. Although Bowen suggests that the language presented in the 'teach' can be predicted (especially if the initial test is car fully chosen), there is a distinct danger of randomness which in turn means that the language focus may not reflect the needs of the learner.

0				60
Lead-in	Practice (restricted output)	Clarification (guided discovery)	Practice (restricted output)	

What's happening here? This suggests that we set the learners a task to do that requires them to use language and then, as a result of monitoring them while they work, we offer input, correction, explanation. Here is an example lesson:

1. **Restricted output**: The students work in pairs. Both students are given a separate picture of the same hotel room (which they do not show to their partner). The pictures are identical, except that five familiar objects (e.g. a chair, a bottle) are in picture A but not in picture B, and a different set of objects are in picture B but not in picture A. Students have to describe where the objects are to each other, drawing items when they find out exactly where they are.

2. **Clarification (guided discovery)**: When the activity has finished, the teacher asks the students to compare pictures and recall how they described the various locations. Pairs work together for a while, then some are invited to put their answers on the board. The teacher asks the class to decide together which sentences are correct and which are not. She encourages the class to discuss and agree together (using reference boks if necessary); she directs the discussion so as to get the class thinking and working together, but only offers specific help with the language problems towards the end if problems remain that the class could not solve.

3. **Restricted output**: Learners do a task very similar to the original hotel task, but involving a different location.

It looks as if we are throwing learners in the deep end and finding out what they need to know by first testing what they can use, then teaching those things that revealed problems or were absent but needed, then letting learners try again to use the language.

A TTT lesson can set learners a restricted task (like in the example) or a general speaking task without restriction of language. In the latter case, learners might reveal a more unpredictable set of errors.

This lesson type is difficult to plan in advance, as you do not necessarily know what specific language items might come up and require work.

Task-Based Learning

- Is a general term for many variations on the 'exposure-test-teach-test' lesson structure.

Lessons are centred round a task, i.e. "plan a birthday party". These tasks will usually be real world rather than language focused.

This model for organising lessons is offered by J. Willis [Willis, 2007]. Task-based learning is not entirely different from TTT, although this approach clearly takes into account the need for authentic communication. Typically, there are three stages:

1.   The Pre-Task Phase

Before the task, the teacher explores the topic with the class. Useful (relevant) lexical items may be given. Also, the learners may be given further input, such as a recording of someone doing a similar task or part of an authentic text as a lead in. During the pre-task stage the learners will have their schemata[7] activated, and given the opportunity to become personally involved in the lesson.

2.   The Task Cycle

The task cycle can be broken down into three stages; task, in which the learners do the task; planning, when the learners prepare to report to the whole class (usually orally or in writing) how they did the task; and report, when the reports are presented to the class and results compared.

During the task, the teacher monitors and encourages all attempts at communication without correcting. Willis suggests that this harbours a free environment in which learners are willing to experiment (as mistakes aren't important). At this stage in a PPP lesson the focus would be very much on accuracy, with all mistakes corrected. During the planning stage, the learners are aware that their output will be 'made public' and will consequently aim for accuracy. The role of the teacher here is therefore to provide assistance with regard to language advice[0]. The teacher then chairs the report, and comments on the content. At this stage, the focus is on both fluency and accuracy. Also, the learners may hear a recording or read a text of a similar task, in order to compare how they did it.

3.   Language Focus

The language focus consists of analysis and practice. In the analysis learners examine the recording or text for new lexical items or structures, which they then record. The teacher conducts a practice of the new items either during the analysis or after. The learners are given the opportunity to reflect on how they performed the task and on the new language they used in this final part of the lesson.

Teaching Grammar

Ways of Presenting Grammar

Presentation or clarification is a stage in your lesson where you want your learners really to focus in on a piece of grammar, to see it, think about it and understand it, to become much clearer on its form, meaning and use.

This is the stage when…

- students encounter a "chunk" of target language, that is, input (the language learners are exposed to, such as examples given by the teacher, a text, a video, listening material, etc.),
AND / OR
- have its form, meaning and/or use explained explicitly (the teacher provides the rules),

AND/OR
- or implicitly (the teacher provides information, students make their own conclusions),
AND/ OR
- something in-between: the teacher carefully leads the students to discover grammar rules; teachers and students cooperate to produce a **co-constructed grammar explanation**.

There are three general categories of clarification:

1. Teacher explanation – teacher tells the learner
2. Gudied discovery – teacher helps the learner to tell himself
3. Self-directed discovery – the learner tells himself

Teacher expanation:

When explaining language it is reasonable to follow some guidelines:
- don't talk at length or don't talk fast
- avoid using language more complicated than the point you are explaining;
- give examples;
- ask questions;
- use any diagrams or visual aids;
- never assume that the class is following your points;
- avoid explaining every difficulty before students encounter the problem themselves.

To make your explanations helpful keep your grammar presentation short. Two minutes of focused explanations can be really more efficient than 20-minute explanation. Teacher explanation is usually not involving and studnets are likely to swith off or misunderstand. The fact that the teacher has expounded on a particular topic does not mean that the item has been understood ot internalised. Explanations are better as small components of lessons rather than the driving force. The best way to avoid over-long explanations is to prepare them carefully when lesson planning.

Guided discovery:

An alternative to giving explanations would be to creta activities that allow learners to generate their own discoveries and explanations. Provided tasks are at the right level, they will draw attention to interesting language issues. Teacher lobg explanationa are replaced by teacher questions leading the learners towards the key points. Teacher role in guided discovery is to a) select appropriate tasks; b) offer approprotae instructions, help, explanations and feedback; c) manage and structure the lesson so that all learners are involved and engaged.

The key technique is to ask good questions that encorage learners to notice language and think about it.

Self-directed discovery

This is what the learners do studying on their own without a teacher where the teacher role is primarily to facilitate the learner's own self-direction. You need to ensure that the learners have sufficient information and experience to be able to work out their own goals and learning strategies as well.

When planning the presentation stage, the teacher has to decide:

- How to expose students to the target structure;
- Whether to explain grammar rules to students, when to do this, and how to do this;
- How the students will be engaged.

There is no single recipe for putting these core ingredients (Exposure, Explanation and student Engagement) together and preparing effective grammar presentations. However, there are some factors that can help teachers decide what would be the most appropriate mix for a particular group of students.

There are many ways in which teachers can introduce new grammar items. In order to prepare an effective grammar presentation for their students, teachers must take into consideration several factors: the nature of learning challenge, the specific needs of their students, their age, proficiency level, and the teaching context.

Effective grammar presentations share the following characteristics:

- Students encounter the target grammar item *in context.* For example, the teacher sets up a situation (e.g. presents a dialogue, shows a picture, tells a simple story, etc.) in which the target item is used.
- The teachers use various techniques to help students *notice* the most important features of that item (diagrams, different colors, timelines, etc.).
- Students are actively engaged (they answer meaningful questions, sometimes they research new language).
- Explanations given by the teacher are brief and memorable.
- Context – explanations come from something. After some examples, scenarios or student work
- Give the students something to look at. The form of the grammar should be clearly on the board at some point. Help students notice the pattern by using diagrams, timelines, different colors, underlining key components
- Form, Meaning, Use—these elements need to be addressed, but it will depend on where students are in learning the grammar pattern. They might be comfortable with the form, but using it in the wrong situation. Or they might know the meaning but have serious problems with form. It will depend.
- Don't tell the whole truth. Focus on the most important issues.
- Engage students in the explanation. Students lose focus if they are forced to sit and listen. Have them do the thinking.

Teaching Vocabulary

Teaching Vocabulary: Effective Strategies and Techniques
The Role of L1 and L2 in Vocabulary Teaching and Learning

Second language use in the foreign language classroom needs to be organized wherever possible, by encouraging its use and by using it for classroom management. However, research shows that the first language has a small but important role to play in communicating meaning and content. This role is important across all four strands of a

course. In a well-balanced foreign or second language course, there are roughly equal opportunities for learning through the four strands of

1 meaning focused input – learning through listening and reading

2 meaning focused output – learning through speaking and writing

3 language focused learning – learning through deliberate attention to language features

4 fluency development – learning through working with known material across the four skills at a higher than usual level of performance.

L2 use research has shown that the first language of learners can play a useful role in some of these strands. What are the ways of increasing the use of the L2 in English language classroom. Where learners have little opportunity to meet and use the L2 outside the classroom, it is very important that L2 use is used in the classroom. One obvious way to do this is carry out classroom management in the L2, English. Classroom management involves things like telling the class what to do (take out your books, turn to page 7), controlling behaviour (be quiet), explaining activities (get into pairs). This requires a little bit of careful thought by the teacher so that the vocabulary and structures used in the language of classroom management are also generally useful. If the use of English in classroom management is done in a planned, consistent way, then classroom management can be a very effective opportunity for learning through meaning focused input. A very useful piece of classroom-based research would be to identify through observation the functions and

forms of the language of classroom management, and then devise a classified list of useful sentences that make use of generally high frequency words and grammatical structures. In this way the role of the L1 in classroom management can be minimized and the role of the L2 increased.

In classrooms where the learners all share the same L1 or national language, there is a tendency for tasks which should be done in the L2 such as conversation activities, discussion of intensive reading, preparation for writing etc. to be done in the L1. There are many reasons for this L1 use.

Firstly, it is more natural to use the L1 with others who have the same L1.

Secondly, it is easier and more communicatively effective to use the L1.

Thirdly, using the L2 can be a source of embarrassment particularly for shy learners and those who feel they are not very proficient in the L2.

The usage of L2 in the English classroom is extremely important. There are however some times when use of the L1 can have very positive effects on learning.

First language use and meaning focused input and output

One of the experiments was aimed at examining the effects of having learners discuss a task in their first language before they had to carry it out in writing in the second language. That is, they had the opportunity to fully understand the content of the task through the medium of their first language, before they performed the written task in English. The first language discussion of the task had some interesting features.

Firstly, the learners were all very actively involved in coming to grips with the ideas. Secondly, the first language discussion included quite a lot of the second

language vocabulary which would be used in the later task. Thus the discussion not only helped learners to get on top of the content, but it also helped them gain control of relevant L2 vocabulary in a very supportive L1 context.

There is thus a useful role for the L1 in helping learners gain the knowledge needed to reach a higher level of L2 performance. Whenever a teacher feels that a meaning based L2 task might be beyond the capabilities of the learners, a small amount of L1 discussion can help overcome some of the obstacles.

First language use and language focused learning.

There are numerous ways of conveying the meaning of an unknown word. These include a definition in the second language, a demonstration, a picture or a diagram, a real object, L2 context clues, or an L1 translation. In terms of the accuracy of conveying meaning, none of these ways is better than any of the others. It all depends on the particular word concerned. However, studies comparing the effectiveness of various methods for learning always come up with the result that an L1 translation is the most effective. This is probably because L1 translations are usually clear, short and familiar, qualities which are very important in effective definitions. When the use of an L1 translation is combined with the use of word cards for the initial learning of vocabulary, then learners have a very effective strategy for speeding up vocabulary.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies in EFL Teaching
An Inductive Approach to Teaching Vocabulary to ESL Students and EFL

Vocabulary cannot be really learned by looking at words, writing them down, and then writing the translations of words. Most reading experts agree that a person must see and use a new word at least 50-60 times before one can remember and use the word correctly in sentences. An inductive approach to learning vocabulary includes the following steps:

1. *Pre-reading strategies:* At the beginning of the reading lesson, the students are presented with pictures of the words that are appearing in the article. Next, the teacher discusses the pictures with the students, trying to activate any pre-knowledge the students might have of the words and ideas expressed in the pictures. The teacher then presents orally any of the new key words which he or she could not elicit from the students.

2. *Grouping related words into categories*: After the students look at the pictures of the reading article again, the teacher guides the students into putting related words into different categories. For example, if the reading is about playing a baseball game, the students look at a picture of a baseball team playing a game on a diamond. The teacher guides the students by pointing to various players on the diamond and saying that they are all playing positions such as pitcher, catcher, shortstop, etc. The teacher might then point to players batting, pitching and fielding, pointing out that these are activities of the game.

3. *Seeing the vocabulary in sentences in the article:* The teacher next has the students look and listen while he or she reads the article to the students. The students will then read the article in unison, repeating it after the teacher. Finally, the teacher asks the students for any new words which they might see in the article.

4. *Educated guessing from sentence context:* After the teacher writes the students' new words on the board, he or she asks the students to guess the meanings of new words from the context of sentences or from the nature of the whole article. The teacher might ask if a new word is related to any other words in the article. He or she could also ask if the new word is being used as a noun, verb, adjective, adverb, or other part of speech. The teacher could also ask the students to guess the meaning of the word from any knowledge they have of the prefix, suffix, or stem of vocabulary not previously learned or seen.

5. *Explain vocabulary through examples or synonyms and antonyms:* Next, the teacher explains the meaning of any new words which the student cannot guess. The teacher can do this by using words that have the same meaning or opposite meaning of the new vocabulary. For example, a huge house can be explained as a big house which is not small. The teacher might also explain the meaning of "lost" in the sentence "She lost the key." This way: The key is gone and she doesn't have the key now.

6. *Ask questions using the new words:* The teacher asks the students questions using the new vocabulary. After the teacher models this activity, students ask each other questions using the new words. A creative teacher can make a game doing this.

7. *Dictation of new vocabulary:* Dictation has always been one of my best activities in measuring a student's listening comprehension of new words as well as correct use of the words in sentences. In this activity, the teacher can dictate short sentences and a paragraph which has the new vocabulary in the lesson. If the student can spell the words correctly and write them down correctly, the student has taken one of the first steps in learning the vocabulary.

8. *Exercises on reading comprehension*: The final step will be for the student to answer reading comprehension questions based on the classroom text which has the new vocabulary. Traditional reading methods which employ a list of new vocabulary along with their translations have been used too long without any real benefit to students. If used effectively, the steps outlined in suggested approaches will aid students in learning new vocabulary and improving their reading comprehension.

Different Ways to Present Vocabulary

There are lots of ways of getting across the meaning of a lexical item.

1. *Illustration.* This is very useful tool for more concrete words (dog, rain, tall) and for visual learners. It has its limits though, not all items can be drawn.

2. *Mime.* This lends itself particularly well to action verbs and it can be fun and memorable.

3. *Synonyms/Antonyms/Gradable items.* Using the words a student already knows can be effective for getting meaning across.

4. *Definition.* The teacher should make sure that it is clear (maybe check in a learner dictionary before the lesson). The teacher can ask questions to check they have understood properly.

5. *Translation.* If the teacher knows the students' L1, then it is fast and efficient. It should be born in mind that not every word has a direct translation.

6.*Context.* The teacher should think of a clear context when the word is used and either describe it to the students or give them example sentences to clarify meaning further.

Which the teacher chooses will depend on the item presented. Some are more suitable for particular words. Often a combination of techniques can be both helpful and memorable.

Mnemonics is a memory enhancing instructional strategy that involves teaching students to link new information taught to information they already know. Mnemonics are techniques or devices, either verbal or visual in nature, that serve to improve the storage of new information, and the recall of information contained in memory. Mnemonics have been proven to be extremely effective in helping people remember things. By using mnemonic strategies, teachers can relate new information to information students already have stored in their long-term memory. For vocabulary learning, they are used to relate the word to some previously learnt information, using some form of imagery or grouping. Mnemonic devices have been differently classified by different scholars. Usually mnemonics is classified into five classes: **linguistics, spatial, visual, physical response** and **verbal methods**.

A. Linguistic Mnemonics. Peg word method. Through peg word method unrelated items can be remembered easily by relating them to easily memorizable items which act as pegs or hooks. Peg word method has two stages. At first students are asked to remember 10 number-rhyme pairs like *one is bun, two is shoe, three is tree*. In the second stage the students are asked to visualize the word and try to link it to rhyming words.

B. *Spatial Mnemonics*. Using this method entails imagining a very familiar place like a room or a house and then associating each new word to a part of it to be remembered. In other words, the students take an imaginary walk along their familiar places, and retrieve the items they have put there. As people's experiences are different, students may come up with different pictures. For example, if the new words to be learned are *era, artificial, mission, sample, mass, density, disturb, distant*, the familiar location can be the moon and the mental picture formed may be (as an example from my own class): "It is the robot era. There are some robots with artificial hands and legs. They are on a mission on the moon. They are collecting a mass of sample rocks to examine their features and density. No one can disturb them because they are in a distant area". They all must be seen as a mental and imagined picture by the students.

C. *Visual Mnemonics*

1. *Pictures*. New words are usually paired with their definitions or equivalents. They can be, however, better, learned if they are paired with pictures Meaning cannot be derived only from verbal language. Pictures and objects not only can be used to give meaning and information but they also can be used to the motivation and interest of the students. Using this method, a picture can be used to make the meaning of the word clear. It can sometimes be accompanied by its definition. This method can, however, be used with concrete words and usually with elementary or pre-intermediate students. 2. *Visualization or imagery*. Instead of using real pictures, this method allows a word to be visualized. The learner imagines a picture or a scene which is associated with the target word. Abstract words can be learned through this method by relating them to a visual picture. Visualization can be an aid in vocabulary learning. If the new word is "exploration", the learner may come up with this mental picture "A scientist is using special drills for oil exploration" by relating it to the picture of a scientist. Again the

students may come up with different pictures because people's experiences are different.

D. The Verbal Method

1. *Grouping or semantic organization*. As organized materials are easier to store in and retrieve from long-term memory, to organize the words in some fashion will enhance their recall. If the target words to be remembered are, for example, *dog, cat, chair, sofa, table, milk, eggs and butter* they can be organized and remembered under three categories: *animals* (for *dog* and *cat*), *furniture* (for *chair, sofa* and *table*) and *food* (for *milk, egg* and *butter*). In this way learners have the advantage of better recall than when they all are learned in a list, because if they can remember one word, they will be able to remember the rest

2. *Story-telling or the narrative chain*. In this method the learner links the words together by a story.

E. Physical Responses. According to *physical response method* the learner should move his body or parts of his body in a certain way that illustrates the meaning of the word. If the target word is *tiptoe*, for example, the student can get up on his tiptoe and move across the room.

Types of Vocabulary and Aspects of Lexis that need to be Taken into Account when Teaching Vocabulary

Since the publication of the "Lexical Approach" by Michael Lewis in 1993, Language teaching practices have been widely reviewed and discussed. So what are the features of the Lexical Approach? Is it a revolution in the profession of language teaching or just an evolution? What are its claims? How can it be implemented in the classroom?

There is a distinction between *vocabulary*, traditionally thought to be constituted of single items, and *lexis*, which includes not only the single words but also the word combinations that we store in our mental lexicons. Lexical approach advocates argue that language consists of meaningful chunks that, when combined, produce continuous coherent text, and only a minority of spoken sentences are entirely novel creations. Michael Lewis presents the following taxonomy of lexical items:

- words (e.g. *book, pen*)
- polywords (e.g. *by the way, upside down*)
- collocations, or word partnerships (e.g. *community service, absolutely convinced*)
- institutionalized utterances (e.g. *I'll get it; We'll see; That'll do; If I were you . . .; Would you like a cup of coffee?*)
- sentence frames and heads (e.g. *That is not as . . . as you think; The fact / suggestion /problem / danger was . . .*) and even text frames (e.g. *In this paper we explore . . .; Firstly . . .; Secondly . . .; Finally . . .*)

The Lexical Approach pays attention not only to single words but more importantly to collocations and institutionalized utterances and sentence frames.

Teaching vocabulary is a challenge for teachers, partially because of the size of the task, and partially because of the variety of vocabulary types to be learned, including single words, phrases, collocations, grammatical patterning, idioms, and fixed

expressions. Every language teacher must make a suitable choice on what and how much vocabulary to teach. Moreover, it must be considered what vocabulary items to teach first and what vocabulary items to teach next. The choices must be influenced by factors such as frequency, usefulness for the classroom, and learnability.

There are several aspects of lexis that need to be taken into account when teaching vocabulary.

- *Boundaries between meanings*: knowing not only what lexis refers to, but also where the boundaries are that separate it from words of related meaning (e.g. *cup, mug, bowl*). Teacher should teach different shades of meanings while teaching vocabulary and the meaning of a word in the context. When two words overlap in meaning, learners are likely to confuse them. *"Make"* and *"do"* are a case in point: you *"make breakfast"* and *"make an appointment",* but you *"do the housework"* and *"do a questionnaire".* Words with multiple meanings, such as *"beautiful"* and *„gorgeous"* can also be troublesome for learners.

- *Polysemy:* distinguishing between the various meaning of a single word form with several but closely related meanings (*head: of a person, of a pin, of an organization*).

- *Homonymy:* distinguishing between the various meaning of a single word form which has several meanings which are not closely related (e.g. *a file: used to put papers in* or *a tool*). *Homophones* are the words pronounced alike and have different spellings like "flower" and "flour". *Homonym* is a more general term that includes both homophones and words that are spelled alike and have different meanings like *bank* (the edge of a river) and *bank* (a financial institution).

- *Synonymy:* distinguishing between the different shades of meaning that synonymous words have (e.g. *extend, increase, expand*).

- *Style, register, dialect:* Distinguish between different levels of formality, the effect of different contexts and topics, as well as differences in geographical variation. Teacher of English should point out whether a word is formal, informal, outdated, taboo etc. For instance, the teacher should point out the difference between the sentences *„Can I borrow your laptop?"* and *„Could I borrow your laptop?* The outdated words or the archaic words such as *thou, thy, thine, myriad* etc. are difficult to be taught.

- *Translation:* awareness of certain differences and similarities between the native and the foreign language (e.g. false cognates).

- *Chunks of language:* multi-word verbs, idioms, strong and weak collocations and lexical phrases.

- *Grammar of vocabulary:* learning the rules that enable students to build up different forms of the words or even different words from a single word (e.g. *sleep, slept, sleeping; able, unable; disability*). The teacher should teach the function of a word performed in a sentence and in a language. It helps the learner to use the same word in more than one category. It helps students enrich the knowledge of vocabulary. The words associated with grammar like *phrasal verbs / multi–word verbs* are particularly confusing and difficult to learn. Remembering whether verbs like *enjoy, love* or *hope* are followed by an infinitive *(to swim)* or an *-ing* form *(swimming)* can add to its difficulty.

- *Pronunciation:* ability to organize and reproduce items in speech. Words that are difficult to pronounce are more difficult to learn. It is problematic to teach some words because they do not have co-relation between spelling and pronunciation. For instance, the words *"colonel", „lieutenant", „buffet"* etc. are difficult to pronounce. It shows that there is no one to one correspondence between the spelling of a word and its pronunciation.

- *Spelling* is a basic item to be taught to the learner. Teachers have to teach the spelling of the words, while dealing with new vocabulary. Sound-spelling mismatches are likely to be the cause of errors, either of pronunciation or of spelling, and can contribute to a word's difficulty. Words that contain silent letters are particularly problematic: *foreign, pneumonia, know, listen, headache, climbing, bored, honest, cupboard, muscle,* etc.

- *Length and complexity.* Long words seem to be more difficult to learn than short ones. But, high frequency words tend to be short in English, and therefore, the learner is likely to meet them more often. Also, variable stress in polysyllabic words – such as in word families like *necessary, necessity* and *necessarily* – can add to their difficulty.

- *Connotation and idiomatic expressions.* It is due to cultural differences, connotations of the words and idiomatic expressions are difficult to be taught. For example, the word '*cow*' means for the Westerners as an animal to be butchered whereas, for Indians '*cow*' is a sacred animal as far as the Hindus are concerned. The idiomatic expression *„grass is always green at the other side of the fence"* is confusing to the Indians and understandable for the Europeans. The idiomatic expressions are culture specific and can be understood only in the cultural context if explained.

- *Usefulness.* When making a decision about what vocabulary to teach preferentially, the teacher should take into consideration mainly usefulness of the words. The teacher should consider the learners' needs. It is useful to provide the learner with words for classroom language just at the early stages of the course. It is important for the teacher to predict what words the students need to know for day to day conversation. When the teacher selects the words to be taught to his/her learners, he/she should be aware of the vocabulary his/her learners require.

Classroom Management

Interaction patterns (individual work, pair work, group work)

In EFL teaching, interaction patterns refer to different ways learners and the teacher can interact in the class. Using the right interaction pattern is a fundamental factor in the success of any activity and the achievement of aims. Hence, the choice of an interaction pattern depends on the aim of the activity. For example, if the learners are doing group writing, then small Ss-Ss groups are best, but for elicitation of ideas the interaction pattern could be Ss-T.

Different types of interaction are teacher – whole group, pairs and small groups and mingling.

There are some advantages and disadvantages of different student groupings. The merits of *individual work* are time to think, time to plan what say\do, learners can work at own pace. Among the disadvantages of individual work are feeling isolated, no ideas and feeling nervous.

Many theories and language teaching approaches highlight the importance of *pair work* (e.g. communicative approach, task based learning) as a form of collaborative work. The students are able to develop their language competence and achieve a better performance in a collaborative environment than they would be capable of independently.

Learners often need to work together in pairs or small groups of between three and six people. The default opinion is that students get together with people who are already sitting near them. This has the advantage of speed and doesn't require much thinking or movement, but does mean that learners may always work with the same people.

Working in pairs enriches and promotes meaningful interaction between the learners and as a result will increase their language production. Introducing pair work as an effective strategy increases students' language production in terms of speaking tasks.

The *advantages of pair work* and small group work:
- Provides an effective method to use language as it is used in normal life
- Gives learners more speaking time
- Teaches them how to lead and be led by someone other than the teacher
- Enables students of expressing themselves and express their own ideas in English.
- Allows you to monitor, move around the class and really listen to the language they are producing.

On the other hand, there are some *possible problems with pair work* tasks. Pair work can be problematic if one partner usually dominates. Some learners may feel they only want to interact with teacher, and they will learn partner's mistakes. Pair work may be frustrating if partners are at different level or don't enjoy working together. Students might deviate from the main topic and talk about something else during pair work. The pair work could lead to misbehavior and may distract students from effective learning. However, pair work has a vital function language learning so we can't ignore it, but at the same time we should be careful not to lead to "a sense of fragmentation, conflict, or purposelessness". [Hadfield 1992].

In an online environment, pair work and group work activities take place in what is called "a break room", where students break out from the main room into smaller subgroups (or pairs) in a separate room, and then rejoin the main room when the teacher decides. Different platforms have different ways of managing breakout rooms. However, the typical situation is that the teacher creates the main room and the breakout rooms before the class begins. Depending on the platform, the teacher may be able to broadcast messages to the breakout rooms and most platforms allow the teacher to visit the breakout rooms and monitor the conversations. Once the task is complete or the time

limit has been reached, the teacher reassigns the students back to the main room and there is some feedback on the task.

In addition to pair work advantages, *group work* gives learners a chance to hear a wider selection of different views and ideas. In addition to pair work disadvantages, some learners may feel more inhibited about speaking at all in a group. Others may be likely to speak in L1 in groups.

When students mingle, you allow them to speak to as many partners as they can. Mingling can be very noisy, but it is often engaging and it allows learners who do not feel very confident in whole-group or pair work to loosen up and interact.

Mingling can be as simple as asking students to stand up and talk to different peers. Some popular mingling techniques include stations, choo-choo train, inner-outer circle, etc.

Changing interaction patterns in an EFL lesson can serve a number of purposes. To start with, it is one of the ways to avoid boring classroom routine and contribute to students' motivation. Varying interaction patterns might contribute to the learners' sense of belonging in a group and overall group cohesiveness – the more opportunities they have to interact with their peers, the more likely they are to bond and help each other in their learning process. A change in interaction patterns can help the teacher to set an appropriate pace and vary it to cater for different learning styles in the classroom. Selecting the most appropriate pattern might help learners achieve the lesson aims / stage aims more effectively.

Dealing with difficulties.
A)*Certain students dominate the others.*

Possible solutions

Think about the possible reasons for this. Are they more capable than the others? Do they get bored quickly? Is it simply a personality characteristic?

Assign them a task, e.g. group secretary, group leader. Responsibility may help to keep them focused on what they have to do and they will have less time to dominate their partners. If they finish the task they have been assigned before the others, give them an extra task.

B)Learners are resistant because they worry about learning each other's mistakes.

Possible solutions

Explain that this is unlikely, but mistakes are a natural part of learning. During pair and group work, monitor and collect mistakes to go over in class. Explain that an understanding of mistakes, even if they are not personally making them will help them to understand the language better.

C) *Some learners are shy or not confident about speaking in English.*

Possible solutions

- Give them support - make sure they have the language they need. Don't force them to speak till they are ready.

- Pair them with learners who do not dominate them. Give them time to prepare what they will say.

D)*Some learners are shy or not confident about speaking in English.*

Possible solutions

- *Be sensitive to pairings and groupings. Vary them - stronger learners don't always appreciate working with weaker ones. Provide more support to weaker learners. Do a needs analysis and set homework to deal with weaknesses.*

- *Do mingle activities so that language is repeated and all learners get an opportunity to work with learners at the same level as themselves.*

  E)*Learners speak in their mother tongue*

  Possible solutions

- *Prepare learners so that they have sufficient language to do activities.*

- *Do not make language they need to use too high-level. Distinguish also between the use of the mother tongue to focus on learning and use of L1 to talk about things which are not connected to the lesson. If learners are explaining a language point, discussing meaning, or talking about the rules, aims or steps to follow in an activity, this is quite natural. However, at higher levels, you might encourage learners to use more English.*

Feedback in teaching English as a foreign language

Feedback is any information, direct or indirect, delayed or immediate, that a person receives from the recipient (or recipients), his or her behaviour, his or her image, information about himself or herself. Feedback is a product of analysis, reflection and observation received by the teacher from himself or herself and from the partners in the joint activity. Feedback is conceptualized as information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self-experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding. It has been among the most significant phenomena in the field of education, and language education is no exception. Feedback is defined as a type of interaction which can enhance second language acquisition by making non-native speakers aware that their usage is not acceptable in some way and it provides a model for "correctness". It is viewed as a means of fostering learner motivation and ensuring linguistic accuracy in communicative approaches to language teaching.

The purpose of the feedback is for the teacher to adjust the content, the way the information is presented, the students' actions and the emotional background of the

lessons. The results of the feedback are also used by the students themselves to evaluate their joint activities, the results obtained. Thus, the better the teacher and learners are able to adjust their behaviour and speech using feedback, the higher the results of learning interactions. Feedback between participants of the educational context as an organized and structured process allows to establish constructive communication, make progress in teaching and learning, increase the level of student's involvement in the learning process, have a positive impact on student satisfaction, promote personal growth of students and their motivation in studies.

There are various types of feedback: *teacher feedback, peer feedback and self-feedback*. The teacher's feedback is defined as any input provided by the teacher to students for revision, this includes content and form as well as written and oral feedback. According to D. Nicol and D. Macfarlane-Dick the effective teacher's feedback strengthens the students' capacity to self-regulate their own performance [Nicol, Macfarlane-Dick 2006]. The authors have devised the following criteria for an effective feedback:

1) it helps clarify what good performance is (goals, criteria, expected standards);
2) it facilitates the development of self-assessment (reflection) in learning;
3) it delivers high-quality information to students about their learning;
4) it encourages teacher and peer dialogue around learning;
5) it encourages positive motivational beliefs and self-esteem;
6) it provides opportunities to close the gap between current and desired performance;
7) it provides information to teachers that can be used to help shape teaching.

According to J. Liu and J. Hansen, peer feedback refers to "the use of learners as sources of information and interactants for each other in such a way that learners assume roles and responsibilities normally taken on by a formally trained teacher, tutor, or editor commenting on and critiquing each other's drafts in both written and oral formats in the process of writing" [Hansen, Liu 2005].

The successful implementation and efficiency of the peer feedback depend on the process organization, clear objectives and comprehensible assessment criteria. D. Magin and P. Helmore have developed the helpful guidelines on how to manage the peer feedback process. The scholars suggest that the first step should aim at developing clear and high objective criteria; the second step is to discuss these criteria with students in advance; the third step is to monitor the procedure of assessment by random assessment of some works by a teacher; then it is essential for students to know that the results of such feedback are discussable and can be changed; and finally, provision of feedback to confirm the peer grades are valid. It is evident that a teacher who applies this practice should trust students and accept the result of their feedback [Magin, Helmore 2001]. However, in order to include these grades into final summative assessment, they should more or less correspond to teachers' marks.

Considering the effective management of assessment procedures, it is advisable for teachers to adhere to the following principles: the objectives of the assessment should be clear for students; the results of such assessment will be more valuable if involved into summative assessment, but it is possible only if these procedures has been

well followed; teacher's management and possibility to change the grades; the assessment should be fair without personal attitude impact; the feedback should be the same as tutor's assessment; appropriate and tested criteria; systematic integration of the peer and self- assessment into learning activities so that students consider it as a usual learning procedure; including the assessment skills acquisition into the learning outcomes as it recalls the development of employability and reflective skills.

The most common types of feedback that students receive in the classroom are both oral and in the written form. Written feedback is explained as responding to student writing through written comments on content and organization, and strengths and weaknesses of essay. On the other hand, oral feedback is defined as in-class conferences (5-10 minutes) with individual students, while the rest of the class is engaged in other activities; or out-of-class longer (15-30 minutes) conferences with individual students or groups. Oral feedback is a natural part of verbal interaction between students and teachers, or students and students. Oral feedback is mostly considered to happen between a teacher and a student, but some researchers note that a great deal of verbal feedback also comes from peers.

Moreover, the feedback may be subdivided into positive (praise) and negative or corrective (criticism). Praise is defined as "an act which attributes credit to another for some characteristic, attribute, skill, etc., which is positively valued by the person giving feedback" [Hyland and Hyland 2001]. Oral positive feedback consists of positive comments such as "good", "ok", "yes", and "well done". However, the disadvantage of positive feedback lies in the fact that it is misleading since it is not specific: praise markers do not indicate exactly what the student has done well. Corrective feedback is defined as responses to learner utterances with an error.

Most researchers also classify feedback into direct and indirect feedback. Direct teacher feedback presupposes the teacher's providing the students with the correct form of their errors or mistakes. Direct feedback explicitly shows what is wrong, which means that the students do not themselves have to identify the error and how it should be corrected. On the other hand, indirect error correction is when the teacher underlines, circles or highlights errors, indicating the location of these errors without correcting them. This method gives the opportunity to the student to identify and correct the error.

Characteristics of feedback

Feedback	Characteristic
Well done! Great work! You've done really well!	Praise/Encouragement
You need to …. You might like to …. One thing you could try is …. It would be a good idea for you to …. You could work more on …	Advice
I notice(d) that you …. You seem(ed) to …. You often make mistakes with …. Your pronunciation is improving ….	Descriptive

You won't pass with this kind of work …. You can do better than this! It's difficult for anyone to understand what you say.	Judging
Which other word could you choose? Do you think you could…? Can you explain that in other words? Can you rephrase that, so that it's clearer?	Using Questions

LANGUAGE SKILLS

Teaching Writing

Writing as a skill

At the present stage of foreign language teaching, writing plays a major role in the presentation of language and speech competences, since writing reproduces other types of speech activities: listening, speaking and reading, with which it is very closely related, being a receptive-reproductive mechanism of foreign language reproduction, a way of forming and formulating thoughts in written language signs. Written communication is an effective means of learning a foreign language in the absence of a foreign language environment, it helps to develop a sense of language and knowledge of foreign culture. The use of writing has its own methodological advantages. Since all analyzers and all kinds of senses are involved in the writing process, it improves memorization when consolidating lexical and grammatical skills, allows you to engage all students/pupils in a group at the same time, to exercise individual control over the formation of their competences, teaches self-control and self-correction, and forms the learner's autonomy in learning and cognitive activities.

Developing this skill, especially in a foreign language, requires more training and effort. The problem of teaching writing and speaking in a foreign language is highlighted in the works of many methodologists (R.I. Pokhmelkin; G.F. Demydenko; A.A. Abramova; G.G. Bedrosova; E.P. Kalinin; T.M. Yenalieva; K.P. Yashchenko; T.I. Leonieva; A.I. Yanisiv; L.I. Razina; R.I. Azizov; T.V. Glazunova; I.M. Melnyk; E.V. Pinska). However, the role and place of writing among other types of ML remains insufficiently developed, theoretically and practically substantiated in the process of learning a foreign language.

The attitude to the use of writing in foreign language teaching has not always been and still is unambiguous. The process of transformation, formation, and strengthening of the status of writing among other types of speech activities can be divided into three conventional stages. The first stage is characterized by a complete rejection of writing and the reliance exclusively on oral teaching methods, i.e. writing is opposed to oral speech.

The process of learning a foreign language has long remained oral in nature. The written was given only a secondary role in the learning process. Writing was not given special attention, it served as an auxiliary tool, i.e., a consolidator of all the types of language knowledge, skills and abilities. This status of writing was caused by rejection of the written language and the dominance of oral speech. It was believed that a person had a command of a foreign language if he or she can communicate fluently with native speakers, and writing only acts as a means of recording oral. This interpretation of writing simplified its status and led to mastering only graphics, spelling and punctuation.

With the development of writing culture, communication, and computerization, writing is gradually changing from an auxiliary tool to one of the goals of foreign language learning. This is the second stage, i.e. the restoration of writing among learning objectives. As some methodologists and psychologists emphasize, the use of oral learning in written form contributes to its consolidation and activation. As a result of the interaction of auditory, visual, kinesthetic analyzers in writing, the learning material is better absorbed, as the mind suggests a much more complete picture of the language phenomenon being studied. But despite the recognition of the need to learn foreign language writing, in reality, this aspect of learning is still underestimated. Writing is largely used as a means of consolidating orally produced material or as a means of controlling knowledge, skill and abilities. At the same time, little attention is paid to the development of productive writing. The third stage is a comparison of *oral speech and writing*. Writing is seen as a specific, necessary means of communication that meets modern needs. Thus, modern scholars distinguish two forms of communication: oral and written. These two forms of communication are not closed systems, they are closely interconnected and constantly penetrate each other, but it is clear that each of them has its own peculiarities. Thus, writing as a form of speech activity has the following features. The first feature is the *specificity of the communicative act that is realized through writing*. Unlike oral speech, in written speech, the specificity lies in the absence of direct contact with the interlocutor. The writer does not have the opportunity to correct his/her speech behavior in accordance with the interlocutor's reaction. At the same time, it is a slower process, which makes it possible to focus more attention on the stages of its implementation. Another feature of writing is undoubtedly its *graphic design*, *fixing of internal speech in graphic signs*. A graphic record implies that the writer has the skills and abilities of spelling and syntax of the text. Speaking about the specific features of writing, one cannot but pay attention to the connection between *writing and other types of speech activity*.

Comparing writing with other types of speech activity, we can conclude that, as a productive (sometimes reproductive) type of speech activity, writing has a lot in common with speaking (as opposed to receptive activities such as reading and listening). By the nature of the role that writing and speaking perform in the process of communication, they belong to the initial types of speech activities, by the nature of their external expression, they belong to externally expressed activities, by the nature of the feedback that regulates these processes, their similarity is that in both of these types of speech activity, feedback is provided by muscles between the performing organ (the articulatory apparatus, the writing hand) and the part of the brain responsible for

organizing this action. But by the nature of speech communication, writing is similar to reading, because both types of speech activity implement written communication. By way of forming and formulating thoughts, writing differs from all types of speech activity: it is characterized by an external written method of forming and articulating an idea, while speaking is characterized by an external oral way, reading and listening internal one.

It is known that writing, unlike oral speech, is deprived of a direct listener and such auxiliary extra-linguistic means of speech production, such as facial expressions, gestures, and intonation. This makes it necessary to stick to a clearer, more consistent, planned, detailed and complete representation. The fact that what may not be presented in full phrases, individual words, hints, intonation, or gestures in oral speech should be fully expressed in writing.

The writing should be as clear, transparent and detailed as possible. At the same time, it can be said that writing is closely related to reading. Writing, like reading, is based on the same graphic signs, rules for combining them into words, and similar mental mechanisms. Like reading, writing involves memorizing the graphic features of letters and words, understanding sound-letter connections, and the utterance of speech that is being recorded or has already been recorded in writing.

It is obvious that the skills of writing and reading correlate and sometimes coincide with each other. That is why *teaching writing and reading are taught in parallel or almost in parallel*. And if learning to read begins with learning the technique of reading, then learning to write begins with writing techniques. It should not be forgotten that learning to write is a much complex and time-consuming process. And this is understandable, since reading is a complete reception, acceptance of products that created by others, and writing is the generation of one's own products, i.e. complete production. We should also not forget that sometimes writing is also reproductive, for example, rewriting something already written by someone else, replacing/inserting lexical items, changing grammatical form, narrowing and expansion of sentences, etc. Some scholars reject such cases of reproduction, saying that even literal reproduction of oral speech in writing cannot be called pure reproduction, because the writer tries to convey the oral speech in accordance with the requirements of writing (elimination of pauses, repetitions, abbreviations, etc, the connection of words, and so on). Thus, reproductive writing is distinguished as a separate one. That is, we already know two basic types of writing, which were mentioned above: *writing technique and written speech*, are expanded by adding two more types of *writing writing-reproduction and writing-transformation*. Thus, we distinguish the following stages of writing development skills and abilities: writing-fixation: i.e. writing technique (graphics, spelling and calligraphy), writing-reproduction, writing-transformation, writing-production. The need to master the four basic types of writing, which ensure the realisation of its main functions, ensures a smooth transition from a simple type of writing to a more complex one. There is a gradual mastery of writing, respectively, the above types of writing are hierarchical stages of mastering and developing writing, processes of its formation.

The *first stage of developing writing as a skill* involves mastering the technical skill of correct written recording of one's own and others' oral statements using the

graphic system of a foreign language. This first stage and the first type of writing is called *recording writing*. This is the so-called "conditionally zero level" of mastering writing in a foreign language. "Zero" because students have just started learning a foreign language; "conditionally" because students already have certain skills. At this stage, students are able to correctly record their own and other people's oral and spoken statements, with writing being mastered exclusively from the technical side - graphics, i.e. the inherent patterns of lettering (calligraphy), as well as spelling and punctuation.

The second, receptive-reproductive stage is more complex and combines two types of writing - *reproduction and transformation writing*. The aim of this stage is to master the genres of secondary writing, compressed writing. Writing-reproduction involves mastering the skills of reconstruction, and composing a secondary written product, which is identical in terms of the given parameters to the derivative presented visually (reading) or by ear (listening). Writing transformation involves mastering the skills of reconstructing a finished written product with subsequent genre and style variation. In contrast to reproduction writing, when on the basis of all kinds of manipulations, modifications, reconstructions take place with the written product based on the proposed one, transformation writing involves the creation of one's own written product.

Approaches to teaching writing texts of different types

It should be clear here that there is no one answer to the question of how to teach writing in ESL classes since there are many different approaches for teaching writing; for example, The Controlled-to-Free Approach, the Free-Writing Approach, the Paragraph- Pattern Approach, the Grammar-Syntax-Organization Approach, the Communicative Approach and the Process Approach.

However, among them there are three principal approaches that are of primary importance to teaching different types of writing.

The traditional *textual approach* is based on students' reading sample texts and writing texts trying to imitate in them the linguistic, stylistic, and other peculiarities of the texts read and apply them to their own compositions. This approach works best for developing students' skills in practical writing. Traditional textual-based classes generally ignore the writing process as it is. Teachers assign papers, grade them, and then hand them back. Thus, they attend only to the product, assessing its clarity, originality, and correctness. But at such an approach teachers do not attend to the writing process itself, or to the writers themselves.

This approach kills the creativity proper and turns writing into a process of imitating and/or reproducing what was read in sample texts, and therefore, eliminates creative advantages of writing as a skill

The *process approach* [White, Arndt, 1991] came to replace the textual one in the last quarter of the last century. This approach is the basis of current methods of teaching academic writing.

Process pedagogy challenges the traditional, authoritative models of teaching. The process approach originated in L1 writing instruction in English-speaking countries. Until the 1980s it gained great popularity in the ESL (English as Second Language)/EFL profession. The concept of this approach sees writing as "a complicated cognitive process" and "involves multiple stages: pre-writing, drafting, revising and editing" [Zeng 2005]. It emphasizes the stages of the writing process as well as the writer's individual and independent production. Importantly, it examines how writers create ideas, compose them, and then revise them in order to generate a text [Zamel 1983]. Teachers in the process writing classroom plan activities which help students understand that writing by its nature is a process. They also need to guide students through the writing process and help them develop effective writing strategies [Seow 2002]. The major elements of the process approach are students' awareness and teacher intervention, the former referring to the consciousness of the nature of writing as a process, and the latter the teacher-student and student-student relationships [Susser 1994]. Teachers in the process classroom should leave learners ample free space to express their own personal meanings. To aid this sense of free space, various types of feedback are adopted for revision including peer review and teacher-student conference [Zeng 2005]. Process theorists believe that fundamental steps – which include prewriting, writing, rewriting, and all their attendant strategies – can be talked about and modelled. In short, writing-as-a-process can be taught.

According to Tribble, writing includes the sequence of steps – pre-writing, composing/drafting, revising, and editing [Tribble 1996].

In the process approach students first brainstorm in small groups the topic to be discussed in writing so as to generate ideas. This is followed by compiling an outline of the essay and individually writing its first draft. Students revise their first drafts and give them to other students for peer-reviewing and commenting on. On the basis of comments received, the second draft is written, then again revised and maybe peer-reviewed for the second time. The final stage is editing the essay by the writer himself/herself to eliminate all language faults. Thus the process approach focuses not on the product but on the process of writing aiming at organizing this process in such a way as to make students thorough, productive, and independent in it with the aim of developing their writing skills.

The third is the **genre approach** [Swales 1990] that focuses on analyzing communicative purposes of the texts read by learners and the means used by the writers of these texts to achieve such purposes. This involves not simply activities in a writing process, but also the purpose of writing, the context where the writing occurs, and the conventions of the target discourse community. In this sense, relevant genre knowledge needs to be taught explicitly in the language classroom. The philosophy behind effective writing implies that writers not only write of their own choice, but also in different contexts, for different purposes, and in different ways [Zeng 2005]. The genre approach to teaching writing, as Paltridge [2004] claims, emphasizes the teaching of particular genres students need for later social communicative success. The focus could be the language and discourse features of particular texts and the context in which the text is used. With direct instruction of particular text features, students "can better understand how to make a piece of writing more effective and appropriate to the communicative

purpose" [Reppen 2002]. The combination of process and genre approaches is considered to give rise to the best and most efficient methods of teaching academic writing [Tribble 1996].

When teaching writing in English it is rational to draw a distinction between two types of writing to be taught. The first type of writing may be called writing for practical purposes (practical writing). The second type is academic writing [Tarnopolsky 2005]. Practical writing skills are those that students may and mostly will actively use in their future professional and personal life. They include writing business and personal letters, CVs and letters of application when job hunting, summaries and abstracts of professional literature read, business contracts and agreements, etc. The development of relevant writing skills is absolutely indispensable but they are relatively simple to teach due to the highly standardized nature of the majority of written documents belonging to the above-mentioned categories. For instance, some research data show that business letter writing can be taught with the aid of computers with little or no involvement from the teacher.

Academic writing has lesser practical application after the course of English and is much harder to teach. Academic writing includes writing academic essays and compositions in the target language. This type of writing is hard to teach and learn because the level of standardization of texts to be written is much lower than in the written texts that were referred to above as belonging to practical writing category. Academic writing is of little practical significance as well because, after graduation, even students majoring in English will hardly ever have any need in writing essays in English for their professional careers or personal goals. However, academic writing is the most creative type of writing that can be taught to students of English as a foreign or second language (EFL/ESL). It requires the subtlest and non-standard use of the language and deep understanding of its expressive possibilities. Writing business letters or CVs (practical writing), students cannot learn to write (or think) creatively because they have to write strictly following the existing standards and samples of similar documents that were used in teaching in order to demonstrate those standards. But when writing an essay in English, learners are supposed to express their own original ideas and find the most suitable language means for achieving this goal. It develops not only the skill of productive writing but also develops general creative communicative abilities. Students obtain opportunities for creative and productive self-expression by means of the target language. This enhances their overall creative potential. And since writing is the most conscious and deliberate of all communication skills, academic writing becomes a unique means for learners' consciously mastering the creative, productive, and expressive approach towards communicative performance in the target language.

Like many other aspects of English language teaching, the type of writing we get students to do will depend on their age, interests and level. We can get beginners to write simple poems, but we probably won't give them an extended report on town planning to do. When we set tasks for elementary students, we will make sure that the students have – or can get – enough language to complete the task. Such students can write a simple story but they are not equipped to create a complex narrative. It's all a question of what language the students have at their command and what can be achieved

with this language. In general, however, we will try to get students writing in a number of common everyday styles. These will include writing postcards, letters of various kinds, filling in forms such as job applications, writing narrative compositions, reports, newspaper and magazine articles etc. We may also want to have students write such text types as dialogues, playscripts, advertisements, or poems – if we think these will motivate them.

Another factor which can determine our choice of writing task is the students' interests.

There is no limit to the kinds of text we can ask students to write. Our decisions, though, will be based on how much language the students know, what their interests are and what we think will not only be useful for them but also motivate them as well.

Teaching Listening

Current Format for a listening lesson

The current format for a listening lesson includes the following stages:

- Pre-listening
- Intensive listening and
- Post listening
  The intensive listening stage can be preceded by the extensive listening phase.
  Each of the stages includes some possible options that have their own purposes.

Pre-listening

- *Establish context*
  The rationale
  • to compensate for the limitations of using an audio cassette by giving students general idea of what they are going to hear. In a real-life situation they would usually be aware of who the speakers were, where, were they were and so on. It is only fair to provide some of this information before the listening exercise.

For example, the following instructions *You will hear part of a radio programme in which two women, Mary and Pat, will talk about their interest in being an amateur radio operator, or radio 'ham'.*
(Paper 103, Part 3)
You will hear a man talking about how he jogs - runs - in order to keep fit.
(Paper 103, Part 2)
have such pre-listening purposes as:

- They establish 'context': including the situation, the topic and genre of the recording.
- They introduce critical vocabulary.
- They mention names which help the listener to 'label' the speakers

- *Create motivation for listening*
  The rationale:
- Give learners a purpose for listening

- Enhances the quality and depth of listening
- Sets the right learners' mental set, i.e. gives forethought to what the listening passage is likely to contain.
- Outlines the context.
- Introduces critical vocabulary

- ***Pre-teach only critical vocabulary***

The rationale:

- Teaching all the vocabulary takes time – time which is much better spent listening.
- Teaching all the vocabulary leaves students unprepared for what happens in a real-life listening situation where, there will be words which they do not know and have to work out for themselves.
- By pre-teaching all the new words in a recording, the teacher encourages the learner to listen out for those words. Result: the learner's attention is focused upon the language of the text rather than its meaning.

Conclusion:

pre-teach only critical words (four or five) = those words without which the recording could not be understood (for example, in a passage about jogging, we would want to be sure that learners knew the verb to jog). In any given listening text, there should be very few such critical items – at most, four or five.

Extensive Listening

A procedure developed whereby learners are first asked to listen to the recording generally, in order to gain some idea as to who the speakers are and what they are speaking about. This phase of extensive listening serves a similar purpose to skimming a reading text: it ensures some familiarity with the content and also allows the listener to establish the 'geography' of the recording in the form of what information is provided where. The kind of question that the teacher might ask at this stage is extremely general: Who are the people? What are they talking about? and How are they feeling: angry? happy? disappointed?

- ***General questions on context and attitude of speakers***

Intensive Listening

- ***Pre-set questions***

Effects of not pre-setting questions	Effects of pre-setting questions
• learners listen in a very untargeted way; • learners are unclear about where to direct their attention; • their ability to answer is compromised since it depends upon which parts of the recording they happen to have paid special heed to. • Their responses are heavily	• learners know in advance what they are listening for. • They can write notes of their answers during listening • their ability to respond will not be dependent upon their ability to remember what was said.

dependent upon memory • They are unable to answer further teacher's questions as time goes by.	

- ***Intensive listening***

During this central part of the listening exercise, the listeners, now familiar with the general content of the text, are able to listen for detail and to respond to more focused questions.

- ***Checking answers to questions***

It is important to provide insights into the *process* by which the product is derived rather than focus attention on the *product*.

Ask learners to justify their choice of answer. Asking the question *Why*? And getting students' explanations show whether the answers themselves are correct or not.

In the case of a *correct a*nswer the teacher finds out how the answer was arrived at and thus establishes the extent to which it was based on the information form the texts as against external contextual information.

In the case of a wrong answer, the teacher gains an indication of where the learners' listening difficulties originate. This opens up the possibility to practice intensively the problem areas in later classes.

The teacher's goal is not to obtain the correct answers but to discover more about the techniques and strategies employed by the respondents, to establish their strengths and weaknesses as listeners.

Post-listening (optional)

- Functional language in listening passage
- Learners infer the meaning of unknown words from the sentences in which they appear
- Final play; learners look at transcript

Information file:

Traditional Listening Lesson Format

Early Format for a Listening Lesson

- Pre-listening
- Pre-teach vocabulary 'to ensure maximum understanding'
- Listening
- Extensive listening followed by general questions on context
- Intensive listening followed by detailed comprehension questions
- Post-listening
- Teach any new vocabulary
- Analyse language (Why did the speaker use the Present Perfect here?)
- Paused play. Students listen and repeat

The major features of the traditional (early) listening lesson format:

• ***The three stages***. The lesson provided for a preliminary stage when teachers prepared learners for the listening exercise and for a final stage during which the listening exercise was reviewed. During **pre-listening**, teachers traditionally presented the new items of the vocabulary that learners were about to encounter in the recording. In **post-listening**, they checked the answers to comprehension questions and explored the language of the recording.

• ***Listening at two levels***. A procedure developed whereby learners are first asked to listen to the recording generally, in order to gain some idea as to who the speakers are and what they are speaking about. This phase of extensive listening serves a similar purpose to skimming a reading text: it ensures some familiarity with the content and also allows the listener to establish the 'geography' of the recording in the form of what information is provided where. The kind of question that the teacher might ask at this stage is extremely general: *Who are the people? What are they talking about? and How are they feeling: angry? happy? disappointed?* During the second and subsequent plays, the listeners, now familiar with the general content of the text, are able to listen for detail and to respond to more focused questions. This central part of the listening exercise was traditionally referred to as ***intensive listening***.

• ***Multiple-play.*** The format embraced the notion that the listeners might benefit from several plays of the listening passage during intensive listening. The thinking at the time (with its emphasis on form rather than meaning) was that repeated listening enabled the teacher to foe by degrees on the language of the recording and habituated the learner to the rhythms and intonation patterns of the target language.

The main points of the criticism of the format

• It was not correct (and smacked of 'nannying') to assume that students could handle a listening exercise only if they knew most or all of d vocabulary in it.

• Intensive listening took place without any clear aim. Students were not asked questions until after they had heard the passage, so they did not know what they were listening for. Their success in answering depended on memory as much as on listening skill.

• The convention of drawing attention to examples of grammar was a relic of the idea that the listening lesson should serve to demonstrate recently taught language in everyday use. In the end, lessons often focused more on discussing the language of the recording than practicing listening.

• Paused play could lead to 'parroting'. Its critics argued that students could repeat a stretch of sound without necessarily understanding what it meant.

Two types of listening behavior

A listener (whether in L1 or L2) engages in two different types of listening behavior. Firstly, she has to deal with the signal that reaches her ear. It comes in the form of a set of acoustic cues which have to be translated first into the sounds of the target language and then into words and phrases on the listener's vocabulary and then into an abstract idea. The operation is basically one of changing information from one form into another; and it is therefore often referred to as decoding.

What the listener derives from this operation is just the literal meaning of what the speaker has said. Clearly, this is not enough. If the speaker says *Fair enough* or *What a pity!* the sentence is meaningless without some kind of earlier context. So the listener then has to external information to bear on what she has heard. She might draw upon her knowledge of the world or upon her recall of what has been said so far in the conversation. She aslo has to make important decisions as to the importance and relevance of the sentences she has just heard. This whole information will be referred to as meaning building.

Decoding: translating the speech signal into speech sounds, words and uses, and finally into a literal meaning

Meaning building: adding to the bare meaning provided by decoding and relating it to what has been said before.

Functions of decoding and meaning building

In decoding, the listener has to make sense of the speech signal. The main goal is to identify words. As soon as a native listener has formed a word match, it triggers a rapid and automatic link to the word's meaning. However, that is not the end of decoding, as the listener then has to go on to trace a grammatical pattern words that she has assembled.

In meaning building the listener expands on the meaning of what the speaker says, and adds incoming pieces of information to her overall picture of the talk or conversation. The first function operates at both word and sentence level. The listener has to relate the speaker's words to the context and situation in which they occur. For example, when the speaker hears the word *turn* it does not open up a single specific meaning but a range of possibilities: one can *turn a corner, turn a handle, turn over a page*. One can even *turn pale* or *turn thirty*. The precise sense of *turn* that the speaker intended will only be recognised once the listener has taken full account of the words that surround it. A similar process operates at sentence level. What the listener extracts from an utterance is a bare and literal meaning. It needs to be enriched by using knowledge of the world *[what do I know about this topic!],* and by deciding its relevance to the present situation *[why did the speaker say this at this point!].*

The second function of meaning building entails making decisions about which pieces of information are important and which are not. The listener then uses the relevant ones to construct a record of the whole listening encounter.

Decoding and meaning building: Learners' problems

The two operations (decoding and meaning building) give rise to two very different types of difficulty. A problem of decoding is likely to be related to the unfamiliar nature of the spoken language. It might be caused by a gap in the listener's knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Or it might be caused by a weakness in the learner's listening skills. In the latter case, the learner might hear a word or grammar pattern that she knew but might not recognize it when it occurred in natural continuous speech.

By contrast, problems of meaning building relate to how efficiently the learner handles the information she has extracted from the text. Many meaning-building processes will certainly be fully established in the learner's native language, but they may not be applied in L2 listening because of the additional attention that has to be

given to decoding unfamiliar sounds and words. Other processes may founder (=be unsuccessful) because they are dependent upon the learner taking account of words and phrases in the second language (*but, or, on the other hand, what's more*) which mark the relationship between different pieces of information.

Type of listening operation	General nature of the problem *(what the problem is related to)*	Cause of the problem	Effects
Decoding	Unfamiliar nature of spoken language	A gap in the listener's knowledge of vocabulary and grammar	
		A weakness in the learner's listening skills	the learner might hear a word or grammar pattern that she knew but might not recognize it when it occurred in natural continuous speech.
Meaning building	Information processing skills	Distracting attention by decoding unfamiliar sounds and words	meaning-building processes fully established in the learner's native language are not applied in L2 listening
		the learner doesn't take account of words and phrases which mark the relationship between different pieces of information in the second language	Meaning building processes fail

Decoding and meaning building: Types of Information

There are three types of information that supply the material for decoding and meaning building:

(1) input (also referred to as the speech stream or the signal): the sounds reaching the ear of the listener; and the syllables, words and clauses that those sounds represent;

(2) linguistic knowledge: knowledge of the sounds, vocabulary and grammar of the language (including knowledge of word meanings);

(3) context: which includes (a) general knowledge and personal experience which the listener provides; (b) knowledge of what has been said so far in the conversation.

Decoding is closely associated with the first and the second: the listener has to use knowledge of the language, whether LI or L2, to turn the speech stream into words, phrases and sentences. Meaning building is especially reliant upon the third, though it also draws upon linguistic knowledge in the form of word meaning (see the example above of the word turn). Context contributes to decoding as well. A listener might need to draw upon co-text in order to select the appropriate sense for a word: compare right in Turn right at the traffic lights with right in She got three questions right. In addition, co-text and context assist in correcting possible misperceptions. A listener who identifies the word knickers during a radio discussion about the Church might conclude that the word she heard was actually vicars. A listener who hears the word dessert in a talk about camels might assume that the speaker mispronounced desert.

Information-Processing Model

Decoding turns the acoustic input that the listener receives into what we think of as the standard forms of language. One way of representing what happens is through an ***information-processing model*** that shows the listener reshaping a piece of speech into ever-larger units of language. It is the sequence showing how a listener might build up the sentence *Do you speak English?* The listener's ear receives a series of acoustic sensations, which have to be matched to the sounds (phonemes) of the target language (phoneme level). The phonemes are grouped into syllables (syllable level) /du + ju: + spi: + kiŋ + gliʃ/ and the syllables into words (word-from level) do + you + speak + English. Often the words fall into familiar clusters corresponding to frequently encountered chunks of language (chunk level) *[do you speak] + English*. At another level still, the listener has to recognize two types of larger pattern *Aux + Subject + Verb + Object*. One is the grammatical structure of the utterance (syntax level); the other is its intonation, which binds together a group of words (intonation level). Often, the two coincide.

At the level of the meaning the listener builds the meaning of the utterance: yes / no / hello / please / thank you

It has to be stressed that this is a very simplified account. To give just one reason: it is unlikely that the listener uses these levels of analysis one after the other; she might use two or more together. For example, she might use her familiarity with frequently occurring groups of words (Doyouspeak) at the same time as making matches to

individual ones (Do + you + speak). However, the information-processing model provides quite a neat way of classifying the various decoding processes by relating them to the units of language that they serve to identify.

Teaching Reading

What is reading?

What is reading? Reading is about understanding written texts. It is a complex activity that involves both perception and thought. Reading consists of two related processes: word recognition and comprehension. Word recognition refers to the process of perceiving how written symbols correspond to one's spoken language. Comprehension is the process of making sense of words, sentences and connected text. Readers typically make use of background knowledge, vocabulary, grammatical knowledge, experience with text and other strategies to help them understand written text.

Learning to read is an important educational goal. For both children and adults, the ability to read opens up new worlds and opportunities. It enables us to gain new knowledge, enjoy literature, and do everyday things that are part and parcel of modern life, such as reading the newspapers, job listings, introduction manuals, maps and so on.

A set of general learning goals for the reading component of an English language course could include:
- to be able to read a range of texts in English;
- to adapt reading style according to range of purposes and apply different strategies as appropriate;
- to build a knowledge of language (e.g. vocabulary, structure), which will facilitate development of greater reading ability;
- to build schematic knowledge in order to interpret texts meaningfully;
- to develop awareness of the structure of written texts in English and to be able to make use of, for example, rhetorical structures, discourse features, and cohesive devices in comprehending texts;
- to take a critical stance to the content of texts.

The teacher's responsibilities in helping learners achieve these goals will be to motivate reading by selecting or creating appropriate texts, to design useful reading tasks, to set up effective classroom procedures, to encourage critical reading, and to create a supportive environment for practising reading. Each learner will have different strengths to build on and different weaknesses to overcome. Therefore there can be no single, set, rigid methodology for reading. The teacher will need to focus on different goals at different times and to use a range of materials and tasks.

Schematic knowledge vs language knowledge

Schematic knowledge is defined by Cook [1989] as mental representations of typical situations … used in discourse processing to predict the contents of the particular situation which the discourse describes.

Certain words or phrases in the text or in the materials surrounding the text will activate prior knowledge of some kind in the mind of the reader. Reading methodology needs to pay attention to activating schematic knowledge before reading.

Language knowledge enables readers to work on the text. Good readers recognize, and decode quickly and accurately, words, grammatical structures, and other linguistic features, and are unaware of the process as they engage in this. In other words, a fluent reader has a good knowledge of language structure and can recognize a wide range of vocabulary automatically.

Clearly second language readers are going to have difficulties in processing texts which contain unfamiliar aspects of the English language. Vocabulary is a major component of reading ability with which language learners will experience difficulty, but the degree of difficulty will vary with the demands of the text, the prior knowledge of the reader, the degree of automaticity a learner has achieved in general word recognition, any specialist lexical knowledge a student might have, and the learner's first language. A major strategy in helping students to build vocabulary for reading is to encourage them to develop strategies for guessing word meanings from contextual clues and background knowledge. Students are capable of guessing 60-80 per cent of unknown words in a text if the density of new words is not too high. A five-step sequence can help learners when they are dealing with a text:

- Finding the part of speech of the unknown word;
- Looking at the immediate context of the unknown word and simplifying this context if necessary;
- Looking at the wider context of the unknown word. This means looking at the relationship between the clause containing the unknown word and surrounding clauses and sentences;
- Guessing the meaning of the unknown word.
- Checking that the guess is correct.

Extensive reading

To get maximum benefit from their reading, students need to be involved in both extensive and intensive reading. For extensive reading a teacher encourages students to choose for themselves what they read and to do so for pleasure and general language improvement. However, intensive reading is often teacher-chosen and directed.

The importance of extensive reading is beyond any doubt. But it is not enough to tell students "to read a lot"; we need to offer them a programme which includes appropriate material, guidance, tasks and facilities, such as permanent or portable libraries of books.

Extensive reading materials: one of the fundamental conditions of a successful extensive reading programme is that students should be reading material which they can

understand. If they are struggling to understand every word, they can hardly be reading for pleasure – the main goal of extensive reading. This means that we need to provide books which are readily accessible to our students. Specially written materials for extensive reading are called ***graded readers or simplified readers.*** Such books succeed because the writers or adaptors work within specific lists of allowed words and grammar. Students at the appropriate level can read them with ease and confidence.

The role of the teacher in the extensive reading programmes: most students will not do a lot of extensive reading by themselves unless they are encouraged to do so by their teachers. Having persuaded our students of the benefits of extensive reading, we can organize reading programmes where we indicate to them how many books we expect them to read over a given period. We can explain how they can make their choice of what to read, making it clear that the choice is theirs but that they can consult other students' reviews to help them make their choice.

Extensive reading tasks: we should encourage students to report back on their reading in a number of ways. One approach is to set a time at various points in a course at which students can ask questions or tell about the books they have read. we can ask them to keep a weekly reading diary, either on its own or as part of any learning journal they may be writing. Students can also write short book reviews for their class noticeboard. At the end of a month, a semester or a year, they can vote on the most popular book in the library. Students can also fill in reading record charts (where they record title, publisher, level, start and end dates, comments about level and a good / fair / poor overall rating), keep a reading notebook, and do oral interviews about what they are reading. Teachers can also put comment sheets into the books for students to write in, as the following example for a book called "The Earthquake" shows:

Rating	Your comment and your name
5	I'm afraid earthquake happens to us Shoko
4	I had a chance to think what's the most important thing by reading this book Hisako

Intensive reading. Skimming and scanning

Intensive reading is often teacher-chosen and directed. It is designed to enable students to develop specific receptive skills such as reading for gist or general understanding, called ***skimming***, and reading for specific information, called ***scanning***.

Many ESL/ELT reading courses focus on the development of both general and specific reading skills. For example, most reading coursebooks will include activities devoted to skimming, scanning, reading for main ideas and reading and making inferences - skills which are involved in many different kinds of reading. Sometimes skills may be selected for a particular kind of reading, or which are important for

reading particular kinds of texts. For example, the following are sometimes described as skills needed for 'reading to learn'.

- Reading to find facts and details.
- Skimming a text quickly for gist.
- Reading to obtain new ideas and information.
- Reading to connect information from different sources.
- Reading as a preparation for writing, or discussing a topic.
- Responding critically to things one reads.
- Reading for main ideas.

A more detailed list includes the following:

- Deducing the meaning and use of unfamiliar lexical items.
- Understanding explicitly stated Information.
- Understanding information when not explicitly stated.
- Understanding conceptual meaning.
- Understanding the communicative value of sentences.
- Understanding relations within the sentence.
- Understanding relations between parts of a text, through grammatical cohesion devices.
- Interpreting a text by going outside it.
- Recognizing indicators in discourse.
- Distinguishing the main ideas from supporting details.
- Extracting salient details to summarize a text.
- Extracting relevant points from a text selectively.
- Skimming.
- Scanning to locate specifically required information.

Skimming:

The students should be able to:

- obtain main ideas and discourse topic quickly and efficiently;
- establish quickly the structure of the text;
- decide the relevance of a text or part of the text to their needs.

Scanning:

The students should be able to find:

specific words or phrases;

figures, percentages;

specific items and references.

Most reading sequences involve more than one reading skill. We may start by having students read for gist and then get them to read the text again for detailed comprehension; they may start by identifying the topic of a text before scanning the text quickly to recover specific information; they may read for specific information before going back to the text to identify features of text construction.

Levels of reading comprehension

Reading comprehension can be described in terms of different levels of comprehension associated with reading, since comprehension can refer to understanding of details in a text, understanding of main ideas, understanding of implied meanings and so on. A widely cited **taxonomy of levels of understanding is known as Barrett's taxonomy** and identifies five different levels of understanding. These are referred to as

- *literal comprehension* (concern with information stated explicitly in the text),
- *reorganization* (analyzing, synthesizing and organizing information that has been stated explicitly),
- *inferential comprehension* (using information explicitly stated, along with one's own personal experience, as a basis for conjecture and hypothesis),
- *evaluation* (judgements and decisions concerning value and worth) and
- *appreciation* (psychological and aesthetic impact of the text on the reader).

This taxonomy is useful because it reminds us that not all texts require the same level of understanding or are read in the same way. It also influences the design of reading instruction, since tasks that seek to teach or assess literal comprehension may be different from those that are used to teach or assess appreciation.

Inferencing

This refers to arriving at a meaning which has not been explicitly stated in a text by making links between information in the text and our knowledge of the world. As a text is being read, the reader makes different kinds of inferences that enable him or her to process the text, and these are often incorporated in the reader's understanding of the text. Often, after reading a text, readers cannot distinguish between ideas that the text contained and inferences they made while reading it. This can sometimes be a problem when reading comprehension is being tested - the readers' answers may be based on their guesses rather than information in the text itself.

Fluency in reading

In order to understand the complexity of reading, it is necessary to focus on the processes made use of by fluent readers and to ask questions about what they do when they read, and how the processes they use work together to contribute to a general notion of reading. Fluent readers are able to read accurately, quickly, effortlessly, and generally with at least 70 per cent comprehension. They are able to perform multiple tasks at the same time; for example, they can recognize words while also comprehending their meaning. This can be seen when we read the following text:

The phaonmneal pweor of the hmuan mnid: Aoccdrnig to rscheearch at Cmabrigde Uinervtisy, it dseno't mtaetr in what oerdr the itteres in a word are. The oiny iproamtnt tihng is that the frsit and last itteer is in the rghit pciae. The rset can be a taoti mses, and you can still raed it whotuit a pboerlm. This is bcuseae the huamn mnid deos not raed ervey Iteter by istlef, but the word as a wlohe.

We can understand the text without difficulty, because we understand what we *expect* to encounter. We are driven by the need to understand, so we read for meaning and do not need to consciously process the meaning of each and every word in the text.

Reading strategies questions

Readers use different strategies depending on the kind of text they are reading, their familiarity with the topic of the text, the difficulty level of the text, their purpose in reading it and so on. They think about the process of reading and monitor their reading, based on what and why they are reading. A strategic reader adjusts his or her approach to a text by considering questions such as the following:

➢ What is my purpose in reading this text? Am I reading it for pleasure? Am I reading it to keep up to date on current events? Will I need this information later (e.g. for a test)?

➢ What kind of text is this? Is it an advertisement, a report, a news article or some other kind of text?

➢ What is the writer's purpose? Is it to persuade, to entertain or to inform the reader?

➢ What kind of information do I expect to find in the text?

➢ What do I already know about texts of this kind? How are they usually organized?

➢ How should I read this text? Should I read it to find specific information, or should I read it for main ideas? Should I read it again carefully to focus on the details?

➢ What linguistic difficulties does the text pose? How can I deal with unfamiliar vocabulary, complex sentences and lengthy sentences and paragraphs?

➢ What is my opinion about the content of the text?

Appropriate reading strategies are selected in response to questions like these. They may prompt the reader to make predictions about the content and organization of a text based on background knowledge of the topic, as well as familiarity with the text type. They may help the reader to decide the rate at which to read the text - a quick skim for main ideas, quickly to scan for specific information, a slower, closer reading for more detailed comprehension or a rapid reading to build fluency. Other reading strategies help the reader make sense of the relationship between ideas, such as cause and effect, comparison- contrast and so on. In addition, the strategy of reading a text critically - reacting to it and formulating opinions about the content - is a crucial part of being a successful reader.

Goals for a reading classroom

In the light of insights into the reading process and into how successful readers interact with texts, a set of general learning goals for the reading component of an English language course could include:

- to be able to read a range of texts in English
- to adapt reading style according to range of purposes and apply different strategies (e.g. skimming, scanning) as appropriate
- to build a knowledge of language (e.g. vocabulary, structure), which will facilitate development of greater reading ability
- to build schematic knowledge in order to interpret texts meaningfully

- to develop awareness of the structure of written texts in English and to be able to make use of, e.g., rhetorical structure, discourse features, and cohesive devices in comprehending texts
- to take a critical stance to the content of texts.

The teacher's responsibilities in helping learners achieve these goals will be to motivate reading by selecting or creating appropriate texts, to design useful reading tasks, to set up effective classroom procedures, to encourage critical reading, and to create a supportive environment for practising reading. Each learner will have different strengths to build on and different weaknesses to overcome. Therefore there can be no single, set, rigid methodology for reading. The teacher will need to focus on different goals at different times and to use a range of materials and tasks.

Criteria to select reading texts

Teachers will have facilities for choosing and preparing texts for classroom use but will need to formulate criteria for making that choice as students will not necessarily have any clear needs for learning to read in English. It is also possible to discover the reading interests of learners through a 'Reading interest questionnaire' which asks learners about the genre they like to read in their first language, for example, non-fiction, thrillers, or romance.

Another factor to be considered is variety: of topic, of length of text, of rhetorical organization (for example, description, review, comparison), and of reading purpose. If the list of purposes for reading were developed into a framework for text selection with intermediate high-school or adult students, a course might well include the following:

- to get information	travel brochures, train timetables, bus schedules, notices, public signs, directories, catalogues, information leaflets, regulations, weather forecasts
- to respond to curiosity about a topic	magazine articles, newspaper editorials, advertisements, guidelines, specialist brochures
- to follow instructions	maps, route planners, recipes, assembly instructions, instructions for use, guides, manuals
— for pleasure and enjoyment	poems, short stories, plays, reviews, lampoons, skits, cartoons
— to keep in touch	postcards, notes, invitations, letters, condolences, memos, messages
- to know what is happening in the world	news articles, news in brief, TV Ceefax, faxes, news reviews
- to find out when and where	announcements, programmes, tour guides.

Reading task
Pre-reading stage

It is now standard practice in the design of reading tasks to use a three-phase procedure involving pre-, while-, and post-reading stages. The intention is to ensure that reading is 'taught' in the sense of helping readers develop increasing ability to tackle texts. This is in contrast to more traditional materials in which reading would be 'tested' through a procedure in which learners would read a text with or without an introduction, possibly with some pre-teaching of vocabulary, and then would be required to answer comprehension questions. Many contemporary materials reflect this three- phase procedure.

During the pre-reading phase, learners can be encouraged to do a number of things: become oriented to the context of the text, for example for what purpose was it originally produced?; tune in to the content of the text; establish a reason for reading; express an attitude about the topic; review their own experiences in relation to the topic; activate existing cultural knowledge; and become familiar with some of the language in the text. In this way the teacher can prepare them in terms of both schematic and language knowledge, and ensure purposeful reading. A range of activity types are possible at this stage and teachers can select or combine from a repertoire, for example: talking about pictures accompanying the text; predicting from the title; agreeing or disagreeing with a set of proposals about the topic; answering a set of questions or a quiz; listing items of information they already know about the topic; or discussing the topic. The pre-reading activity uses a discussion question to raise interest in the topic, to create attitudes towards it, and to give teachers and students the opportunity to rehearse some key language. In eliciting opinions the teacher can provide words in the text such as 'macho', 'resilient', 'low self-image', and 'underrate'. The pre-reading task, which is accompanied in the textbook by several photographs, helps students to anticipate content in drawing up their own lists. This activates their prior knowledge of the topic and any relevant language they might already know.

While-reading stage

Traditionally, English language learners have been prepared for reading through a focus on language knowledge, vocabulary usually, but sometimes structure. More recently, since the adoption of the idea of reading as an interactive process, while-reading activities have been used: these generally aim to encourage learners to be active as they read. Students can be given activities which require them to do any of the following: follow the order of ideas in a text; react to the opinions expressed; understand the information it contains; ask themselves questions; make notes; confirm expectations or prior knowledge; or predict the next part of the text from various clues. To encourage these activities, teachers can use a range of exercise types, for example: ask students to tick a list of expectations or find answers to their own questions; suggest they tick and cross in the margin in reaction to the writer's opinions; give them questions to stop and think about; or provide a chart for them to fill in with points of information. These are just some of the activities now used by teachers and textbook

writers who believe that it might be useful to intervene in the reading process in some way. As yet, there are few research studies to show the effects of intervention, and their outcomes are contradictory. However, many students report positively on the usefulness of while-reading activities and many teachers therefore try to encourage activity, reflection, and response while reading.

Post-reading stage

Post-reading activities can be as varied as the texts they follow, but ideally will tie up with the reading purpose set, so that students check and discuss activities done while reading and make use of what they have read in a meaningful way, for example, by discussing their response to the writers opinions or by using notes for a writing activity. After that, a wide range of activities focusing either on the content of the text can be undertaken, for example, debate, role-play, reading of contrasting texts, or focusing on its language. At this stage many teachers will want to build their students' language competence by concentrating on some linguistic features: vocabulary for example. In this way it is possible to introduce useful techniques for future bottom-up processing. It is also possible to use a text to demonstrate language features which have been studied separately as part of a language-awareness course. For example if, through an activity the class has been introduced to the idea of back reference in a text, they could be asked to find examples of this in the text they have just read. Similarly, a text can be studied for examples of correctives. There will need to be careful linking between those elements of a course which focus directly on language and the kind of post-reading activity used in order to ensure that students receive useful training in 'word-attack' or 'text-attack' skills.

Post-reading work

There is a useful way of involving students in the design of post-reading questions. After doing a pre-reading activity prepared by the teacher and individual reading of the text, students work in small groups to check their understanding and to construct key questions. The teacher elicits questions from the groups, corrects them, and then the class selects a set of questions which students answer in their groups. A class plenary ensues to discuss the answers. After training in this procedure it can be extended to texts which students have brought into class, and eventually students might prepare questions on self-chosen texts individually for other students to evaluate and answer. Clarke's procedure suggests collaborative classroom work. This can be very useful in helping students to become aware of their own thinking processes as they work on texts. And this kind of peer interaction can be highly motivating. It is worth building different kinds of classroom interaction into reading activities as well as ensuring that students have individual practice in applying the strategies they are learning. This implies a variety in the teacher's roles. During language-focused activities the teacher might well assume the more traditional role of instructor, but when it comes to the reading itself, the teacher's role will be to provide materials, design activities, and then step back. In this way the teacher acts as organizer, guide, and evaluator of how successfully students have tackled a text and of what further work might be needed.

It is worth giving special mention to activities which develop reading speed, which is particularly important if learners face the pressures of reading English quickly for academic or professional purposes, but also important for the general learner if reading is to be enjoyable rather than a painful process of 'getting through' a text. Good readers read fast and accurately, which means that they read in groups of words rather than plodding through a text word by word. They can identify phrases and develop the skill of 'chunking' stretches of text in this way. For teachers concerned to assist learners in bottom-up processing, activities may be useful in raising awareness of how reading speed is achieved and in practising the text-attack skill of reading in meaningful phrases. This will enable learners to approach texts appropriately in terms of matching purpose and speed of reading.

Teaching speaking

On conformity with situations, **speaking can be productive and interactive**. But the majority of linguists divided speaking situations into three types: interactive, partially interactive and non-interactive. Interactive speaking includes face-to-face conversations, telephone calls, asking for clarification, repetition, etc. Partially interactive speech is giving an oral report to a live audience when the convention is that the audience does not speak. And the last one can be a speech recorded for a radio broadcast, performing a play, reciting a poem, or singing. We can consider partially and non-interactive speech as spoken production. Because in both situations students prepare their talks beforehand, they find information and organize their ideas.

According to CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference), in spoken interaction learners can express themselves fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. They can use the language flexibly and efficiently for social and professional purposes. Additionally, a speaker formulates his/her ideas and opinions with precision and relates his/her contribution skillfully to those of other speakers. In spoken production learners can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating subthemes, developing particular points and round off with an appropriate conclusion. In short both types of speaking are very crucial for language learners. However, the researcher selected to carry out the study of spoken production due to the fact that productive speaking helps students to succeed in English for Academic purposes and prove their own opinions among other people. It gives them a good foundation for leadership skills.

There is no real limit to the way in which teachers can group students in a classroom, though certain factors, such as over-crowding, fixed furniture and entrenched student attitudes, may make things problematic. Nevertheless, teaching a class as a whole, getting students to work on their own, or having them perform tasks in pairs or groups all have their own advantages and disadvantages; each is more or less appropriate for different activities.

Pair work

In pairwork, students can practise language together, study a text, research language or take part in information-gap activities. They can write dialogues, predict the content of reading texts or compare notes on what they have listened to or seen.

Advantages of pair work:

- It dramatically increases the amount of speaking time any one student gets in the class.

- It allows students to work and interact independently without the necessary guidance of the teacher, thus promoting learner independence.

- It allows teachers time to work with one or two pairs while the other students continue working.

- It recognizes the old maxim that 'two heads are better than one', and in promoting cooperation, helps the classroom to become a more relaxed and friendly place. If we get students to make decisions in pairs (such as deciding on the correct answers to questions about a reading text), we allow them to share responsibility, rather than having to bear the whole weight themselves.

- It is relatively quick and easy to organise.

Disadvantages of pair work:

- Pairwork is frequently very noisy and some teachers and students dislike this. Teachers in particular worry that they will lose control of their class.

- Students in pairs can often veer away from the point of an exercise, talking about something else completely, often in their first language. The chances of misbehaviour are greater with pairwork than in a whole-class setting.

- It is not always popular with students, many of whom feel they would rather relate to the teacher as individuals than interact with another learner who may be just as linguistically weak as they are.

- the actual choice of paired partner can be problematic, especially if students frequently find themselves working with someone they are not keen on.

Group work

We can put students in larger groups, too, since this will allow them to do a range of tasks for which pair work is not sufficient or appropriate. Thus, students can write a group story or role-play a situation which involves five people. They can prepare a presentation or discuss an issue and come to a group decision. They can watch, write or perform a video sequence; we can give individual students in a group different lines from a poem which the group has to reassemble.

In general, it is possible to say that small groups of around five students provoke greater involvement and participation than larger groups. They are small enough for real interpersonal interaction yet not so small that members are over-reliant upon each individual. Because five is an odd number it means that a majority view can usually prevail. However, there are occasions when larger groups are necessary. The activity may demand it or we may want to divide the class into teams for some game or preparation phase.

Advantages of group work:

- Like pair work, it dramatically increases the number of talking opportunities for individual students.

- Unlike pair work, because there are more than two people in the group, personal relationships are usually less problematic; there is also a greater chance of different opinions and varied contributions than in pair work.

- It encourages broader skills of cooperation and negotiation than pair work, and yet is more private than work in front of the whole class. Students can evaluate each other's performance both positively and negatively where in a bigger group a natural tendency for self-effacement made this less likely.

- It promotes learner autonomy by allowing students to make their own decisions in the group without being told what to do by the teacher.

- Although we do not wish any individuals in groups to be completely passive, nevertheless some students can choose their level of participation more readily than in a whole-class or pair work situation.

Disadvantages of group work:

- It is likely to be noisy (though not necessarily as loud as pair work can be). Some teachers feel that they lose control, and the whole-class feeling which has been painstakingly built up may dissipate when the class is split into smaller entities.

- Not all students enjoy it since they would prefer to be the focus of the teacher's attention rather than working with their peers. Sometimes students find themselves in uncongenial groups and wish they could be somewhere else.

- Individuals may fall into group roles that become fossilised, so that some are passive whereas others may dominate.

- Groups can take longer to organise than pairs; beginning and ending groupwork activities, especially where people move around the class, can take time and be chaotic.

PREPARING TO TEACH 2

Working with Materials

Materials evaluation and selection and their underlying principles

A great variety of materials are used for teaching and sharing information. Materials will be considered anything which is used to help language learning, examples include but are not limited to: course books, workbooks, CDs an flashcards. We need to be certain of their effect and relevance and evaluate them carefully.

Materials evaluation may be defined as a procedure measuring the potential value(s) of materials on learners in relation to their objectives [Tomlinson, 2003]. In other words materials evaluation means a principled process of providing useful information about the targeted materials in order to select and\or develop them in a reliable and valid approach. Evaluation in education can be defined as the process of

finding out whether, or to what extent, the material used achieved the aims and objectives (oucomes) of a learning programme.

Identifying the reasons for materials evaluation is necessary to achieve the main purpose of evaluation. The intention to adopt new course books is one of the main reasons. To identify the points of strengths and weaknesses is another reason for evaluation. However, B.Tomlinson and H.Masuhara indicate that the ultimate purpose of evaluation is for re-development of material [Tomlinson, Masuhara 2004].

A great variety of materials are used for teaching and we need to evaluate them, taking into the consideration the following *criteria*:

- Relevance
- Effectiveness
- Level (comlexity)
- Content (sufficient? lacking)
- Compliance with the standard required and\or requirements of the curriculum.

When evaluating materials we should consider the extent to which each of them is interesting, approachable and engaging.

There are possibly three categories of evaluation: pre-use evaluation, in-use and post-use. The main aim of evaluating materials pre-use is to measure the potential of what teachers and learners can do with them in the classroom. In-use and post- use evaluations are important in establishing how successful learning materials are [McDonough, Shaw, 2003].

The following principles should be applied to materials development and selection:

A) Materials should have an impact on the learners in the sense that they provoke some emotions;

B) Materials should involve relevant content to the target learners' needs;

C) Materials should include relevant content to the target learners' interests which motivates learners to learn the target language effectively;

D) Materials should help learners to feel secure and develop their confidence and independence;

E) Materials should assist learners to use the target language for communicative purposes;

F) Materials should take into account different learning styles of learners;

G) Materials should be flexible in order to give the opportunity for teachers to adapt the materials to suit their learners' needs and interests;

H) Materials should provide teachers with methodological support to facilitate their job and provide inspiration to them to articulate creative teaching methods or ideas.

There are three possibilities with regard to ready- made materials: select from existing materials –material evaluation, modify existing materials-materials adaptation, write our own materials —materials development.

The process of evaluation can be done in planned activities such as examination and tests. Evaluation can also take a form of activities for feedback, criticism and assessment and other ways in which the learners can express their opinions.

Error Analysis. Dealing with Errors

Ways of dealing with errors in students' oral and written speech. Correction techniques.

Correction is part of the teaching/learning process. It is a form of feedback, when a teacher or another student provides the correct version of an error, either spoken or written.

Error correction in students' oral speech

Although correction is part of learning/teaching process, over-correction and poor correction techniques can be demotivating for the learner and may lead to a reluctance to try out new language or even to speak at all. Teachers need to make informed decisions about what, when and how to correct in order to help learners improve their speaking skills without damaging their confidence. In theory and practice of EFL teaching, there are some useful guidelines for the teacher to follow to deal with students' oral mistakes.

1. Identifying the kind of mistake and relating it to the appropriate category: grammatical, vocabulary choice, pronunciation, etc. In addition, it is also important for the teacher to distinguish a mistake from a slip and handle them differently. This is because it can avoid unnecessary intrusions by the teacher. A mistake can be considered something the students produce in an incorrect way, which can impact their intended meaning and hinder communication. For example, using wrong verb tenses and mispronunciations are typical mistakes language learners make. They need to be addressed through correction to avoid consolidation and repetition over time. While also incorrect, slips can be seen as something temporary which students are generally able to pick up and correct themselves. They can be caused by external factors such as anxiety (when making a presentation in front of the class, for example), fatigue or simply lack of attention.

2. Deciding whether to deal with mistake or not. Research in the field suggests that it makes no sense trying to correct any and all errors that occur in speaking classrooms. While correction is necessary to prevent fossilization, over-correction could be demotivating. This means that teachers need to be selective in correction. The teacher's decision depends on a number of factors like the aim of the speaking activity or stage of the lesson, the error type, the context, students' level of English, students' learning styles, the purpose of correction, etc.

For example, mistakes are usually corrected immediately when the aim of the stage of the lesson is to promote accuracy, particularly during the drilling of the target language and during guided practice. Attention to mistakes in these stages improves the chances of correct use of language later, while mistakes made during less-guided practice often indicate that the teacher has not dealt effectively with mistakes at the accuracy stage. When the aim is fluency, however, less intrusive, 'gentle' or delayed correction techniques are required in order not to damage either the flow of the activity or the confidence of the learners. The purpose of correction also matters. If the purpose is to help students improve production, then correction should be limited to one or two

areas for students to focus on which are important to overall comprehensibility: the student's pattern of run-on sentences, for example, or stress patterns, not a single misspelling or mispronunciation. Isolated issues of misspelling and mispronunciation usually do not detract from overall comprehensibility (if this were the case, most native speakers of English would on occasion lapse into incoherence); rather, the instructor should look for the global problems – problems in verb tense switch, for example, usually effect overall comprehensibility of a message.

3. Deciding on when to deal with the mistake, i.e. the timing of feedback. There are good reasons for both while-speaking and post-speaking correction.

4. Selecting the type of correction (self-correction, peer correction or teacher correction), i.e. deciding who will deal with the mistake.

5. Selecting the most appropriate correction technique.

The most widely spread techniques of correcting students' oral mistakes are as follows:

Explicit correction:

Learners are clearly told they have made an error, and a correct reformulation is provided. Explicit correction provides explicit signals to the student that there is an error. Unlike recast, explicit correction involves a clear indication to the student that an utterance was ill-formed and also provides the correct form.

L: *I spent all my money in clothes yesterday.*

T: *Please use the particle "on" instead of "in."*

L: *I spent all my money on clothes yesterday.*

Metalinguistic feedback

This feedback type involves the teacher's comments or brief analyses of a student's erroneous utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form.

L: *I spent all my money in clothes yesterday.*

T: *Use an appropriate particle accordingly.*

L: *I spent all my money...on clothes yesterday.*

Clarification request

Learners are asked to clarify their meaning (without any indication of the presence of the error).

L: *I spent all my money in clothes yesterday.*

T: *Pardon?*

L: *I spent all my money...on clothes yesterday.*

Although phrases such as *I'm sorry* and *I don't understand* are typical of clarification requests, another type is possible. Interestingly, this type of clarification request clearly seeks to elicit self-repair from the student as the teacher responds literally to what the student has said. Here, there is no comprehension problem. The teacher seems to be aware of what the student wants to say and focuses him on the error without giving him the correct response but, via a clarification request, uses a clue that directs the student to the nature of the error, in this case temporal reference.

T: *Okay. This is the name of your city in Haiti where you grew up. Yes?*

S: *Yeah, my city . . .*

T: *Yeah, okay.*

S: *. . . where I live. (grammatical error)*

T: *Now? (clarification request)*
S: *Yeah . . . where I was living. (repair)*

Repetition

The teacher repeats the learner's utterance, including the error(s).

L: *I spent all my money in clothes yesterday.*
T: *I spent all my money in clothes yesterday?*
L: *I spent all my money...on clothes yesterday.*

Elicitation

Elicitation is a corrective technique that prompts the learner to self-correct. There are three ways of eliciting the correct form from the students: (a) when the teacher pauses and lets the student complete the utterance, (b) when the teacher asks an open question, and (c) when the teacher requests a reformulation of the incorrect utterance. The learner is prompted to reformulate their utterance

L: *I spent all my money in clothes yesterday.*
T: *I spent all my money...?*
L: *I spent all my money...on clothes yesterday.*

Recast

A recast is an implicit corrective feedback move that reformulates or expands an ill-formed or incomplete utterance in an unobtrusive way, similar to the type of recasts provided by primary caregivers in child L1 acquisition. The teacher reformulates all or part of a student utterance, minus the error.

L: *I spent all my money in clothes yesterday.*
T: *Oh, you spent all your money on clothes yesterday.*
L: *Yes.*

Correcting student's written errors

Written errors are of many types. In order to easily assist learners in improving their writing, researchers and textbook authors have classified them into the following general categories: global and local errors. Whereas global errors refer to those errors that impede comprehensibility of the text, local errors are employed to describe errors that do not impede comprehensibility of the text. The distinction between global and local errors is not fixed and easily described, as one type of error may be a global error in one text but it may also be a local error in another text.

In terms of typology of corrective feedback, there are two common dichotomies: direct or indirect feedback and focused or unfocused feedback. When teachers offer direct written feedback, they provide the corrected version of the erroneous language forms. When teachers give indirect feedback, errors are pointed out, but no corrected versions of the erroneous linguistic forms are offered.

The same idea is also referred to as correcting (direct feedback) and responding (indirect feedback). Those are two broad categories embracing various ways of reacting. Correcting is the stage at which we indicate when something is not right. We correct mistakes in the students' written performance on issues such as syntax (word order), concord (grammatical agreement between subjects and verbs), collocation (words which live together), or word choice.

When responding to our students' work we are not only concerned with the accuracy of their performance but also – and this is crucial – with the content and design

of their writing. We might respond, for example, to the order in which they have made their points ('*Why did you start with the story about the bus that was late? You could have begun, instead, with the problem of public transport in general.*'). We might respond by saying how much we enjoyed reading their work – and then recommend that the student have a look at a book or website which has more information about the same topic. When responding, we are entering into a kind of affective dialogue with the students. That is, we are discussing their writing rather than judging it.

In a process-writing sequence, where the teachers intervention is designed to help students edit and move forward to a new draft, responding is often more appropriate than correcting. Our task is not to say what is unequivocally right or wrong, but to ask questions, make suggestions, and indicate where improvements might be made to both the content of the writing and the manner in which it is expressed. Feedback of this kind becomes more and more appropriate as the students' level improves and they can take advantage of such help. However, when students hand in a piece of homework we may mark it to show how correct the writing has been.

Ways of indicating errors vary. Some popular methods for pointing out erroneous linguistic forms are highlighting the errors using different coded colors (e.g., one color for each common type of error) or simply underlining them. The degree of directness may differ tremendously. While one teacher may just underline the specific problematic words or phrases, another may indicate the sentences in which errors exist and students have to find the errors and correct them. Also, some teachers may give a brief note on what is wrong and how to correct the errors, but other teachers may require students to work on their own or seek further assistance from writing centers or peers to improve the erroneous language forms.

If teachers offer focused feedback, they focus on providing feedback on some specific structures their students have just learned. Focused feedback is often referred to as selective correction. If we are going to employ a selective approach, students need to know about it. When we tell them that this time we are only going to be looking at punctuation, they will then concentrate on that aspect of writing especially, something that otherwise they might not do. Selective correction is a good learning tool, in other words.

A way of making selective correction really effective is to discuss with students what the teacher should be looking out for. If they are part of the decision-making process, they are likely to approach the task with more commitment and enthusiasm than usual, and they will pay a great deal of attention to the area earmarked for the teacher's correction.

When teachers provide unfocused feedback, they give feedback on any errors they see in student writing.

In order to avoid an overabundance of red ink, many teachers use correction symbols. These also have the advantage of encouraging students to think about what the mistake is, so that they can correct it themselves. Many coursebooks include correction symbols in their writing training too. The use of symbols or a coding system such as WO (word order), Sp (spelling), etc. Correction codes make correcting neater and more organized and might be less intimidating than random comments. They also give the

students some guidance how to correct the mistakes, which is crucial if they're ever going to improve and avoid these mistakes in the future.

It is also important to establish clear, fair and unambiguous marking criteria. They make your marking fairer and much quicker. It is also easy for students to see which areas they did well on, and which they need to still improve. For example, the IELTS criteria are as follows: TA (Task achievement), CC (Cohesion and Coherence), LR (Lexical Resource) and GRA (Grammatical range and accuracy).

Testing and Assessment

Basic principles of language assessment and testing

Language assessment or language testing is a field of study under the umbrella of applied linguistics. Its main focus is the assessment of first, second or other language in the school, college, or university context; the assessment of language use in the workplace; and the assessment of language in the immigration, citizenship, and asylum contexts. The assessment may include listening, speaking, reading, writing, an integration of two or more of these skills, or other constructs of language ability. Equal weight may be placed on knowledge (understanding how the language works theoretically) and proficiency (ability to use the language practically), or greater weight may be given to one aspect or the other.

The earliest works in language assessment in the United States date back to the 1950s to the pioneering studies and test created by Robert Lado and David Harris. The earliest large scale assessments in the United States were referred to as the Michigan Tests, developed by the English Language Institute at the University of Michigan, now known as CaMLA, and the *Test of English as a Foreign Language* (TOEFL) developed by Educational Testing Service (ETS), Princeton, New Jersey.

The English Language Institute at the University of Michigan (CaMLA) was established in 1941 and was the first of its kind in the United States. Charles Fries, Director of ELI, and Robert Lado, Director of Testing at ELI, were determined to put foreign language teaching and testing on a «scientific» footing. The first test launched in 1946 was the *Lado Test of Aural Comprehension*. Approximately 10 years later, a full suite of tests had been assembled: «an English language test battery», which was administered to incoming foreign students at Michigan and other universities. Today this is known at the Michigan English Language Assessment Battery (MELAB). In 1953, the ELI also developed the ECPE (Examination for the Certificate of Proficiency in English) exam, under contract to the United States Information Agency, for use abroad.

TOEFL was launched in 1961 and was designed to assess the English language ability of students applying for admission to U.S. and Canadian colleges and universities. This test, which is used widely around the world, is still in use although it is now only available in the internet-based format (now called the TOEFL Ibt).

Many tests from other companies, universities and agencies compete for this market: Itep (International Test of English Proficiency), the Canadian English Language Proficiency Index Program (CELPIP) Test, the Pearson Language Test's *Pearson Test of English* (PTE), CaMLA assessments including the *Michigan English Language Assessment Battery* (MELAB) and Cambridge English Language Assessment, the British Council and the Australian IDP's *International English Language Testing System* (IELTS). In the United States, non-profit and other organizations such as the Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D.C. and Language Testing International, White Plains, NY have developed language tests that are used by many public and private agencies. Many universities too, like the University of California, Los Angeles, Teachers College, Columbia University, and the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, have developed English (and other) language tests to assess the abilities of their students and teaching assistants. These language assessments are generally known as proficiency or achievement assessments. Other modern English language tests developed include *The General English Proficiency Test (GEPT)* in Taiwan, the *College English Test* in China, and the *STEP Eiken* in Japan. New technology has also made a presence in the field: Versant's English and Dutch assessments use phone technology to record the speaking and automated scoring of their speaking tests, and the ETS is currently experimenting with automated scoring of their writing tests.

Validity and reliability as the most important components of language assessment.

The term validity has varied meanings depending on the context in which it is being used. Validity generally refers to how accurately a conclusion, measurement, or concept corresponds to what is being tested.

Validity is defined as the extent to which an assessment accurately measures what it is intended to measure. Let me explain this concept through a real-world example. If you weigh yourself on a scale, the scale should give you an accurate measurement of your weight. If the scale tells you you weigh 150 pounds and you actually weigh 135 pounds, then the scale is not valid.

The same can be said for assessments used in the classroom. If an assessment intends to measure achievement and ability in a particular subject area but then measures concepts that are completely unrelated, the assessment is not valid.

Validity and reliability of assessment methods are considered the two most important characteristics of a well-designed assessment procedure.

Validity refers to the degree to which a method assesses what it claims or intends to assess. The different types of validity include:

Validity	Definition
Content	the assessment method matches the content of the work
Criterion	relates to whether the assessment method is explicit in terms of procedures correlating with particular behaviours
Construct	relates to whether scores reflect the items being tested.

Reliability refers to the extent to which an assessment method or instrument measures consistently the performance of the student. Assessments are usually expected to produce comparable outcomes, with consistent standards over time and between different learners and examiners.

However, the following factors impede both the validity and reliability of assessment practices in workplace settings:

- inconsistent nature of people
- reliance on assessors to make judgements without bias
- changing contexts/conditions
- evidence of achievement arising spontaneously or incidentally.

  Explicit performance criteria enhance both the validity and reliability of the assessment process. Clear, usable assessment criteria contribute to the openness and accountability of the whole process. The context, tasks and behaviours desired are specified so that assessment can be repeated and used for different individuals. Explicit criteria also counter criticisms of subjectivity.

The notions of test \ evaluation \ assessment

A test is one form of assessment and refers to procedures used to measure a learners' learning at a specific point in time and often involves collecting information in numerical form. Common forms of tests are multiple choice questions and gap-fill or cloze tests. In English classes, teachers also need to assess their students' learning to determine the effectiveness of their teaching and of the materials they use. Assessment refers to any of the procedures teachers use to do this, which may include interviews, observations, administering questionnaires and reviewing students' work. Assessment covers a broader range of procedures than testing and includes both formal and informal measures.

Evaluation focuses **on grades** and might reflect classroom components other than course content and mastery level. An evaluation can be used as a final review to gauge the quality of instruction. It's product-oriented. This means that the main question is: "What's been learned?" In short, evaluation is judgmental.

Assessment is the systematic process of **documenting and using empirical data** to measure knowledge, skills, attitudes and beliefs. By taking the assessment, teachers try to improve the student's path towards learning. Educational assessment is the

systematic process of documenting and using empirical data on the knowledge, skill, attitudes, and beliefs to refine programs and improve student learning. Assessment data can be obtained from directly examining student work to assess the achievement of learning outcomes or can be based on data from which one can make inferences about learning. Assessment is often used interchangeably with test, but not limited to tests. Assessment can focus on the individual learner, the learning community (class, workshop, or other organized group of learners), a course, an academic program, the institution, or the educational system as a whole (also known as granularity). The word 'assessment' came into use in an educational context after the Second World War. As a continuous process, assessment establishes measurable and clear student learning outcomes for learning, provisioning a sufficient amount of learning opportunities to achieve these outcomes, implementing a systematic way of gathering, analyzing and interpreting evidence to determine how well student learning matches expectations, and using the collected information to inform improvement in student learning.

The final purpose of assessment practices in education depends on the *theoretical framework* of the practitioners and researchers, their assumptions and beliefs about the nature of human mind, the origin of knowledge, and the process of learning.

Types of assessment

Formative assessment

Formative assessment is an integral part of teaching and learning. It does not contribute to the final mark given for the module; instead it contributes to learning through providing feedback. It should indicate what is good about a piece of work and why this is good; it should also indicate what is not so good and how the work could be improved. Effective formative feedback will affect what the student and the teacher does next.

Summative assessment

Summative assessment demonstrates the extent of a learner's success in meeting the assessment criteria used to gauge the intended learning outcomes of a module or programme, and which contributes to the final mark given for the module. It is normally, though not always, used at the end of a unit of teaching. Summative assessment is used to quantify achievement, to reward achievement, to provide data for selection (to the next stage in education or to employment). For all these reasons the validity and reliability of summative assessment are of the greatest importance. Summative assessment can provide information that has formative/diagnostic value.

Peer assessment is the **assessment** of students' work by other students of equal status. Students often undertake **peer assessment** in conjunction with formal self-**assessment**. They reflect on their own efforts, and extend and enrich this reflection by exchanging feedback on their own and their **peers**' work.

Confirmative assessment

When your instruction has been implemented in your classroom, it's still necessary to take assessment. Your goal with confirmative assessments is to find out if the instruction is still a success after a year, for example, and if the way you're teaching is still on point. You could say that a confirmative assessment is an extensive form of a summative assessment.

Norm-referenced assessment

This compares a student's performance against an average norm. This could be the average national norm for the subject English language, for example. Other example is when the teacher compares the average grade of his or her students against the average grade of the entire school.

Criterion-referenced assessment

It measures student's performances against a fixed set of predetermined criteria or learning standards. It checks what students are expected to know and be able to do at a specific stage of their education. Criterion-referenced tests are used to evaluate a specific body of knowledge or skill set, it's a test to evaluate the curriculum taught in a course.

Ipsative assessment

It measures the performance of a student against previous performances from that student. With this method you're trying to improve yourself by comparing previous results. You're not comparing yourself against other students, which may be not so good for your self-confidence.

SPECIALIZED DIMENSIONS

Action Research

Action Research: Steps, Qualitative and Quantitative Data Sources

Action research refers to teacher-conducted classroom research that seeks to clarify and resolve practical teaching issues and problems. The term "action research" refers to two dimensions of this kind of activity: the word *research* in "action research" refers to a systematic approach to carrying out investigations and collecting information that is designed to illuminate an issue or problem and to improve classroom practice. The word *action* refers to taking practical action to resolve classroom problems.

Action research takes place in the teacher's own classroom and involves a cycle of activities centering on identifying a problem or issue, collecting information about the issue, devising a strategy to address the issue, trying out the strategy, and observing its effects. The nature of *action research*, however, with its cycle of observing,

analyzing, acting, and reviewing, indicates that it is an activity that takes time to carry out and hence requires a considerable time commitment. For this reason, it is often more usefully viewed as a collaborative activity.

Action research has the following *characteristics*:

Its primary goal is to improve teaching and learning in schools and classrooms and it is conducted during the process of regular classroom teaching.

It is usually small-scale and it is intended to help resolve problems rather than simply be research for its own sake.

It can be carried out by an individual teacher or in collaboration with other teachers.

The methods of action research are designed to answer the most basic question of education: How well are my students learning what I am teaching? Reflection on student learning is what all good teachers do naturally, and it is a skill that can be developed by doing action research.

Action researchers believe that the real solutions for meeting the challenges of educating today's students lie in the expertise of teachers and how they effectively use the information or "data" that is generated by their students in their classrooms each and every day.

Action research *is simply an organized, proven, and reliable process for ensuring that a teacher uses the data in his/her classroom to evolve into the high quality educator that his/her students need and deserve.*

Procedures used for conducting action research

Getting started with *Action research* teachers often use the action research process under many different circumstances and in slightly different ways. That is one of the advantages of the action research model; the process is inherently flexible in order to address the variety of issues that might arise in the teaching and learning environment. However, the fundamentals of the process are the same.

The Five Step Action Research Process:
• Step 1: Issue Identification
• Step 2: Data Collection
• Step 3: Action Planning
• Step 4: Plan Activation
• Step 5: Outcome Assessment

Action researchers are often engaged in a series of "steps"; however, the approach is one that does not always need to proceed in a straight line. The teachers engaged in the process will often find themselves looping back to a previous stage before moving forward to the next.

• Exploring (finding an issue to investigate)
• Identifying (analyzing the issue in more detail to understand it more fully)
• Planning (deciding what kind of data to collect about the issue and how to collect it)
• Collecting data (collecting data about the issue)
• Analyzing / reflecting (analyzing the data)
• Hypothesizing / speculating (arriving at an understanding based on the data)

- Intervening (changing classroom practice based on the hypothesis one arrived at)
- Observing (observing what happened as a result of the changes)
- Reporting (describing what one observed)
- Writing (writing up the results)
- Presenting (presenting the findings to other teachers)

Select an Issue

Action research begins with a concern a teacher has about his or her classes or with an issue the teacher would like to explore and learn more about. In developing topics for action research, we emphasize the importance of choosing issues that are likely to lead to practical follow-up. The focus of an action research project is an essential factor in determining its successful completion. Once an issue or question has been identified, it needs to be made more specific in order for it to become part of an action research project. This involves turning it into a more specific question. Such a question will usually focus on some aspect of teaching, learner behavior, or the use of materials.

For example, several issues chosen for investigation could be turned into the following more specific questions:

Some of the students in my speaking class never seem to take part in speaking activities.
More specific question:
What kinds of speaking activities involve all of the class in speaking?

No matter how many times I correct certain errors in my students' writing, they seem to continue making them.
More specific question:
What change in error correction strategies might improve the accuracy of students' writing?

I'd like to change the way I do group work. It doesn't seem to be very effective in my classes.
More specific question:
What procedures for using group work will work well with my learners?

I'd like to know more about how I correct students' oral errors and whether my correction strategies are effective or not.
More specific question:
What error correction strategies do I use in my oral classes and how effective are they?

I'd like to try out some collaborative learning techniques with my students.
More specific question:
How effective are collaborative learning activities with my students?

Collect Information about the Issue

In order to further explore some aspect of teaching, it is first necessary to collect information on what the current characteristics of one's teaching are or what is happening in the classroom in relation to the issue in question. For example, in relation to the specific questions mentioned above, the following information could be collected:

1. What kinds of speaking activities involve all of the class in speaking?

In order to investigate this question, it will be necessary to determine what speaking activities the teacher currently uses and the types of interaction and language use they generate. Lessons could be audiotaped or videotaped to provide this information.

2. What change in error correction strategies might improve the accuracy of students' writing?

This question requires collecting information on the types of error correction strategies the teacher currently uses and their effects on learners' performance. Alternative strategies can be tried and monitored for their effects.

3. What procedures for using group work will work well with the learners?

Here it will be necessary to find out how the teacher currently uses group work and what problems group work currently poses. By systematically varying characteristics of group work, such as preparation activities, group size, and group membership, more effective group-work strategies can be determined.

4. What error correction strategies do I use in my oral classes and how effective are they?

Again, this question requires collecting information on the types of error correction strategies the teacher currently uses through audiotaping or videotaping lessons, trying alternative strategies, and monitoring their effectiveness.

5. How effective are collaborative learning activities with the students?

This could start with a description of the type of teaching the teacher currently does and the type of classroom interaction that typically characterizes his/her lessons. Lessons could then be taught using collaborative learning procedures and the two approaches to teaching compared.

There are two points at which data will normally need to be collected: before carrying out the action research, and after the research strategy has been implemented. Data collected before the action research enables one to examine the issue or problem in depth in order to arrive at a way of addressing the problem. Data collected after the intervention will enable the teacher to decide if the action taken solved the problem.

There are many different ways of collecting data on classroom events.

Observational approaches to collecting classroom data:

- *Notes*. Descriptions and accounts of observed events, including nonverbal information, physical settings, group structures, interaction between participants.
- *Diaries/journals*. Regular dated accounts of teaching/learning plans, activities, and events, including personal philosophies, feelings, reactions, reflections, explanations.
- *Recordings*. Audio or video recordings providing objective records of classroom interactions.

- *Transcripts*. Written representations of recordings, using conventions for identifying speakers and indicating pauses, hesitations, overlaps, and nonverbal information.
- *Diagrams*. Maps or drawings of the classroom indicating physical layout and/or student-teacher interactions or locations.

Non-observational methods of collecting information:
- *Interviews and discussions*. Face-to-face personal interactions that generate data about the research issue and allow specific issues to be discussed from other people's perspectives.
- *Questionnaires and surveys*. Written sets of questions used to gain responses to non-face-to-face situations (usually focused on specific issues and may invite either factual or attitudinal responses).
- *Life/career histories*. Profiles of students' previous life and learning experiences told from the perspective of the individuals concerned and which may be compiled over a period of time.
- *Documents*. Collections of various documents relevant to the research questions, which can include students' written work, student records and profiles, course overviews, lesson plans, and classroom materials.

Action Planning

The teachers should consider the following components as they move forward with their action planning:
- Where was the research conducted?
- What setting and characteristics can be shared regarding the school and students? This should include: the grade level or age ranges, the socioeconomic status, ethnic composition reported as the percentage of each group represented, gender composition reported as the number of boys and girls, and location reported as urban, rural, or suburban. Most of this information can be located with online school databases
- What was the reasoning that ultimately led the student to select this particular question?
- Why is it important?
- How will the results impact student's teaching?
- How may this study help provide insight into the teaching practices of others?

Collecting Data

Understanding the data of the research comes through systematic cyclical reflection in action across the entire timeline of the present action research.

Data can be looked at in three very basic stages:

(1) before the project begins,

(2) as the project unfolds, and

(3) after the student has finished collecting data.

A distinction is commonly made between types of data, that is, qualitative and quantitative. Distinguishing data between these categories is a useful way of beginning to organize thinking about data sources one might use.

At the most basic level, **qualitative data sources** are those that are not easily captured with numbers. Most often, qualitative data sources are captured through

narrative description of what students and teachers do and say. Images (videos, photographs, and artwork), physical objects, and audio recordings are also potential qualitative data sources. These data sources often provide rich descriptive and contextual information about the people, actions, and interactions that occur in classrooms.

Student Work Samples, Student Documents

Student work is one of the richest sources of qualitative data. Any assignment or activity that involves a student creating a document becomes a potential data source. The term *document* is used here in a very general sense; a *document* is any work product.

Teacher-as-Researcher Journal, Teacher Documents

Teacher education program emphasizes the importance of reflection in teaching. Reflection is therefore another critically meaningful potential qualitative data source.

Teacher-as-researcher journal should include reflections on teacher's progress in developing an action research project so far. There are lots of other documents created by or for teachers that are potentially meaningful qualitative data sources. Some of the obvious ones include lesson plans, grading rubrics, textbooks, Web sites, and other educational materials.

Interviews and Focus Group

Teachers talk to students, students talk to teachers. When done one-on-one and face-to-face, this is called an interview. Asking questions of groups of students where everyone is expected to answer each question is called a focus group.

Open-Ended Surveys

The same questions might be asked in an interview or focus group could be put on paper to form open-ended survey questions. Keep in mind that these are not simple yes or no or multiple-choice questions; they refer to quantitative data sources. Instead, these are questions that require students to write extended answers and to focus on explaining what they know and how they know it, or to focus on describing their feelings, attitudes, opinions, and so forth. These questions are especially useful when a teacher doesn't really know what kinds of answers will get and so wants in-depth individualized explanations from the students.

Quantitative Data Sources

Quantitative data sources are more easily captured with numbers. Though, there is an overlap between qualitative and quantitative data sources. Several of the data sources already discussed have quantitative elements to them.

In reality, almost all data sources can provide both quantitative and qualitative information. When a teacher focuses on numerical information (such as number of items correct, how many students fall into different categories, or how many times certain students engage in certain behaviors), then he/she is capturing quantitative data. The most commonly used sources in action research studies.

Teacher-Made Tests and Grading Rubrics

These sources can be referred to qualitative data. However, much of the information typically taken from tests, quizzes, and rubric scores is numerical and, therefore, quantitative.

When a teacher focuses on a numerical summarization of student learning, it becomes relatively easy to compare scores across students and across time. Capturing this data involves using a scoring system to grade students' work and then reflecting on what students' scores tell the teacher about teaching and impact on his/her students' learning.

Standardized Tests and School Records

There are a wide variety of assessments, records, and other documents that can provide numerical information to a teacher. With the current push for accountability and standardized testing, there is almost no classroom where a teacher would not have standardized test scores to interpret for each of the students, for subgroups of students, and for the class as a whole. Similarly, other school records such as enrollment, attendance can provide important contextual information. All of these can be thought of as documents in the sense that that word is used. As such, they are potential sources of both qualitative and quantitative data.

Observational Checklists and Tally Sheets

One of the ways to make capturing observational data more effective is to focus on quantitative elements of what occurs. Rather than trying to capture what is going on with narrative description, the teacher focuses instead on how many times or how often certain behaviors or events occur. (For instance, if a teacher has students working in groups and a set of target group behaviors (all members participate, group stays on task, etc.), then it's possible to put a check mark for each group next to the target behaviors they display).

Forced-Choice Surveys

If a teacher knows that there are really only a limited number of categories that students' answers will fall into, then he/she can create closed-ended or forced-choice survey items.

The aim of these types of questions is to find out how many students fall into each of a set of predetermined categories. These kinds of surveys are sometimes called Likert-type and are most often used for attitude or opinion polling.

Using a Mixed Methods Approach

Mixed methods is a term used for research that draws on the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative approaches to doing research in order to minimize the weaknesses and capitalize on the strengths of each single approach. In some ways, more sources of data are better, but a teacher should be careful not to take that kind of thinking too far because it is needed to be able to capture and reflect on the data without interfering with the teaching.

Qualitative Sources	Quantitative Sources
Student Work Samples, Student Documents	Teacher-made Tests and Grading Rubrics
Teacher-as-Researcher Journal, Teacher Documents	Standardized Tests and School Records
Observation, Field Notes, and Other Records	Observational Checklists and Tally Sheets

Interviews and Focus Groups	Forced Choice Surveys
Open-ended surveys	

Understanding Data after You've Finished Collecting it

When a teacher reaches this stage, he/she will have completed the data collection and have more time to devote to processing, reflecting on, and understanding the data. Types of data can be characterized along two dimensions. The table provides examples of data types that fall into the categories defined by these two dimensions. The first of these, qualitative (narrative and non-narrative); the second, developmental versus one-time or "snapshot" data.

Data Examples Differing Along Two Dimensions

	One-time Snapshot	Developmental
Qualitative, Narrative	Field notes from an observation of the teacher's host teacher before beginning student teaching	Daily student journal entries about how much they did or did not like that day's activities
Qualitative, Non-narrative	Photographs of school building, computer lab, and playground	Clay sculptures made by students before and after teaching a unit
Quantitative	Student performance on state mandated standardized tests	Teacher-made quizzes given at the end of each week

Share the Findings with Others

Part of the philosophy of action research is sharing of the results with other colleagues. This both leads to a better understanding of the findings and helps build a community of practitioners aligned towards teacher research and a professional climate that is open to public scrutiny and constructive critique. The results of an action research project can be started in a number of ways:

- an oral or written presentation to colleagues
- writing an article for a teacher's magazine
- communicating with an Internet forum or discussion group
- giving a workshop
- creating and displaying a poster about the action research
- preparing a video presentation about the action research

Action research can be powerful way for language teachers to investigate their own practice. It is usually undertaken with the idea of improving a teacher's classroom practice. This type of research requires that the teacher investigate an issue that he or

she has been puzzled by for a period of time by engaging in a process of planning, action, observation, and reflection.

As a result of insight gained from undertaking an action research project, language teachers not only learn a lot about their own teaching but can also become more expert at investigating their own practice. Teachers can also share their results with other teachers by going to conferences or publishing their work in language teaching journals. In this way, other teachers may be encouraged to explore their own teaching by replicating these action research projects or by carrying out new action research studies on topics and issues they consider important or even unique to their particular contexts.

Teaching Young Learners

The concept of young learners has been considerably changed recently. In the past, the term "Young Learners" referred to students between five and twelve years of age. Today, young learners start from the pre-school (three years) to Elementary school (12 years). Different age grouping is a crucial thing to determine the teaching method, to emphasize the language competence and address the cognitive skills. Although there are various points of view about the best time to begin English language instructions, the fact is that in most countries children are learning English at younger and younger ages. J. Hammer [Hammer, 2007] classified three learner groups taking into consideration that every learner is unique and such lists can only reflect generalizations :

Young Learners	Adolescents	Adult
They respond although they do not understand. They learn from everything around them: they learn indirectly rather than directly. They understand mostly when they see, hear, touch and interact rather than from explanations. Abstract concepts are difficult to deal with. They generally display a curiosity about the world and an enthusiasm for learning a languageThey like talking about	Despite their success in language learning, they are seen like problematic students. -They commit passionately when they are engaged Most of them start to understand the need for learning. Attention span is longer as a result of intellectual development. They can talk about abstract issues to a certainpoint.	-They can engage with abstract thought They have a whole range of (positive or negative) life and learning experiences. They have expectations about the learning process and they have their own patterns of learning They are more disciplined than the other age groups and know how to struggle on despite boredom Unlike other groups,

| themselves and respond to learning that usestheir lives as the maintopic. They love discovering things, making or drawing things, using their imagination, moving from one place to another, solving puzzles. They have a short attention span; they can easily get bored after 5-10 minutes. Teachers should havea rich repertoire of activities to help young children receive information from a variety of sources and plan a range of activities for a given time period. Teachers should work with students individuallyor in groups Teachers need to be aware of the students' interests to motivate them. The classroom shouldbe colorful and bright with enough room for different activities. | They can use many different waysof studying and practicing language. They search for identity and self-esteem; thus theyneed to feel good about themselvesand valued. They need teacherand peer approval and are sensitive to criticism of their ownage group. Teachers shouldlink teaching to their everyday interestsand experiences. | they know why they are learning and what they want to have at the end. They sustain a level of motivation even fora distant goal, which is difficult for the other groups. They can be critical of teaching methodsor they may feel uncomfortable with unfamiliar methods. Older ones worry that their intellectual powers diminish by age. They have a longer concentration span to continue an activity than the othergroups. Teachers should consider their (positive or negative) learning experiences. |

A. Pinter [Pinter 2011] divides young learners into three groups. The first is children who start pre-school at about the age of three, the second is the group of children who start primary school at around the age of 6 and finish primary school 11 or 12, although in some countries it happens at around the age of 13 or 14. The following division has been suggested in order to correspondingly identify the characteristic of young learners and to maximize learning process, it reflects the EFL teaching environment and the learners of English in the primary education in Ukraine.

Very Young	**Young Learners**	**Older/ Late Young**

Learnes		Learners
Age: 3-5 years old	**Age**: 6-9 years old	**Age**: 10-12 years old
Grade: Pre-school Education	**Grade**: 1st – 4rdgrade	**Grade**: 5th- 7th grade
Language Focus/ Skills Used: Listening & Speaking Vocabulary Items (concrete & familiar objects) No Grammar Teachingor metalanguage (can't analyze language but may be exposed to chunks through songs, classroom language) No reading & writing (may recognize lettersor short words)	**Language Focus/ Skills Used**: Listening & Speaking Vocabulary Items (concrete & familiarand new objects) New in Reading andWriting (word tosentence level) No Grammar Teaching or metalanguage (chunks through songs and classroom language)	**Language Focus/ SkillsUsed**: Listening/Speaking/Reading/Writing Vocabulary Items(concrete & abstract) Grammar (inductive)
Characteristics: *Low concentrationspan but easily excited *High motivation ;active involvement *Love talking butproblems in sharing *Short memory: Learn slowly Forget easily *Repetition andrevision is necessary *Limited motor skills (using a pen and scissors) bu	**Characteristics**: *Low concentration span: Wide variety of activities needed *Short memory: frequent revision is needed *Logical-analytical: Asking questions *Problems in sharingin group work * Developingconfidence in expressing themselves * Developing worldknowledge *Limited motor skills (left-right)	**Characteristics**: *Longer attention span but still children *Taking learningseriously *World knowledge *More cooperation ingroups and in pairs *Developed social, motorand intellectual skills *Learning strategies areused and developing.

t kinesthetic an denergetic *Learn holistically *Love stories, fantasy, imagination,art,drawing and coloring	*Reasonable amount of input *Love stories, fantasy, imagination, drawing & coloring	

English for young learners at the primary level is cognitively primed to acquire language skills in ways that lend themselves to an integrated skills and content -based, experiential approach. The teacher who understands the cognitive and social processes of second- language acquisition of English for Young Learners (EYL) is better equipped to help learners navigate the processes of classroom learning activities while also creating a fun, positive and encouraging environment. In many cases, Teaching English for Young Learners (TEYL) teachers in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) settings have a limited amount of time to accomplish their teaching goals and meet local requirements regarding the use of specific texts, tests, or other materials. A low-resource environment can also pose challenges.

The field of teaching young learners particularly in teaching English, has expanded enormously in the last recent years. We need therefore to draw on work from beyond language classrooms: in child development, in learning theory, in first language development, and in development of a second language in bilingual context [Cameron, 2002]. Highlighting key ideas from the works of fundamental theorists in developmental psychology can enhance our understanding of a child as a language learner.

According to Bruner, important outcomes of learning include not just the concepts, categories, and problem-solving procedures invented previously by the culture, but also the ability to invent these things for oneself. Cognitive growth involves an interaction between basic human capabilities and culturally invented technologies that serve as amplifiers of these capabilities. These culturally invented technologies include not just obvious things such as computers and television, but also more abstract notions such as the way a culture categorizes phenomena, and language itself. The aim of education should be to create autonomous learners (i.e., learning to learn). In his research on the cognitive development of children, Jerome Bruner proposed three modes of representation. These are the ways in which information or knowledge is stored and encoded in memory. Rather than neat age related stages, the modes of representation are integrated and only loosely sequential as they translate into each other.

J.Bruner's constructivist theory suggests, it is effective when faced with new material to follow a progression from enactive to symbolic representation; this holds true even for adult learners. J.Bruner's work also suggests that a learner even of a very young age is capable of learning any material so long as the instruction is organized appropriately. Language is important for the increased ability to deal with abstract concepts. J.Bruner argues that language can code stimuli and free an individual from the constraints of dealing only with appearances, to provide a more complex yet flexible cognition. The use of words can aid the development of the concepts they represent and can remove the constraints of the here and now concept. For J.Bruner, the purpose of education is not to impart knowledge, but instead to facilitate a child's thinking and problem solving skills which can then be transferred to a range of situations. Bruner believes a child (of any age) is capable of understanding complex information: "We begin with the hypothesis that any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development" [Bruner, 1966]. J.Bruner believed that the most effective way to develop a coding system is to discover it rather than being told it by the teacher. The concept of discovery learning implies that students construct their own knowledge for themselves (also known as a constructivist approach). The role of the teacher should not be to teach information by rote learning, but instead to facilitate the learning process. This means that a good teacher will design lessons that help student discover the relationship between bits of information.

J.Bruner emphasizes a child's environment, especially the social environment. J.Bruner accentuates the social nature of learning, citing that other people should help a child develop skills through the process of scaffolding. The concept of scaffolding involves helpful, structured interaction between an adult and a child with the aim of helping the child achieve a specific goal. Scaffolding refers to the steps taken to reduce the degrees of freedom in carrying out some task so that the child can concentrate on the difficult skill she is in the process of acquiring' [Bruner, 1973].

J.Bruner states that what determines the level of intellectual development is the extent to which the child has been given appropriate instruction together with practice or experience. So - the right way of presentation and the right explanation will enable a child to grasp a concept usually only understood by an adult. Although J.Bruner proposes stages of cognitive development, he doesn't see them as representing different separate modes of thought at different points of development. Instead, he sees a gradual development of cognitive skills and techniques into more integrated adult cognitive techniques. J.Bruner views symbolic representation as crucial for cognitive development and since language is our primary means of symbolizing the world, he attaches great importance to language in determining cognitive development.

Language Learning Environment

Although children may use similar processes for acquiring L1 and L2, the environment for L1 and L2 acquisition can be quite different

L1 environment	L2 environment
- language highly contextualized - in the real world the languageused is authentic - learner highly motivated	- language more decontextualized - in the classroom the language used tends to be artificial - learners may not be highly motivated

Therefore, it is important to remember that an early start alone will not necessarily improve children's ability to learn English. It is also very important that L2 instruction include language structures that are presented within a context that is meaningful and communicative.

Teaching English to Young Learners (TEYL) is a rapidly growing field around the world, and English education is increasingly found at the primary levels. However, starting earlier is not necessarily the solution for producing better English speakers. Therefore, what can EFL teachers of young learners do to take advantage of the flexibility of young minds and the malleability of young tongues to grow better speakers of English? Joan Kang Shin identifies ten helpful ideas for Teaching English to Young Learners [Shin, 2012].

|	
1. Supplement activities with visuals, realia, and movement.	
Young learners tend to have short attention spans and a lot of physical energy. In addition, children are very much linked to their surroundings and are more interested in the physical and the tangible. As Scott and Ytreberg (1990) describe, "Their own understanding comes through hands and eyes and ears. The physical world is dominant at all times."	• Use brightly colored visuals, toys, puppets or objects • Community donations for toys and objects • Create a "Visuals and Realia Bank" • Use Total Physical Response (TPR) by James Asher (1977) • Use TPR Storytelling by Blaine Ray http://www.blainer aytprs.com/
2. Involve students in making visuals and realia.	
Having children involved in creating the visuals that are related to the lesson helps engage students in the learning process by introducing them to the context as well as to relevant vocabulary items. Students are more likely to feel interested and invested in the lesson and will probably take better care of the materials (Moon 2000).	• Students draw different characters for a story or make puppets, masks, play-do sculptures • Collaborate with the art teacher to make the visuals you need for you activities • Students contribute their own toys for the lesson ("Show and tell")
3. Move from activity to activity.	
Young learners have short attention spans. For ages 5–7, Keep activities around 5 and 10 minutes long. For ages 8–10, keep activities 10 to 15 minutes long. Scott and Ytreberg (1990) suggest creating a balance between the activities in the column on the right side.	• Quiet/noisy exercises • Different skills: listening/talking/ reading/writing • Individual/ pairwork/ groupwork/ whole class activities • Teacher-pupil/ pupil-pupil activities
4. Teach in themes.	
A thematic unit, a series of lessons on the same topic or subject, can create broader contexts in which to teach language, recycle language from lesson to lesson, and allow students to focus more on content and communication than on language structure.	• Common themes for YLs: animals, friends, family, environment, citizenship, shopping, or units revolving around a storybooks, websites,

	- celebrities, or movies students like - Themes based on curricula from students' other subjects are also effective (Haas 2000)
5. Use stories and contexts familiar to students.	
Use of stories and contexts in home country or culture can help YLs connect English with their background knowledge, which is limited because of their young age and inexperience.	- Take a favorite story in the L1 and translate it into English - Allow students a chance to personalize content every lesson
6. Establish classroom routines in English.	
YLs function well within a structured environment and enjoy repetition of certain routines and activities. Having basic routines in the classroom can help to manage young learners.	- Clap short rhythms for students to repeat. - Start the lesson with song or chant - Add classroom language to the routines as well
7. Use L1 as a resource when necessary.	
Use L1 in the classroom as a resource for forwarding the learning process without becoming too reliant on it. Concentrate on building communicative skills. Save your time for the target language actually within students' reach.	- Quickly make a difficult expression comprehensible by translating into L1 - Use L1 for complicated directions for activities
8. **Bring in helpers from the community** 9. **Collaborate with other teachers in your school.** 10. **Communicate with other TEYL professionals.**	

TEFL Community Triangle

English Speaking Community
(parents who speak English well, student EFL teachers from the university, high school students, etc.)
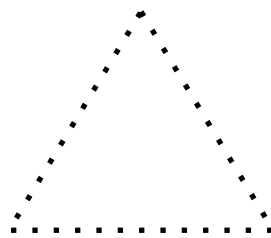
Fellow school teachers
(subject/content or grade-teachers and other
TEFL teachers at your school)

Fellow TEYL Professionals
(professional organizations, level in-service programs, or
special teacher education courses, etc.)

Teaching Learning Styles

The teachers' teaching style depends on the age grouping and includes the ability to keep the learners' motivation high or generate energy to learn in class, 2) handle the problem of giving rewards and punishment, 3) establish rapport and 4) use certain teaching technique. While the physical environment of the classroom involves the seating arrangement, classroom walls and board. The use of the native language of the learners deals with the consideration on when to appropriately use and not to use it.

Preschool

Learning Style in Preschool Period

A high quality preschool program requires dedicated and qualified teaching staff, working in partnership with children's families, to systematically assist children in developing social competence and confidence. Effective preschool teachers

- provide materials and activities to further learning at the child's developmental level and to foster feelings of competence;
- make adaptations to the classroom environment to support individual children's needs (e.g., sensory table, quiet spaces, appropriately-sized furnishings, and visuals at eye level).
- use children's ideas and interests to inspire activities and to engage students in discussions (e.g., tire tracks made by bicycle wheels on the playground can lead to an exploration and discussion of the different kinds of tracks made by an assortment of wheeled vehicles).

Effective preschool teachers:
- create cozy, comfortable reading areas with a variety of age- appropriate printed materials (e.g., at least 15- 20 books in a display case, changed every two weeks, along with magazines, catalogs, newspapers).
- read aloud to each child individually and in small and large groups two or more times a day in different settings using age-appropriate high-quality books and texts (e.g., picture storybooks including the Caldecott medal books, picture information books, traditional literature including folktales, fantasy, poetry and rhyming books, big books, books that are predictable and repetitive, culturally diverse books and an assortment of alphabet books and number books).
- organize routines of the day with children to ensure that children are aware of their opportunities for read aloud with the teacher in whole, small group or one-on-one as well as times of the day that they can use the classroom library and self-select books for their reading enjoyment- prepare children for listening to a new book during read aloud by building on background knowledge (e.g., make appropriate connections to children's work and interests, predict topic by looking at front cover illustration, look at a few illustrations throughout the book to build anticipation, identify title, author, and illustrator and the roles of each).
- read aloud the entire book with few interruptions and use motivating expression appropriate to story line.

- model teacher writing in a variety of genres throughout the day and encourage children's writing (e.g., guide children to write their names on their work, share writing lists, messages, charts, forms, signage, labels, invitations, letters, and model pretend roles in dramatic play activities that include writing such as a doctor in the doctor's office charting patient health information, etc.).

- provide shared writing opportunities (e.g., the children volunteer the ideas and letters or words and the teacher elaborates on the ideas and writes the words). Display interactive examples of writing (including pictures) at children's eye level for intentional follow-up activities.

- take dictation for a child by writing exactly what the child says and making sure the child can see what you are writing. Read the dictation back to the child tracking their words with a finger.

- encourage individual and small groups of children's writing at the writing center and other centers independently or with teacher support (e.g., provide exciting writing and book making materials, provide examples at the writing center of printed letters, words, names, and phrases that children frequently use in their writing)

- encourage writing notes to a family member, model or share writing signs for the block and manipulative centers, model and support recording and making observations at the science center, model and encourage writing numbers at the math center and during other activities).

- model the process of classroom bookmaking by using different sizes and shapes of paper, varied and interesting colors, etc. Ensure exciting bookmaking materials are readily available at the writing and art centers. Make classroom book topics simple and predictable. Frequently share classroom books and display in library and throughout the room. Have children share or buddy- read with a partner and take a copy home to share or read with families.

Language

Effective preschool teachers:

- respond to children using their words (reflect back) with the correct plural forms, tenses, prepositions and in complete sentences. Also, add new and rich vocabulary to the response when appropriate.

- ensure that children have interesting opportunities to practice language using plural forms, prepositions, complete sentences, and question sentences by using props and toys in engaging individual, small and large-group opportunities (e.g., the use of props to identify positional phrases such as in back of, in front of, under, on).

- provide individual support to each child to write their name on their work throughout the day. Allow children who need it ample time to move through the developmental stages of writing (e.g., teacher dictation, scribble-writing, letter-like forms, a combination of upper and lowercase letters).

- encourage children to use their emergent writing skills independently or with teacher support by providing ongoing and motivating up-to-date materials and activities at the writing center based on individual and group interests including

written models of the alphabet and printed words with pictures that children currently use and request for writing projects.

- support children during the writing process by referring to the letter construction chart and prompting with letter construction and letter sounds when needed.

- build oral language and writing skills through read aloud extension activities in classroom centers (e.g., after reading a collection of Thomas and Friends, brainstorm ideas for props for a train station in the dramatic play area. Share writing a list with children of materials and supplies needed).

Learning styles in first to six grades

Beginning in first grade, students are expected to master reading, spelling and the ability to successfully complete class work and homework assignments becomes high priority. Visual learners in first to six grades are likely to use flashcards, direct copying of notes and vocabularies, write down summaries, and watch videos and simulation. Auditory learners in first to six grades are love to read aloud and are able to follow oral directions with ease, and ask and answering questions Kinesthetic learners in first to six grades are taught with role playing, relate knowledge to movement, followed the instructions to make things.

Creating an environment for Young Language learners

A caring environment in which children feel secure and valued will allow them to express their thoughts, feelings and understanding. The classroom environment should promote language as a tool for learning across the curriculum. Teachers need to provide an environment which promotes active listening and purposeful talking, well designed writing and comprehensive reading.

Establish a welcoming early learning environment

Establish a welcoming environment by: reflecting the linguistic and cultural diversity of all children in such things as classroom posters, pictures, props, tabletop toys, games, storybooks, media resources, musical instruments and foods served in the classroom providing opportunities to share experiences in the classroom, providing learning experiences such as field trips and other community outings.

Encourage children to play

Play is the cornerstone activity for social, cognitive and language development in children from two-and-a-half to five-years-old. Early childhood professionals should promote play as the leading activity for children. The relationship between language development and play is two-way: Language makes it possible for children to adopt roles, and to negotiate the rules and goals of play. Dramatic or pretend play stimulates the development of language. Play fuels development through imagination and symbolic functions. Symbolic functions are the ability to understand that objects, actions, words and people can stand for something else. Symbolic functions are at the core of pretend play and form the foundation for conceptual thinking, literacy and numeracy. For young children learning a new language, play provides a safe space to try out new words. Even if

they do not know the exact word for something, children do not feel embarrassed by using a different name for it since, as in play, everything can become anything a stick can be a horse or a pen.

It is also believed that exposure to English should be first done through exposing students to verbal talks. Learners get many things trough listening. When learners have the opportunity to listen to listening materials, then teachers should expose students to listening to English as much as possible. Therefore, listening skills become very crucial emphasis in the teaching of English to young learners.

It is a wonderful technique to teach, English through stories. Stories can be a supplementary material when teaching English to young learners particularly when the stories can be integrated to the course. Teachers can read it to children from storybooks, memorize the stories then tell it to children, or play it on a tape. There are some activities that teachers can involve when they are telling stores. These activities are designed to engage students in the story telling time and to avoid a teacher-dominated classroom activity.

Total Physical Response (TPR)

TPR is another technique that teachers often used in classroom. In this, teachers give instruction like stand up, sit down, walk slowly, point to the door, point to the windows, and so on and students do as instructed. However, many teachers question the effectiveness of TPR in an English classroom because the idea of TPR is students respond to what is instructed by doing an action without speaking. This tends to give students very little chance to speak in the class. To overcome this problem, some teachers modify the instruction with those instructions which require verbal respond like say hurray, say Good Morning, etc.

Student's motivation

Encourage students to spend time speaking to you. Be mindful of how much time you are speaking versus your student: keep tutor talk time to a minimum and increase student talk time. Focusing on speaking practice also offers an opportunity to build on cultural traditions of oral story telling which many students may be familiar with. Encouraging pride in this tradition can be a useful tool in providing students with the confidence needed for preparing class presentations or other formal speaking activities.

Class Structure

Having a defined structure for each day of class helps manage your young learners. Children respond well to routines and rituals. It helps them know what to expect during each part of the class time you spend together. The creation of a chart to make a plan for the routines to be establish with the students is a useful tool.

Young learners should always be given something to think about. Their brain should be stimulated every day with a fun fact or a riddle to figure out. It is considered essential and effective to connect it with language or content you are teaching. Essentially, planning is an art, not a science, but applying systems and strategies to the process can be very helpful. This allows us to map out in our heads

(and on paper) a learning path for ourselves and the students on our courses that will make the journey both purposeful and entertaining.

A. Pinter [Pinter 2006] determined some factors can affect the achievement of English for Young Learners, the important factors are:

- Effective English for Young Learner (EFY) program models Effective EYL Program Models Although starting a language in early grades has many advantages, we cannot rely on an early start alone to increase the levels of English language proficiency of our students, nor even the selection of an appropriate program model. Whatever the model, effective EYL programs are those that encourage
interaction, provide engaging activities, and build positive attitudes toward English language learning

- Appropriately trained EYL teachers
Appropriately Trained EYL Teachers Educational research continually reminds us that the most important factor in any child's education is the teacher. Effective EYL programs have well-trained teachers with adequate proficiency in English to help their children learn English.

- Culturally appropriate materials
Because English is an international and intercultural language, we should also include materials from many cultures around the world. The children we teach will most likely use English with other EIL speakers, and what they really need is an appreciation of different cultures. We also want to include the students' home culture. This will help students to talk about their own culture in English

- Continuity of curriculum between primary and secondary English. According to L.Cameron [Cameron 2003], secondary school language teachers will likely have to cope with classes of mixed levels of language skills and knowledge and also with the task of maintaining or restoring motivation over long periods of language learning.

Young children learn about the world as they experience it. This means that their learning is holistic and related to particular events in their lives. Thematic and project-based approaches are two effective ways to offer children relevant and hands-on learning experiences. It is considered essential to develop an overall thematic or project-based approach with language functions embedded in it. Themes and functions should be related to children's everyday lives, surroundings and routines. Media and popular culture-based themes are often effective because they are what young children learning a new language have in common with their peers. Access to peer group culture is important so that children can make friends and learn to play together, no matter what their cultural and linguistic background is.

The role of English as a global language and its potential for providing education and employment advantages to English speakers, is the key reason English is being introduced at earlier and earlier ages around the world. While there are many points of view about the age group division, there are obvious potential benefits to an early start, especially if optimal conditions occur within the language classroom. It is essential to draw on work from beyond language

classrooms: in child development, in learning theory, in first language development, and in development of a second language in bilingual context. EYL programs can provide more time to learn the language and can lead to better pronunciation and fluency, enhanced intercultural competence, and mental flexibility.

A successful EYL program includes a number of factors: the choice of the EYL program model, the presence of appropriately trained teachers, the availability of culturally and linguistically appropriate materials, and the continuity of the English curriculum from primary to secondary school.

Appropriately trained EYL teachers know how to develop engaging, motivating, well-structured activities and have adequate English proficiency to help their young learners in learning English.

Materials and curricula need to be culturally and linguistically appropriate. The local and national culture and cultures of other countries, including the cultures of the traditional, Inner Circle countries, all need to be included to help children develop intercultural competence and grow in understanding of their own culture.

The primary and secondary school curricula need to be aligned so that students make a smooth transition in their language learning. Children who have participated in EYL programs will need higher-level English classes in secondary school than those who begin at the secondary school level.

There are a number of additional factors that programs need to consider if they are to be effective. These include scheduling, integrating the English class into the overall school curriculum, and gradually introducing young learner classes, when teachers and materials are available, as well as providing appropriate resources and professional development for current EYL teachers.

Catering for Special Educational Needs

The notion of SEN and the pre-existing biases and prejudices. Medical and social model approaches to SEN.

Special Educational Needs (SEN) is a legal term. It describes the needs of a child who has a difficulty or disability which makes learning harder for them than for other children their age.

SEN covers a broad spectrum of difficulty or disability. Children may have wide ranging or specific problems, e.g. a child might have difficulty with one area of learning, such as letters or numbers. Or they might have problems relating to other children, or to adults.

Special educational needs means, in relation to a person, a restriction in the capacity of the person to participate in and benefit from education on account of an enduring physical, sensory, mental health or learning disability, or any other condition which results in a person learning differently from a person without that condition.

Inclusion is about how we structure our schools, our classrooms and our lessons so that all our students learn and participate together. An inclusive classroom is one that creates a supportive environment for all learners, including those with learning differences, and can also challenge and engage gifted and talented learners by building a more responsive learning environment.

Medical and social models (Descriptions)

Social model

If we use the social model to understand a learner with special educational needs, all of us have a responsibility to understand and include learners with special educational needs. The learner is valued as a person, unique in their own right and not seen as faulty. We identify the individual's strengths and not only their difficulties. We have to all work together to accept and celebrate difference and to remove the barriers to learning. We identify goals with the learner and work together to achieve them. Services are fully integrated within the school and are not completely separate organizations. Resources, such as psychologists, are made available to everyone in the school as part of the ordinary programme. The school and wider society will need to change and evolve as a result of interactions and reflections on the learner's individual needs.

Medical Model

If we use the medical model to understand a learner with special educational needs, we see the learner as someone who has a problem which can be diagnosed, labeled and treated. We act as if the learner is faulty and needs to be put into a medical category. We design and deliver interventions and therapy programmes to help the learner fit into society. We try to 'fix' the learner as much as possible. In this model there are often two separate systems of education. There are segregated special schools for learners with special educational needs and specialist services to treat their difficulties. Professionals, such as educational psychologists, identify the learner's needs. Often the learner is isolated from their peers and taught separately. The learner might receive medication for their condition. In general, the school and wider society does need to change because the problem is within the learner. The leaner needs the change.

Identification of Students with Disabilities

Various terms are used to refer to children with special learning needs.

When the term *exceptional* is used to describe students, it includes children who have difficulty learning and children whose performance is advanced. The performance of exceptional children differs from the norm (either above or below) to such an extent that individualized programs of special education are necessary to meet their diverse needs. Exceptional is an inclusive term that describes not only students with severe disabilities but also those who are gifted and talented.

While the terms impairment, disability, and handicap are often used interchangeably, they are not synonymous.

Impairment refers to the loss or reduced function of a certain body part or organ. A *disability* exists when an impairment limits a child's ability to perform certain tasks (such as walking, speaking, or seeing) in the same way that nondisabled children do. Disability conditions are defined and classified according to body functions and structure, activity domains, and participation in the context of environmental and personal factors. *Handicap* refers to the challenges a person with a disability experiences when interacting with the physical or social environment.

A disability does not constitute a handicap unless the disability leads to educational, personal, social, vocational, or other difficulties for the individual. For example, a child with one arm who functions successfully in and out of school without special support or accommodations is not considered handicapped. Some disabilities pose a handicap in some environments but not in others. The child with one arm may be handicapped when competing with nondisabled classmates on the playground but experience no difficulties in the classroom. Individuals with disabilities also experience handicaps that have nothing to do with their disabilities but instead are the result of the negative attitudes and inappropriate behavior of others who needlessly restrict their access and ability to participate fully in school, work, or community activities.

Differential approach to EFL Teaching. Catering for students' individual psychological and learning needs.

Effective inclusion of students with special needs in the mainstream curriculum is said to depend on adequate differentiation of the curriculum content, teaching approaches, and assessment methods to match individual learning characteristics of the students.

First off, you can try to create the conditions for learning. Vulnerable students need to be included in the classroom. This means they need to be spoken to with a certain amount of respect, nurture and care, and given as much attention as possible. Of course, if a student is actually endangering themselves and others, then they should be removed from the environment, but keep in mind that nearly all behaviours can be preempted and thwarted in advance.

Differentiation is changing the pace, level, or kind of instruction you provide in response to individual learners' needs, styles or interests. It is a teaching philosophy based on the premise that teachers should adapt instruction to student differences. Differentiation is attending to the needs of a particular student or a group of students, rather than teaching the class as though all individuals in it were basically alike.

In discussing differentiation some educationalists argue that differentiation should be about matching the level of the curriculum content to the differing capabilities of the children. Others argue that it is less about changing the level or type of work set by teachers but more about providing alternative paths to enable all children to reach their potential.

To differentiate effectively and support individual and diverse students in the classroom, the teacher is required to be flexible in their approach in order to adjust:

- what the children will learn (content)
- how the children will learn (process)
- how they will demonstrate their learning (product, including assessment)

Differentiation by the organization of content

Tiered assignments. What are they?

Tiered activities are a series of related tasks of varying complexity. Tiered assignments involve all children being focused on the same content or curriculum objective but the process and/or product will vary according to the child's readiness/ability/special need.

When is best to use them? At some point, all students will need differentiated instruction based on their particular learning needs. Tiered assignments are not typically a daily activity and are best used as necessary and appropriate. It is when the children are asked to practice and complete follow up tasks that the activities may have to be tailored in a tiered fashion.

Thus, in terms of tiered assignment, we have a core task (applies to most of the students and will generally be the yardstick used to design the advanced and modified tasks), the advanced version/extension task (the extension task is pitched at those pupils who need a greater challenge than afforded to them in the core task, i.e. early finishers of the core task) and the modified version (designed for those who need extra support or guidance with the core activity of the core task, e.g. learners with SEN. They may require additional resources, scaffolding or one-to-one assistance.).

The following example illustrates how the tiered approach may be applied to.

Content objective: Sightseeing

Core task: Design a brochure for your town using photos and drawings. Write short paragraphs under each picture. Include a map of the town showing 5 main places to visit.

Extended task: Design a brochure to attract tourists to your town using photos and persuasive writing accounts of the main places to visit. Include a map of the town with suitable symbols and a legend.

Modified task: Design a brochure for your town using photos and drawings. Include one sentence for each photo/picture. Include a map of the town.

Differentiation by the organization of process

Flexible grouping

Students are assigned to groups with regard to interest, learning style, readiness or ability level. Students are grouped and regrouped as appropriate for particular activities, fostering collaborative and cooperative learning.

Tips for managing flexible groups

- Smaller groups are generally easier to manage and more effective for learning.

- Regardless of the group type a maximum of five in each is best.
- Save time by creating a system where students can check for themselves which group they are in without always needing directions.
- Allow more time to work closely with certain groups by planning supplementary activities for other groups who need minimal direction.
- Establish ground rules regarding noise levels, expected behaviour, movement around the room and appropriate use of materials.

Peer tutoring groups

When children assist each other in their learning, it gives them responsibility for understanding what they know and how they can use the information. When a child teaches something to another child it reinforces their own learning and leads to mastery of a concept. Children can become "resident experts" for particular concepts or skills and get valuable practice in re-teaching the concept to peers. The learner also benefits as they are getting individualised instruction that is tailored to their needs. Common examples of peer tutoring are paired reading and study buddies.

Interest groups

All learners are highly motivated by a specific interest in a topic or subject. In planning for interest groups teachers are seeking ways to bring children into the learning experience via their interests. Teachers can glean children's interests using informal discussion, brainstorming, or by conducting simple surveys. If the class is conducting a study of minibeasts in the school grounds, children with a shared interest in spiders for example could form a particular interest group.

Differentiation by the organization of task response/learning demonstration

Tic-tac-toe boards

A tic-tac-toe board, is a form of a choice board and offers a menu of activities from which children can choose to demonstrate their understanding.

It is presented in the form of a 3 x 3 grid thus providing children with nine choices of activities: assignments, projects, questions. These choices are of varying complexity and challenge and children are required to choose "three-in-a-row" in order to complete the board. Choices included in a tic-tac-toe board can be generic (for example, identify four ways the concepts in this unit are used in the real world) or more specific (for example, compare yourself to the character Stanley Yelnats in the novel 'Holes' by Louis Sachar using a Venn diagram).

How do tic-tac-toe boards enhance learning?

- Tic-tac-toe boards complement a child-centred approach to learning, in that the student is motivated through the power of choice.
- Tic-tac-toe boards encourage independent learning using a structured approach and enable the teacher to provide controlled choices to the children in his/her class.
- The nine choices should focus on student learning goals and cater for carrying abilities and learning styles through subtle differentiation.

Identify key considerations when designing a tic-tac-toe board

- In designing a tic-tac-toe board, a teacher should avoid offering a task as a choice if the children have not worked with the process/product previously or if the associated skills/understandings have not been pre-taught. Teachers should ensure that the tasks focus on learning goals and represent varying levels of complexity to challenge all children. Some teachers have found it useful to provide rubrics/criterion checklists for each task to encourage self-assessment.
- Example of tic-tac-toe board based on the content objective:
- talk about pieces of music, giving preferences, and illustrate responses in a variety of ways
- this music is exciting, sad, lively
- it makes me feel happy, frightened, giddy
- it reminds me of the circus, a storm, big crowds writing, drawing, painting, humming

Piece: Flight of the Bumble Bee

Describe the mood of the music (in a written piece of text)   Write a paragraph on what the music reminds you of   Orally respond to the music and present your response to your class

Draw a picture of what images you are reminded of in the music and describe them   Write a poem based on the piece   Devise a creative dance in response to the piece

Varied questioning

All teachers make regular use of questioning on a daily basis to elicit children's knowledge, assess their understanding and review concepts. It is very important however to adjust the types of questions according to the children's readiness and levels of comprehension. In general, teachers should use a combination of closed questions which demand simple one word answers and open questions which promote higher order thinking and which invite more elaborate responses. As teachers come to know the children and recognise their abilities, questions can be differentiated by levels of complexity and abstractness. The use of multiple question levels ensures that children of differing abilities can be challenged at a level that is appropriate to their development. It also ensures that students learning will be enriched due to the wide range of questions and responses. Remember to allow children "Time to think"! Teachers should always allow for adequate wait time after asking a question in order for the child to access information and formulate an answer. Open questions demand more think time as they require children to tap into their evaluative or critical selves. Generally the longer the think time, the better quality the answer, regardless of the question type. Wait time can be facilitated effectively by using the Think, pair, share technique. This requires the children to think firstly for themselves, pair with another child and share their ideas. This gives children time to really think about and attend to the question being asked and paves the way for a well thought out answer.

Inclusive Learning space. EFL teacher's strategies in an inclusive classroom

Inclusion in education involves:

- Putting inclusive values into action.
- Supporting everyone to feel that they belong.
- Increasing participation for children and adults in learning and teaching activities, relationships and communities of local schools.
- Reducing exclusion, discrimination, barriers to learning and participation.
- Learning from the reduction of barriers for some children to benefit children more widely.
- Viewing differences between children and between adults as resources for learning.
- Acknowledging the right of children to an education of high quality in their locality.
- Improving schools for staff and parents/carers as well as children.
- Recognising that inclusion in education is one aspect of inclusion in society.

As established in the 1996 Constitution, amended in 2016, everyone has the right to education and to complete compulsory comprehensive general secondary education (Art. 53).

The right to high-quality and affordable education and to obtain education throughout life is reiterated in the 2017 Law on Education (Art. 3.1). The latter also contains a non-discrimination provision, ensuring equal access to opportunities regardless of age, sex, race, health status, disability, nationality, ethnic origin, political or religious views, colour, place of residence, language, origin, social or material position, criminal record or other circumstances and characteristics (Art. 3.2).

Article 20 of the Law on Education is dedicated to promoting inclusive education in education institutions by creating inclusive and/or special groups and classes for persons with special education needs. With this purpose, they are expected to be provided with psychological and pedagogic support as well as correctional and developmental services.

Within the reform of secondary education, a learner-centred model has been applied and inclusive education encouraged. As envisioned in the 2016 New Ukrainian School framework, conditions are planned to be created to enable students with special needs to learn with their peers based on individual development programmes, which include correctional and rehabilitation measures and psychological and pedagogical assistance.

Some learners – especially those with high or very high needs – do require significantly different teaching strategies to those that educators in regular classes might usually employ. For example, some learners

- with visual impairments are reliant on their tactile and auditory senses for learning and will require specialized techniques such as Braille and orientation and mobility training;

- who are hard of hearing will require specific adaptations such as total communication (including signing), FM listening systems and assistance with maintaining hearing aids;
- with speech and language difficulties will require specialized speech/language therapy to deal with such errors as substitutions, distortions and omissions in their speech;
- with intellectual disabilities will require tasks to be broken down into very small steps and will need assistance with such matters as self-care;
- with physical disabilities will need assistance with positioning and movement normally provided by specialists such as physiotherapists and occupational therapists;
- with autistic spectrum disorder will need adjustments to their educational programme to take account of their 'triad of impairments': social interactions, social communication and imagination.

Basic teaching strategies:

Strategy: Cooperative group teaching

'Help learners to learn from each other'

Cooperative group teaching (sometimes referred to as cooperative learning) involves learners working together in small learning groups, helping each other to carry out individual and group tasks. It is a particularly effective strategy for teaching learners with special educational needs, especially in mixed-ability groups. When learners work without your constant direction and support, you can be freed to spend more time with small groups and individuals. However, this does not mean complete freedom for them to do as they wish. Nor does it mean putting learners together and then expecting or allowing them to work as individuals. Rather, it requires you to guide and monitor them on ways of working together. In cooperative group teaching, learners are expected to work as groups, not just in groups. Cooperative group learning assumes that all learners, including those with special educational needs, have something unique to contribute. The group sinks or swims on the basis of all members of the group making their individual contributions.

Strategy: Peer tutoring

'Utilize peers to teach each other'

Peer tutoring refers to situations in which one learner (the 'tutor') provides a learning experience for another learner (the 'tutee'), under your supervision. It is sometimes referred to as peer-mediated instruction, peer-assisted learning strategies (PALS), class-wide peer tutoring, buddying programmes, paired reading and peer support.

Properly handled, peer tutoring brings benefits to:
- the tutees, by being provided with increased individual attention, work pitched at their instructional level, repeated practice, immediate feedback, peer support and additional time engaged with tasks;
- the tutors, who can make gains by having their own skills reinforced and expanded, as well by having their self-confidence and sensitivity to others enhanced;

- the educator, by enabling you to increase the level of cooperation in your class and by giving you more time to spend with other learners;
- the education system, given its cost-effectiveness.

Strategy: Collaborative teaching

'Become an effective team player'

Educating learners with special educational needs requires collaboration with many people – fellow professionals and parents in particular.

There are the following main forms of collaboration in which you may become involved:

1. Co-teaching. Sometimes known as cooperative teaching, this occurs in inclusive education settings when a general education teacher and a special education teacher combine their expertise to meet the needs of all learners in the class. Both assume the roles of equal collaborators. It means respecting each other's expertise in order to benefit all learners in the class.

2. Consultation. The essence of this approach is that a special education teacher/adviser (or some other specialist) provides advice and guidance to the general classroom teacher on the programme to be followed by any learners with special educational needs.

3. Partnerships with teacher aides/paraprofessionals. The prime purpose of teacher aides is usually to provide support to the learner(s) with special educational needs, this does not necessarily mean that they must work exclusively with such learners. Most importantly, teacher aides should avoid making such learners overly dependent on their support (reflected, for example, in them taking up excessively close proximity to learners with special educational needs); rather, they should help them to become increasingly independent.

4. Partnerships with specialists. In addition to educators, many other professionals have an interest in learners with special educational needs.

Strategy: Parent involvement

Several things can help you to establish good working relationships with parents: regular contact with parents through daily report cards, home–school notebooks and invitations written by the children to view their displayed work; raising parents' awareness of the nature of their contribution by providing guidelines; holding structured meetings with parents, for instance, including a time for building rapport, obtaining information from parents, giving information to them, summarizing the information exchanged and planning a time for follow-up.

Strategy: School culture

'Create an atmosphere of respect and challenge for all learners'

Creating a positive school culture, or ethos, involves developing and implementing goals for the school. These goals will reflect the shared values, beliefs, attitudes, traditions and behavioural norms of its members, particularly those who are in leadership positions. In terms of inclusive schools, this means developing: (a) a strong commitment to accepting and celebrating diversity, (b) a sensitivity to cultural issues, (c) setting high, but realistic, standards.

Strategy: Indoor environmental quality

'Provide a physical environment that enables learning'

This strategy is aimed at ensuring that all the elements of the physical environment that may affect students' ability to learn are optimal. It involves attending to such matters as the design and arrangement of furniture, acoustics, lighting, temperature and ventilation. For example, this involves arranging physical space and equipment to facilitate learning, ensuring the physical environment is accessible to students with mobility difficulties or using sound-absorbing materials such as large cork bulletin boards, carpets under noisy equipment and felt under chairs to reduce annoying scraping sounds (a creative way is to put half tennis balls on the tips of the legs of the chairs).

Strategy: Classroom climate

"Create a positive, motivating classroom environment"

The classroom climate is a multi-component strategy comprising the psychological features of the classroom, as distinct from the physical features. Classroom climate is sometimes referred to as classroom environment, psychosocial environment, atmosphere, ambience, ecology or milieu. In a word, we are dealing with a major component of the context of learning, as well as motivation.

The key principle of classroom climate is to create a psychological environment that facilitates learning. It draws our attention to three main factors:

- relationships: the extent to which people in the classroom support and help each other;
- personal development: the extent to which personal growth and self-enhancement is facilitated;
- system maintenance: the extent to which the classroom is orderly, and educators are clear in their expectations, maintain control and are responsive to change.

Strategy: Social skills training

'Teach learners how to positively interact with others'

Social skills training is a set of strategies aimed at helping learners to establish and maintain positive interactions with others. They include:

- Social sensitivity: accurately making sense of the meaning of a social event, i.e., decoding social cues.
- Role-taking: 'reading' people and understanding how they are experiencing the world.
- Social insight: accurately reading social situations and comprehending what is happening in a social gathering.
- Social comprehension: understanding social institutions and processes, such as friendships and social reciprocity.
- Psychological insight: understanding the personal characteristics and motivations of others.
- Moral judgement: evaluating social situations in relation to moral codes and ethical principles.
- Social communication: understanding how to intervene effectively and influence the behaviour of others, a skill that involves self-monitoring

- Communication: conveying accurately to others what one is thinking or feeling.
- Social problem-solving: resolving conflicts and understanding how to influence the behaviour of others to achieve desired goals.

What social skills should be taught?

The skills most widely associated with social competence are:

- Conversation skills (including 'small talk'): greetings, saying 'please' or 'thank you', learning and using names, selecting appropriate topics, keeping conversations alive, making and maintaining eye contact (but note cultural differences here), employing appropriate facial expressions, using an appropriate tone of voice, standing in appropriate positions relative to others, inhibiting impulsive behaviour and active listening.
- Coping with conflict: saying 'No', dealing with aggressive persons, responding to teasing, apologizing, gaining attention, asking for help, problem-solving skills, dealing with criticism, negotiating, persuading, responding to others' needs, respecting individual differences.
- Friendship skills: making friends, giving and accepting thanks, initiating and responding to humour, taking turns, having acceptable grooming and hygiene, being in tune with the peer group culture (e.g., knowing about fashion, music, films, TV), appreciating the place of rules in everyday life.
- Group skills.

Developing Intercultural Competence

Culture is defined as 'the total of the inherited ideas, beliefs, values, and knowledge, which constitute the shared basis of social action'. This system is acquired socially and organized in our minds in culture-specific ways forming a framework, that largely determines the way we perceive and define the world around us. *Language and culture are inseparably bound*; therefore, complete comprehension during any type of intercultural communication depends upon the participants' awareness of the social and cultural significance of the words and expressions employed. Language is used to convey meaning, but meaning is determined by culture. To be meaningful, language must be culture-bound and culture-specific. When studying formulations of objectives of different foreign language teaching (FLT) methods, we usually encounter such statements as: "to learn the everyday life of the target language speakers", revealing the place of culture in that particular method. Although the place of culture and its role in language teaching has long been present in the thinking of language teachers, the priority given to it may vary from one period to another leading to different viewpoints in different FLT approaches and methods.

What is culture?

Defining culture is a very difficult task. Culture is such a complex notion that it may be neither possible nor desirable to arrive at an all-encompassing definition of it. It means different to different people. For some, it refers to an appreciation of good literature, music, art, and food. However, for anthropologists and other behavioral scientists, culture is the full range of learned human behavior patterns. The term was first used in this way by the pioneer English anthropologist Edward B. Tylor. Culture is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, law, morals, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society. Since that time, the concept of culture has become the central focus of anthropology.

Even within the field of ELT, the term culture has been defined in many different ways. It was treated as *an all-inclusive system which incorporates the biological and technical behavior of human beings with their verbal and non-verbal systems of expressive behavior starting from birth, and this "all-inclusive system" is acquired as the native culture. This process, which can be referred to as "socialization", prepares the individual for the linguistically and non-linguistically accepted patterns of the society in which he lives.*

Sometimes scholars distinguish between behaviorist, functionalist, cognitive, and symbolic definitions of culture. *Firstly, culture in behaviorist anthropology is seen as consisting of various forms of behavior, such as customs, habits and rituals that are linked to specific situations and social groups.* Culture is hence comprehended as something concrete that can be seen and experienced, but very little interest is devoted to why or under what circumstances the behavioral patterns arise. *Secondly, culture is viewed from a functional perspective. Although functionally oriented anthropology also deals with culture as a social phenomenon, it seems to go further than the behaviorist approach in the sense that it tries to describe and understand the structure and variety of these forms of behavior, as well as clarify the roles they play in society.* Both approaches provide the learner with a fairly concrete model for dealing with a foreign culture, by trying to describe how and why a representative of another culture acts in a particular way. Both the behaviorist and the functionalist approach represent a product perspective on culture, which, according to Robinson, tends to dominate FL instruction. *Culture, according to the third perspective, that is the cognitive view, does not consist of material phenomena, such as objects, people, or behavior, but is rather a process of memorizing, associating and interpreting incoming data, which is continually going on in every individual's brain.* Culture could thus be resembled to a computer program within the individual. In order to be able to clarify the essence of culture, cognitively-oriented anthropologists have encouraged individuals to be aware of and analyze their personal experiences. This "inner" view of culture as a valuable contribution to the behaviorist and functionalist approaches. It represents a view of culture as an ongoing process,

which has had a fairly limited influence on foreign language education. *The fourth perspective, the symbolic view sees culture as a dynamic system of symbols and meanings and stresses the significance of continuous change.* It focuses neither on outer events, nor on internal mechanisms, but on the meaning emerging as a result of the dialectic process between the two. Every individual is taking part in a process, in which previous experiences influence the interpretation of new phenomena, and previous interpretations influence new experiences. In every society and in every individual, culture thus takes on a new meaning, i.e. culture can also be viewed historically. Scholars also define culture on a more specific level by outlining four meanings of culture. The *aesthetic* sense includes cinema, literature, music, and media, while their *sociological* one refers to the organization and nature of family, interpersonal relations, customs, material conditions, and so on. The *semantic* sense encompasses the whole conceptualization system which conditions perceptions and thought processes, and their *pragmatic* or *sociolinguistic* sense refers to the background knowledge, social and paralinguistic skills, and language code that are necessary for successful communication. While not necessarily all-inclusive or mutually exclusive, these aspects of culture provide more substance to the general definition above and reflect culture's many dimensions.

The important point we must take into account when defining culture is that the most frequent definition of culture in language teaching is related to two expressions, culture with a capital "C", or formal culture, and culture with a small "c", or deep culture. Writers in cross-cultural studies often distinguish between two uses of the word culture: 1) the total way of life of a group of people, and 2) a refinement or sophistication within a society. The first use has been called little /small "c" culture, and the second, big "C" culture. Little "c" culture includes the routine aspects of life, such as how common people greet one another, what they wear, what they eat, and their myriad daily habits. Little "c" culture encompasses everything as a total way of life, so big "C" culture is necessarily part of little "c" culture. A cultured (big "C") person knows the finer points of manners and customs and can distinguish between the common and the refined. In summary, on one hand, culture can be seen as a civilization, the great achievements of a people as reflected in their history, social institutions, works of art, architecture, music, and literature, commonly referred to as big "C" culture. On the other hand, culture can be viewed as the customs, traditions, or practices that people carry out as part of their everyday lives, i.e. little/small "c" culture.

Role of culture in different language teaching approaches and methods

The literature review indicates that different approaches to language teaching approached the issue of the integration of culture in language teaching in various ways, emphasizing different aspects of culture to be included in their teaching program. Culture and culture teaching has been viewed under various

circumstances and through the eyes of different approaches throughout the history of foreign language teaching.

The Grammar- Translation Method

Scholars criticize GTM for not paying attention to authentic spoken communication and the social language variation and not offering any concern for the teaching of cultural awareness, at least on an everyday level. Some educators, however, believe that a close examination of the technical characteristics of the method reveals that GTM was constantly involved in the comparison of the two languages through translation, hence forced into implicitly recognizing that language is closely interwoven with every aspect of culture, and in fact, language is also culture. Scholars refer to the teaching of Latin dialogues or colloquy as a good example of the inclusion of the teaching of culture in GTM. He states that the culture involved in GTM refers only to the high arts of a country, which may not contribute significantly to the students' ability to function linguistically and socially while facing a foreign reality in daily social interaction, nor to a full understanding of the foreign people. This is natural since at that time there was no face-to-face personal interaction between people of various cultures, chiefly because the world's economic situation was very primitive indeed then. Thus, the purpose of mastering a foreign language during this period was largely literary rather than pragmatic.

The Direct Method

Due to the advances in science and technology, and with the invention of means of transportation such as steamboats and trains, the foundation for a social objective of language teaching was laid. People now had to deal with real-life situations because they wanted to travel to other countries and do business there. Therefore, their attitude toward learning/teaching a foreign language changed. This led to the advent of the Direct Method (DM). This method received its name from the fact that meaning is to be conveyed directly in the target language through the use of demonstration and visual aids with no recourse to the students' native language. One of the main characteristics of this method is that the use of culturally oriented pictures makes students aware of some of the everyday situations they might encounter in the foreign culture. Culture in DM consists of the history of people who speak the target language, the geography of the country or countries where the language is spoken, and the information about the daily lives of people who speak the language. DM preoccupation with culture is associated with a small 'c' culture at the beginning stages and a large 'C' culture at the advanced stage. The most important purpose in teaching languages in DM may be considered as the access to the best thoughts and institutions of a foreign nation, its literature, culture,--- in short, the spirit of the nation in the widest sense of the word. However, the lack of a well-defined socio-linguistic and socio-cultural theoretical basis made the teaching of cultural content incidental and subordinated

to the teaching of language in this method. Teachers do not concern themselves with what is expected to be needed by the students in real-life situations

The Audio-Lingual Method

In addition to the teaching of linguistic forms, the Audio-Lingual Method advocates for a contrastive analytic approach in the teaching of culture. The cultural notes that supplement the pattern drills describe everyday life, comparing American culture to the "target" culture. The colloquial and socio-linguistically appropriate language used in the dialogues shows that ALM emphasizes the teaching of small 'c' culture especially in the early years of the language learning process. The dialogues in ALM texts were both linguistically and culturally authentic. By cultural authenticity, he means that the conversation in ALM was to take place in the L2 culture and be appropriate to the situation. Stern J., however, believes that while ALM was not impervious to the cultural aspect of second language instruction, language learning in the first instance was viewed as the acquisition of a practical set of communication skills. This indicates that the cultural dimension in ALM is still behind the real purpose of foreign language teaching and again, like the Direct Method, is subordinated to language teaching.

The Cognitive Approach

In this approach, the language learner is expected to acquire competence with consciousness in a meaningful manner as a necessary prerequisite to the acquisition of performance skills. The cultural orientation of language teaching reflected by the Cognitive Approach, however, is not as clear as in the previous methods; though it is clear the cognitive psychologists in the late 1960s, placed great importance on meaningfulness and organization of background knowledge in the learning process.

Innovative/ Designers Methods

From humanistic approaches, there arise three prominent methodologies the silent way, suggestopaedia, and community language learning known as Innovative or Designers Methods. In the Silent Way Approach, the students are made aware of the various challenges that are presented before them in the process of language learning or acquisition. Here learners are given their full freedom. Based on this method, culture is an inseparable part of language. Language reflects the culture and everyday life, art, literature, etc. should be learned. On the other hand, community language learning is also encouraged, wherein the learners are given the independence to talk about their personal and linguistic problems and can decide their curriculum. The teacher is just a facilitator who creates an emotionally secure environment that alleviates their anxiety and fear of learning. Based on this method, knowing the target culture is important to be successful in communication. Culture is integrated with language. Social lifestyle, art, literature, customs, and

habits should be taught. Suggestopaedia is another humanistic teaching method developed by a Bulgarian psychotherapists, who claim that, by this method, a language can be learned three to five times faster than traditional teaching methods. This method is based on the modern understanding of how the brain works and how we learn most effectively. Much of the learning relies on music, games, puzzles, etc. The culture that students learn in this approach concerns the everyday life of people who speak the target language. The use of fine arts is also common.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Planning for Continuing Professional Development

Values and beliefs about learning and teaching

The field of language teaching is subject to rapid changes, both as the profession responds to new educational paradigms and trends and as institutions face new challenges as a result of changes in curriculum, national tests and student needs. As a result, teachers need regular opportunities to update their professional knowledge and skills, that is, their opportunities for professional development. Teachers need to be able to take part in activities such as:
- engaging in self-reflection and evaluation;
- developing specialized knowledge and skills about many aspects of teaching;
- expanding their knowledge base about research, theory, and issues in teaching;
- taking on new roles and responsibilities, such as supervisor or mentor teacher, teacher-researcher, or materials writer;
- developing collaborative relationships with other teachers.

Some teachers may also be expected to plan workshops and other professional activities, to present papers at seminars or conferences, and to write for journals and teaching magazines. Language teaching institutions are also expected to maintain high professional standards, to provide opportunities for their teachers to pursue professional development, and to provide conditions where teachers cooperate to achieve higher levels of learning among their students.

Opportunities for in-service training are crucial to the long term development of teacher as well as for the long term success of the programs in which they work.

The teacher-education activities are based on the following assumptions:
- knowledge about language teaching and learning is in a tentative and incomplete state, and teachers need regular opportunities to update their professional knowledge;

- Classrooms are not only places where students learn – they are also places where teachers can learn;
- Teachers can play an active role in their own professional development;
- It is the responsibility of schools and their administrators to provide opportunities for continued professional education and to encourage teachers to participate in them.

Teacher training

Training refers to activities directly focused on a teacher's present responsibilities and is typically aimed at short-term and immediate goals. Training involves understanding basic concepts and principles as a prerequisite for applying them to teaching and the ability to demonstrate principles and practices in the classroom. Teacher training also involves trying out new strategies in the classroom, usually with supervision, and monitoring and getting feedback from others on one's practice.

The following are examples of goals from a training perspective:
- learning how to use effective strategies to open a lesson;
- adapting the textbook to match the class;
- learning how to use group activities in a lesson;
- using effective questioning techniques;
- using classroom aids and resources;
- techniques for giving learners feedback on performance.

Teacher development

Development generally refers to general growth not focused on a specific job. It serves a longer term goal and seeks to facilitate growth of teachers' understating of teaching and of themselves as teachers. It often involves examining different dimensions of a teacher's practice as a basis for reflective review and can hence be seen as "bottom-up".

The following are examples of goals from a development perspectives:
- understanding how the process of second language development occurs;
- understanding how our roles change according to the kind of learners we are teaching;
- understanding the kinds of decision making that occur during lesson;
- reviewing our own theories and principles of language teaching;
- developing an understanding of different styles of teaching;
- determining learners' perceptions of classroom activities.

Strategies for teacher development often involve documenting different kinds of teaching practices; reflective analysis of teaching practices, examining beliefs, values, and principles; conversation with peers on cores on classroom projects. Professional development should go beyond personal and individual reflection. It can include exploration of new trends and theories in language teaching.

Teacher learning

Teacher education processes derive their rationale from assumptions about the nature of teacher development and how it takes place. This field has been called teacher learning and is concerned with exploring questions such as the following: What is the nature of teacher knowledge and how is it acquired?

1. Teacher learning as skill learning. This view sees teacher learning as the development of a range of different skills or competencies, mastery of which underlies successful teaching.

2. Teacher learning as a cognitive process. This approach views teaching as a complex cognitive activity and focuses on the nature of teachers' beliefs and thinking and how these influence their teaching and learning. It encourages teachers to explore their own beliefs and thinking processes and to examine how these influence their classroom practice. Processes used include self-monitoring, journal writing, and analysis of critical incidents.

3. Teacher learning as personal construction. It is based on the belief that knowledge is actively constructed by learners and not passively received.

4. Teacher learning as reflective practice. Reflection is viewed as the process of critical examination of experiences, a process that can lead to a better understanding of one's teaching practices and routines.

Options and tools for school-based (internal) CPD

Purpose and benefits of peer observation

Peer observation refers to a teacher or other observer closely watching and monitoring a language lesson or part of a lesson in order to gain an understanding of some aspect of teaching, learning or classroom interaction. In teaching, observation provides an opportunity for novice teachers to see what more experienced teachers do when they teach a lesson and how they do it. But experienced teachers can also benefit from peer observation. It provides an opportunity for the teacher to see how someone else deals with many of the same problems teachers face on a daily basis. A teacher might discover that a colleague has effective teaching strategies that the observer has never tried. Observing another teacher may also trigger reflections about one's own teaching. For both teachers, observation also has social benefits. It brings teachers together who might not normally have a chance to interact and provide an opportunity for the sharing of ideas and expertise, as well as a chance to discuss problems and concerns.

The limitation of observation needs to be understood. Obviously, an observer can observe visible things as the following:

- timing (how much time the teacher spends on different activities);
- activities (the teacher employs during the lesson);
- questioning techniques (the types of questions the teacher asks);
- participation (which learners actively participate in the lesson);

- classroom language (the kind of language learners produce).

Some other important aspects of the lesson that are not visible:
- decision making (the kinds of decisions the teacher considers during the lesson);
- engagement (the extent to which learners find aspects of the lesson interesting and engaging);
- problems (difficulties the teacher experience during the lesson);
- teaching principles (the teacher's approach to the lesson).

The purpose of observation is to learn from the observation experience.

Depending on the purpose of observation, the following procedures are used:
1. **Written narrative**. The observer tries to provide an account of the main structure and development of the lesson, the kinds of activities the teacher employed, and the significant time periods within the lesson. It is important not to try to describe everything that happens during the lesson. The language used should be objective and precise, and any form of evaluation should be avoided. A written narrative provides a broad picture of a lesson and can be useful to see what the structure of the lesson was like and how the teacher implemented the lesson plan. However, many aspects of the lesson are difficult to describe accurately in real time.
2. **Field notes** consist of brief descriptions in note form of key events that occurred throughout a lesson, including interpretations of incidents where relevant. Taking notes is a flexible way of observing a lesson. When significant things are happening, the observer notes down relevant information. However, the information collected may be insignificant to capture what is really going on in the lesson.
3. **A checklist** is a structured inventory listing features of a lesson that the observer completes. A checklist is highly focused and relatively easy to complete. It provides a systematic way of collecting information on specific aspects of a lesson. However, some aspects of a lesson are difficult to identify using a checklist.

Workshops

A workshop is an intensive, short-term learning activity that is designed to provide an opportunity to acquire specific knowledge and skills. In workshops, participants are expected to learn something that they can later apply in the classroom and to get hands-on experience with the topic, such as developing procedures for classroom observation or conducting action research. Workshops can also provide opportunities for participants to examine their beliefs and perspectives on teaching and learning, and use this process to reflect on their own teaching practices. Workshops are one of the most powerful and effective forms of

teacher development activity. There are several benefits of workshop-based learning for language teachers:

1. Workshops can provide input from experts. Teachers often need the help of an expert in order to familiarize themselves with such topics as portfolio assessment, classroom research, and alternative assessment, and a workshop can provide an opportunity for an expert in an area to share knowledge and experience with teachers in a comfortable learning environment.

2. Workshops offer teachers practical classroom applications. A workshop is intended to enhance teachers' practical skills and help resolve problems, rather than simply improve theoretical understanding.

3. Workshops can raise teachers' motivation. The concentrated nature of a workshop helps to maintain participants' interest level.

4. Workshops can develop innovations. Workshops can be crucial strategy in the implementation of a curriculum or other kind of change.

5. Workshops are short-term. Because a workshop focuses on a very specific topic, it can be dealt with in a limited time frame.

6. Workshops are flexible in organization. Although workshops involve consideration of issues and problems, often based around theoretical input followed by problem solving and application in pairs or groups, the way such activities are sequenced can vary according to the preferences of the leader and the participants.

We recommend the following procedures when planning workshops:

1. Choose an appropriate topic. A successful workshop topic is likely to be one that addresses a problem that participants are experiencing or a situation they wish to change or improve. The topic should be clearly focused, owing to the limited time frame, and should examine one or two issues in depth rather than seek to survey a vast area.

2. Limit the number of participants. Workshops are best suited to a limited number of participants because an effective workshop requires the facilitators to interact with participants, giving them an opportunity to present their ideas and suggestions, as well as to interact with participants and give feedback on problems and solutions.

3. Identify a suitable workshop leader. The success of a workshop is often dependent on the qualities of the workshop leader. A number of qualities are needed in the workshop leader:

a. knowledgeable about the subject matter;

b. familiar with ways of conducting a workshop;

c. familiar with teaching adult learners;

4. Plan an appropriate sequence of activities.

Kinds of activities:

- unity-building activities (fun activities to let participants get to know each other);

- direct instruction presentations (instruction on key topics, ideas, theories, and techniques, often supplemented by written materials);
- partner work (pair work problem-solving and discussion activities);
- small group discussion (to develop strategies for application);
- role play (participants apply and practice strategies and techniques presented during the workshop);
- co-planning activities (lesson-planning activities designed to develop skills in working with a partner);
- reflection time (to reflect on what has been learned in pair or group discussion).

5. Look for opportunities for follow-up. Follow-up means considering what use teachers will make of what they have learned, how they will apply what they have learned to classroom teaching, and how they will monitor their efforts.
6. Include evaluation. A workshop can be evaluated through the use of a questionnaire or interviews with participants.

Options and tools for external CPD

Attending conferences

Conference or seminar plans are particularly suited to professionals who need incentives to renew their commitment to their careers. Conference or seminar plans can help teachers make more sense out of conferences and seminars while helping them feel that they too can contribute to the development of the school and profession.

Plans are also powerful tools for novices, as they provide a safe structure for exploring new ideas and techniques while also supporting self-reflection and assessment. The plan should allow for some scheduling flexibility, and may also include a "bonus" activity—that is, one that isn't necessarily related to the teacher's area of concern, but may provide him with a welcome break or explore relevant issues. For example, a teacher whose main area of concern is implementation of content standards for ESL students, but who is also interested in pursuing administrative opportunities in the future, may choose to attend a poster session on program administration. Bonus activities are supposed to be fun and provide relaxation from the busy schedule of a conference or course. In the case of extended workshops, participants may choose to have lunch away from the workshop site, visit a museum, or otherwise decompress from the day's activities.

Teacher :	
Event	**Date (s)**
Part 1. Plan	
Personal goals (what do I expect to get from attending the event?	
Means for attaining goals (what activities will I engage in during the event?):	
Lectures	
Workshops	
Courses	
Networking	
Visits	
Interviews	
Bonus activity	
Plan 2 Evaluation	
Summary of the event (what did I get out of attending the event?)	
Proposed follow-up to the event (what do I intend to do as a result of having attended the event?)	

Objectives to accomplish	Actions to be taken and by whom	Resources needed	Criteria for success	Proposed deadline for follow up

A teacher journal

A teaching journal is an ongoing written account of observations, reflections, and other thoughts about teaching, usually in a form of a notebook, which serves as a source of discussion, reflection, or evaluation. Journal writing can help a teacher question, explore, and analyze how he/she teaches and can also provide a basis for conversations with peers or a supervisor. Journal writing can serve different purposes, depending on who the audience for a journal is. For teachers, a journal can serve as a way of clarifying their own thinking and of exploring their own beliefs and practices. It can be used to monitor their own practices, to provide a record of their teaching for others to read, and to document successful teaching experiences. Language teachers think that:

- writing a journal forces you to reflect on certain issues and bring them out into the open;
- journal writing gets you thinking about things that are unconsciously going on in the mind;
- it enables you to discover the importance of relating your own experience of learning to that of the pupils you teach;
- it enhances awareness about the way you teach and how students learn;'
- it serves as a means of generating questions and hypotheses about teaching and learning process;
- it is the most natural form of classroom research;
- it promotes the development of reflective teaching.

In order to carry out journal writing successfully, a number of factors need to be kept in mind:
1. Set goals for writing a journal.
2. Decide who your audience is.
3. Review your journal entries regularly to see what you can learn from them.
4. Evaluate your journal writing experience to see if it meets your goals.

The nature of a teaching portfolio

A teaching portfolio is a collection of documents and other items that provides information about different aspects of a teacher's work. It serves to describe and document the teacher's performance, to facilitate professional development, and to provide a basis for reflection and review. A professional portfolio is an evolving collection of carefully selected professional thoughts, goals, and experiences that are threaded with reflection and self-assessment. It represents who you are, what you do, why you do it, where you have been, where you want to go, etc.

A portfolio consists of a set of different types of documents and artifacts that have been selected on a principled basis.

First, it provides a demonstration of how a teacher approaches his/her work, and presents evidence of the teacher's thinking, creativity, resourcefulness, and effectiveness.

Second, a portfolio serves as a source of review and reflection. The process of compiling the portfolio prompts the teacher to engage in a comprehensive self-assessment of different aspects of his/her work. By reviewing the portfolio the teacher can make decisions about priorities and goals for future development or improvement.

Third, a portfolio can promote collaboration with other teachers. It can become part of the process of peer coaching; the peer reviews and discusses the portfolio and uses it to give feedback about the teacher's work.

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