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ENGLISH DIDACTICS

A course in the English Language Teaching

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Recomandat de *Departamentul Limba Engleză şi Limba Franceză specializate şi de Consiliul Facultăţii de Litere*

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Cursul *Didactica limbii engleze* este destinat studenţilor de la specialităţile duble, domeniul Ştiinţe ale Educaţiei, care studiază limba engleză ca specialitatea a doua. *Didactica limbii engleze* este o disciplină fundamentală şi are drept scop cunoaşterea mecanismelor de însuşire a unei limbi străine şi formarea deprinderilor de cominicare în limba străină; cunoaşterea evoluţiei strategiilor şi tehnicilor de predare şi planificare a activităţilor de comunicare (exprimare orală/ scrisă, comprehensiune/ scrisă), familiarizarea studenţilor cu metodele de predare/învăţare a limbii engleze. De asemenea, disciplina este justificată prin dimensiunea interculturală a educaţiei ce rezidă în pregătirea cadrelor didactice pentru a percepe, accepta, respecta şi a experimenta diversitatea. Astfel, cursul se axează pe principiile aprecierii şi respectării diversităţii culturale, a progresivităţii, diferenţierii şi individualizării, pe formarea tinerilor ca persoane creative, capabile să aprecieze diferite culturi, să respecte şi să valorizeze pozitiv diferenţele culturale.

Acest curs va ajuta cadrele didactice în devenire să facă faţă exigenţelor şi îi va antrena în găsirea de soluţii optime în ceea ce priveşte rezolvarea problemelor cotidiene în predarea disciplinei, astfel încât să poată aborda creativ situaţiile care pot apărea în procesul de predare/învăţare prin intermediul capacităţii de a aborda diferenţele cu respect, grijă şi iscusinţă pedagogică. O deosebită atenţie se va acorda perspectivelor de abordare a clasei de elevi şi structurilor dimensionale în scopul asigurării conduitelor corespunzătoare pentru desfăşurarea procesului de predare-învăţare-evaluare.

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ABBREVIATIONS

CLT - Communicative Language Teaching
CA - Communicative Approach
CDCC - Council for Cultural Co-operation
CEFRL - Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CEF - Common European Framework
CM - classroom management
ECML - European Centre for Modern Languages
e.g. - for example
EFL - English as a foreign language
ELL - early language learning
ELLs - English language learners
ELT - English language teaching
i.e. (id est *latin*) - this is
GTM - Grammar Translation Method
KWL chart - Know, Want to know, Learned
L1 - native language
L2 - foreign language
LC - listening comprehension
LLS - language learning strategies
LLT - language learning theories
LTM - long-term memory
LS - learning styles
MECR - Ministry of Education, Culture and Research
PBL - Project-based learning
PPP - presentation, practice, production
RLD - Reference Level Descriptions
SA - Structural Approach
SLA - Second Language Acquisition
SL - second language
SL - source language
STS - short-term store
STT - student talking time
TL - target language
TBI - Task-based instruction
TBL - Task-based learning
TBLT - Task-based language teaching
TL - target language
TPR - Total Physical Response
TTT - teacher talking time
WM - working memory

FOREWORD

Teaching a foreign language can be a challenging but rewarding job that opens new paths of communication. It is very beneficial for students from teacher training programmes to have the necessary knowledge of the different language learning techniques so they can be flexible in their instruction methods, adapting them when needed. The course *English Didactics. A course the English language teaching* is an endeavor to develop an understanding of the nature of English language and the importance of teaching of English. The course will enable the student teachers to comprehend the theory and practices of teaching of English and critically reflect on their practices in order to make teaching more effective and innovative.

The course is the result of research and synthesis of major twenty first century trends in language teaching. It is designed for student teachers at the start of their teaching career as part of their initial teacher training course.

The main aim of the course as a whole is to equip the student teachers with the knowledge and skills needed to perform competently as an English teacher from the beginning; to plan and run interesting lessons and activities. It also aims to give a general picture, showing procedures for beginners, elementary and intermediate students by reflecting a range of current teaching and learning styles.

Another objective of this course is to assist student teachers with the incorporation of the intercultural communicative competence in teaching English. Intercultural experiences pose inevitable challenges to one's personal identity and communication skills. Future teachers should learn how to deal with unexpectedness, ambiguity and otherness as well as the resulting culture bumps or culture shock. The knowledge, skills and attitudes that are necessary for successful intercultural communication have to be observed, discussed and practiced. Increasing intercultural understanding and integrating intercultural communication in teacher training programmes is one of the biggest challenges of our times, but if successful, it would have a beneficial multiplier effect in the field of education and beyond.

The theoretical course provides *essential information*, based on up-to-date research theories and the experience of successful practitioners. It includes topics about language learning/teaching theories; approaches, methods and techniques; learning styles and strategies; CEFRL instruments and classroom management. The course also invites *reflection* through inviting students to consider and analyze classroom activities, relate theoretical ideas to their experiences and to try out some teaching practical activities and procedures during the seminars. It also suggests *practical guidelines* on how to teach particular aspects of language, like grammar, vocabulary or listening comprehension; to run particular

type of procedures – promote interactions, establishing routines, assigning tests, assessing skills, or improve some situations, for example motivating students, enhancing the taught material, dealing with disruptive behavior or differentiated instruction issues.

The course comprises 14 units that cover 13 different topics related to teaching, learning and assessment of results, followed by reflection questions. Each unit ends with tasks for independent work related to the unit's content.

As a result of pandemics, education has changed dramatically, with the distinctive rise of e-learning, whereby teaching is undertaken remotely and on digital platforms. With this sudden shift away from the classroom, the course suggests different useful teaching apps for each unit to support student teachers in providing intersting classroom activities.

UNIT 1.
LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

1.1 Introduction

The word *didactics* comes from the Greek word "διδάσκειν" (didáskein), which means *teaching*. The scientific term *didactics* (sometimes also spelled "Didaktik" as in German) stems from the German tradition of theorizing classroom learning and teaching. Didactics serves as a major theory in teacher education and syllabus development, especially in the German-speaking and Scandinavian countries, as well as in Finland (didaktiikka) and in Russia (didaktika). With a slightly different meaning, it is also employed in France (didactique comparée) and Spain (didáctica general) as well as in the Dutch (algemene didactiek) and Africans literature.

General didactics represents the theory of both decision making and processes of teaching and learning in institutions, especially in schools and universities devoted to *general* and *domain-specific education*, whereas *subject-matter didactics* covers the theories of teaching and learning a particular subject. The two disciplines are considered complementary; it also can be mentioned that general didactics provides the common framework for the particular purposes of teaching school subjects. Regarding the *conceptual level of operationalization*, general didactics as a *macro theory* of classroom teaching and learning is concerned with decision making on general goals as well as specific objectives on content and methods of instruction. Therefore, empirical research on teaching and learning can been seen as complementary *micro theories* modeling the processes of teachers' delivery of didactically planned lessons and students' performance of the intended (and unintended) learning tasks.

From the perspective of *methodology*, general didactics serves as a scientific means of decision making in educational planning at different levels. It is regarded as a value-laden, *prescriptive* theory with a normative background, whereas instructional science preserves *descriptive* theories on classroom teaching and learning. The meaning of didactics can be extended as:

- a domain of science which studies teaching;
- a science and a study whose target is teaching, studying and learning and
- a doctrine which searches for teaching, studying and learning practices in order to achieve the set learning aims and goals by means of teaching and studying.

In other words, didactics investigates and develops the aims, content matter and working practices of the teaching–studying–learning process. Central to the idea of didactics is therefore that teaching, studying and learning form an integral entity, in which each of the three components support each other.

1.2 Language and culture

As a social phenomenon, language is a part of the culture of a people. It is a social practice in which experiences are organized and identities negotiated. Language always carries meanings and references beyond itself: the meanings of a particular language represent the culture of a particular social group. To interact with a language means to do so with the culture which is its reference point. A particular language points to the culture of a particular social group. Learning a language, therefore, is not only learning the alphabet, the meaning, the grammar rules and the arrangement of words, but it is also learning the behavior of the society and its cultural customs. Thus; language teaching should always contain some explicit reference to the culture, the whole from which the particular language is extracted.

Culture is a set of attitudes, beliefs, behavioral conventions, basic assumptions, and values that are shared by a group of people and that influence each member's behavior and each member's interpretations of the meanings of other people's behavior. And language is the medium for expressing and embodying other phenomena. It expresses the values, beliefs and meanings which members of a given society share by virtue of their socialization into it. Language also refers to objects peculiar to a given culture, as evidenced by proper names which embody those objects. When two people talk to each other, they do not just *speak* to the other to exchange information, they also *see* the other as an individual and as someone who belongs to a specific social group, for example a 'worker' and an 'employer' or a 'teacher' and a 'pupil'. This has an influence on what they say, how they say it, what response they expect and how they interpret the response. In other words, when people are talking to each other their *social identities* are unavoidably part of the social interaction between them.

One of the most significant changes in language learning and teaching over the past few decades has been the recognition of the *cultural dimension* as a key component. This change has transformed the nature of the experience of teaching and learning languages to a great extent. The objective of language learning is no longer defined in terms of the acquisition of communicative competence in a foreign language, which refers to a person's ability to act in a foreign language in linguistically, socio-linguistically and pragmatically appropriate ways (Council of Europe, 2001). Rather, it is defined in terms of the *intercultural competence*, which is "the ability of a person to behave adequately in a flexible manner when confronted with actions, attitudes and expectations of representatives of foreign cultures".

In language teaching, the concept of *communicative competence* takes this into account by emphasizing that language learners need to acquire not just grammatical competence but also the knowledge of what is 'appropriate' language. Now, *intercultural dimension* in language teaching aims to develop

learners as *intercultural speakers* or *mediators* who are able to engage with complexity and multiple identities and to avoid the stereotyping which accompanies perceiving someone through a single identity. It is based on perceiving the interlocutor as an individual whose qualities are to be discovered, rather than as a representative of an externally ascribed identity. Intercultural communication is communication on the basis of respect for individuals and equality of human rights as the democratic basis for social interaction.

Intercultural awareness in language learning is often talked about as though it were a 'fifth skill' - the ability to be aware of cultural relativity following reading, writing, listening and speaking. Language itself is defined by a culture. We cannot be competent in the language if we do not also understand the culture that has shaped and informed it. We cannot learn a second language if we do not have an awareness of that culture, and how that culture relates to our own first language/first culture. It is not only therefore essential to have cultural awareness, but also intercultural awareness. It is necessary to review these key elements and their relevance:

- *Intercultural communication: a* common, necessary part of peoples' personal and professional lives.
- *Intercultural competence:* the ability to become effective and appropriate in interacting, the sensitivity to cultural diversity.
- *Cultural awareness:* has an important role to overcome difficulties to ensure smooth communication with people from different backgrounds
- *Intercultural communication competence:* the ability to effectively and appropriately execute communication behaviors to elicit a desired response in a specific culturally different environment.

One way of developing intercultural capabilities is through an interconnected set of activities involving:

- noticing cultural similarities and differences as they are made evident through language;
- comparing what one has noticed about another language and culture with what one already knows about other languages and cultures;
- reflecting on what one's experience of linguistic and cultural diversity means for oneself: how one reacts to diversity, how one thinks about diversity, how one feels about diversity and how one will find ways of engaging constructively with diversity;
- interacting on the basis of one's learning and experiences of diversity in order to create personal meanings about one's experiences, communicate those meanings, explore those meanings and reshape them in response to others.

A dynamic relationship between language and culture is always at play. It is through exploration of the interactions of language and culture that this awareness and the ability to act on it can be developed.

1.3 Language acquisition

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers to the study of how students learn a second language (L2) additionally to their first language (L1). Although it is referred as Second Language Acquisition, it is the process of learning any language after the first language whether it is the second, third or fourth language. Therefore, any other language apart from the first language is called a second language (SL) or also referred to as a target language (TL). Although SLA often refers to the learning of any language other than L1, in recent decades there has emerged an area of research focusing on the learning of the third, or even the fourth, language, which is known as *multilingual acquisition*.

To distinguish between Second Language and Foreign Language, *The Collins Dictionary* defines second language as *"the language that a person learns after his or her native language and Foreign Language as a language that is used in a country other than one's native country*".

There are different ways to acquire second or foreign languages. It can be in a formal way as in a classroom environment or informal way such as when the learner picks up the language by being culturally active participant of the society. This can be done by attending school in the target country, watching local television, listening to radio or/and reading newspapers in L2. By being actively involved in the learning environment, the learner is constantly in contact with the target language through normal daily routines.

Also, motivation is another significant factor of SLA that needs to be discussed to find out if it is related to higher language competences as Gardner and Lambert (1979) have thoroughly investigated. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and Early Language Learning (ELL) have been thoroughly investigated over the years and there is a popular belief that second language acquisition among children is achieved relatively fast and without effort. However, more recent studies post criticism on this widely spread claim of the effortless and quick second language competence among children. Although age plays a significant role in SLA, the benefit of motivation and exposure can provide better results in achieving complete second language proficiency.

Prospective teachers of foreign languages should be well-informed and distinguish between two important processes: acquisition and learning a foreign language. *Acquisition* is the natural way of assimilating the language. It represents a subconscious process through which students develop the communicative competence in using language for meaningful communication. It is considered to be more successful and longer lasting than the learning process. *Learning* is the process in which conscious rules about a language are developed, students get explicit knowledge about the forms of a language.

1.4 Learning styles (LS)

Learning a language is a step-by-step (from simple to complex) process, based on lots of mechanisms of various degrees of difficulty. The term "learning styles" speaks to the understanding that every student learns differently. Technically, an individual's learning style refers to the preferential way in which the student processes, comprehends and retains information. For example, when learning how to build a clock, some students understand the process by following verbal instructions, while others have to physically manipulate the clock themselves. This notion of individualized learning styles has gained widespread recognition in education theory and classroom management strategy.

Individual learning styles depend on cognitive, emotional and environmental factors, as well as one's prior experience. In other words, everyone is different. It is important for educators to understand the differences in their students' learning styles, so that they can implement best practice strategies into their daily activities, curriculum and assessment.

1. Visual

The visual or spatial learner is often referred to as a right-brained learner. This person is typically good at deciphering visual data in the form of maps and graphs. While they excel at subjects such as geometry, they struggle with arithmetic and numbers in general. These learners simply see the world in a different manner: they are imaginative, think outside of the box and quickly process what they see rather than what they hear. Teachers are recommended:

- to use charts, graphs, maps, diagrams, time lines and info graphics;
- to implement digital tools and technology to assist learning;
- to replace words with colors and images;
- to create outlines with different levels instead of blocks of text;
- to highlight important points in text.

2. Verbal

A bit different from the previous category, verbal learners are adept at processing information through the use of language. They excel at reading, writing, listening and speaking. They have an excellent memory for things they have read and enjoy all types of word games, puns, rhymes and tongue twisters. Many of them also enjoy learning different languages. These learners particularly enjoy their writing, drama and speech classes. Teachers are recommended:

- to take notes;
- to go over old tests;
- to reread and rewrite your notes;
- to make summaries of your notes;
- to create lists with key words and phrases to help you remember concepts;

- to use acronym mnemonics to assist in recall.

3. Logical

This type of learner is skilled at mathematical and logical reasoning. They are able to solve problems involving numbers and can easily decipher abstract visual information. They are also adept at analyzing cause and effect relationships and tend to think linearly. They like to classify and group information, as well as create ordered lists, agendas and itineraries. They are able to perform relatively complex calculations in their heads and enjoy strategy games such as chess and backgammon. Teachers are recommended:

- to try to understand the key concepts behind lessons;
- to extract key information from notes such as statistics and facts to create lists;
- to turn material and lessons into strategic mind games;
- to stimulate your mind by playing computer math games and solving brain teasers;
- to create specific goals and incentives and record your progress.

4. Auditory

The auditory (musical) learner thinks in sounds rather than images. They think chronologically and learn best through step-by-step methods. Unlike visual learners, they have an impeccable memory for conversations and enjoy debates and discussions. They have strong language skills and perform well on oral exams. As the name suggests, they also have musical talents and are able to discern individual notes, rhythms and tones. On the downside, they have difficulty interpreting facial expressions and gestures, as well as complex graphs and charts. Teachers are recommended:

- to participate in discussions and debates;
- to read aloud;
- to memorize the material;
- to listen to music while you go over material;
- to use jingles or rhymes to remember new material;
- to use mnemonic devices.

5. Social

The social (interpersonal) learner is unique in his/her ability to learn best through interactions with other people. They usually enjoy working through topics in a group setting and bouncing ideas off of other people. Social learners are gifted at reading others' emotions and facial expressions, as well as relationship dynamics. They are also very good at identifying the root cause of communication problems. Teachers are recommended:

- to seek cooperative learning settings;
- to use role playing to enhance learning;
- to teach others what you have learned;

- to engage in language exchange programs;
- to join a volunteer or service-oriented group;
- to interview others to learn about their perspectives.

6. Intrapersonal

The intrapersonal, or solitary, learner likes to use self-study and work alone. Usually, solitary learners are in tune with their feelings, who they are and what they are capable of doing. These types of learners are very independent, so they guide themselves on their journey to learning something new each day. They are particularly gifted in the areas of self-management and self-reflection. Teachers are recommended:

- to find a quiet but comfortable place to study alone;
- to establish personal learning goals and track your progress regularly;
- to keep a learning journal or log;
- to reflect on what you have already learned and think through new material;
- to find connections between what you have already learned and new material.

7. Physical

Physical (kinesthetic) learners are always moving and doing something with their hands. They learn best when their bodies are involved in the learning process. This can mean anything from creating artwork with their hands to being able to manipulate what is being learned. These types of learners benefit from larges spaces that enable them to draw and write. They can also find walking back and forth while reading conducive to their learning. It comes to no surprise that physical learners are many times athletically gifted and tend to live in the present moment rather than in the future or the past. The recommended means for improving learning are:

- hands-on lessons are the ideal method of learning;
- to review and recite notes while doing other physical activities, such as walking, jogging or riding a stationary bike;
- to use role playing or mime games to act out subject material;
- to teach someone else the material;
- to turn lessons into art projects;
- to take graphs, pictures and maps to involve all the senses.

8. Naturalistic

These types of learners process information best when it is related to finding patterns in nature and applying scientific reasoning to the understanding of living creatures. They usually grow up to be farmers, naturalists or scientists. These learners particularly enjoy being outdoors and connecting with Nature. They are often found observing and appreciating plants and animals in rural settings. The recommended means for improving learning are:

- to imagine that the learning material is a new ecosystem students must understand through the recognition of patterns;
- to identify and classify different plants and animals;
- to pick topics that are related to daily life, nature or people to increase interest in the subject matter;
- to approach the learning environment as students research the field: observe and record data.

1.5 Language learning strategies (LLS)

Language learning strategies is a term referring to the processes and actions that are consciously deployed by language learners to help them to learn or use a language more effectively. They have also been defined as 'thoughts and actions, consciously chosen and operationalized by language learners, to assist them in carrying out a multiplicity of tasks from the very outset of learning to the most advanced levels of target language performance. The term language *learner* strategies, which incorporates strategies used for language learning and language use, is sometimes used, although the line between the two is ill-defined as moments of second language use can also provide opportunities for learning.

The strategies a student uses to learn a second language depend greatly on their individual learning style. Some students are outgoing and will experiment freely and frequently while learning a new language. Other students are more introverted, preferring a more individual, private approach to the way they learn and practice the language. The strategies used by an outgoing student may vary significantly when compared with the strategies of a more reserved student.

Language learning strategies have been classified by many scholars. However, most of their attempts to classify language learning strategies reflect more or less the same categorizations of language learning strategies without any radical changes or differences. According to (R.Oxford, 1990), they can be divided into two large groups:

I. Direct strategies:

a) memory strategies – by means of which students store information into long-term memory and then retrieve it whenever necessary (making correspondences, word building, connecting new information with already acquired one);

b) cognitive strategies – through which students form internal mental models and produce messages in the target language (repetitions, making associations, summarizing, paraphrasing, visualization);

c) compensation strategies – through which students succeed to communicate despite differences in their knowledge (using gestures, guessing, using graphic organizers).

II. Indirect strategies:

a) *metacognitive strategies* – through which students think about the learning task (identification of the problem, planning, monitoring the task, evaluating knowledge)
b) *affective strategies* – help students get control over their feelings, emotions, motivations, attitudes, values).
c) *social strategies* – through which students establish, maintain interactions with others.

When all these strategies are integrated, they develop:

- functional competences: organizing, structuring, restructuring, putting knowledge into practice;
- socio-linguistic competences: working in groups, cooperating, taking decisions, negotiating meanings;
- psychosocial competence;
- autonomous learning;
- critical/creative thinking;
- competences of evaluation and self-evaluation;
- reflective activity;
- metacognitive competencies [38 p.43]

Oxford sees the aim of language learning strategies as being oriented towards the development of communicative competence. He divides language learning strategies into two main classes, which are further subdivided into groups. In his system, metacognitive strategies help learners to regulate their learning. Affective strategies are concerned with learners' emotional requirements such as confidence, while social strategies lead to increased interaction with the target language. Cognitive strategies are the mental strategies learners use to make sense of their learning, memory strategies are those used for storage of information, and compensation strategies help learners to overcome knowledge gaps to continue communication.

1.6 Language learning theories (LLT)

The main purpose of theories of second-language acquisition (SLA) is to shed light on how people who already know one language learn a second language. The field of second-language acquisition involves various contributions, such as linguistics, sociolinguistics, psychology, cognitive science, neuroscience, and education. These multiple fields in second-language acquisition can be grouped as four major research strands:

- linguistic dimensions of SLA;
- cognitive (but not linguistic) dimensions of SLA;
- socio-cultural dimensions of SLA; and

- the instructional dimensions of SLA.

While the orientation of each research strand is distinct, they are in common in that they can guide us to find helpful condition to facilitate successful language learning. Acknowledging the contributions of each perspective and the interdisciplinarity between each field, more and more second language researchers are now trying to have a bigger lens on examining the complexities of second language acquisition. Language Learning Theories are generally classified into three main groups:

1. *Language-centered theories* stress the idea that the learner is responding to environmental stimuli and through reinforcement, behavior will be shaped.

Behaviorism is a learning theory that only focuses on objectively observable behaviors and discounts any independent activities of the mind. Behavior theorists define learning as nothing more than the acquisition of new behavior based on environmental conditions. Its main influences were I. Pavlov, who investigated classical conditioning, John B. Watson who rejected introspective methods and sought to restrict psychology to experimental laboratory methods, B.F.Skinner who sought to give ethical grounding to behaviorism, relating it to pragmatism.

Behaviorists identify *conditioning* as a universal learning process. They believed the essence of learning was developed in terms of stimulus-response association through habit formation, operant conditioning, and reinforcement with an emphasis on successful error-free learning in small and prepared steps and stages. Then, habits would be formed, reinforced, and strengthened by drill practice and imitation.

Teachers with a behaviorist mindset take classroom as a teacher-centered environment, with teachers, textbooks, and other enrichment materials as the major source of knowledge. They regard curricula as the intensified teaching guideline, in which text-based exercises are designed and developed with intentional guidance, regular repetition and review, and increasing difficulty levels. According to Bloom (1956) and Gagné (1965), constant repetition and consideration are necessary for the effective reinforcement of responses and able to reproduce the whole. Behaviorist theory of learning addresses more the process than the condition of learning, featuring the principles as follows:

- Language learning is habit formation;
- Mistakes are bad and should be avoided, as they make bad habits;
- Language skills are learned more effectively if they are presented orally first, then in written form;
- Analogy is a better foundation for language learning than analysis;
- The meaning of words can be learned only in a linguistic and cultural context.

2. *Learner-centered theories* bring into light the importance of the mental processes that activate the responses of the learner and this represents the basis

of learning a language. Language is considered a gradual process made by stages and influenced by the active role the learners are expected to play.

Cognitivism became the dominant force in psychology in the late 20th century, replacing behaviorism as the most popular paradigm for understanding mental function. Cognitive psychology is not a wholesale refutation of behaviorism, but rather an expansion that accepts that mental states exist. This was due to the increasing criticism towards the end of the 1950s of simplistic learning models. One of the most notable criticisms was Noam Chomsky's argument that language could not be acquired purely through conditioning, and must be at least partly explained by the existence of internal mental states.

Learning is not about the mechanics of what a learner does, but rather a process depending on what the learner already knows (existing information) and their method of acquiring new knowledge (how they integrate new information into their existing schemas). Knowledge acquisition is an activity consisting of internal codification of mental structures within the student's mind. Inherent to the theory, the student must be an active participant in their own learning process. Cognitive approaches mainly focus on the mental activities of the learner like mental planning, goal setting, and organizational strategies. According to cognitive theories not only the environmental factors and instructional components play an important role in learning. There are additional key elements like learning to code, transform, rehearse, and store and retrieve the information. Learning process includes learner's thoughts, beliefs, and attitude values.

3. *Learning-centered theories* view language developed as being: incidental, not intentional; based on meaning and comprehension; a cyclical process.

Constructivism views learning as an interpretive, recursive, and nonlinear process by active learners' interacting with the surroundings of the physical and social world. Two schools of constructivism prevail, namely *cognitive constructivism* and *sociocultural constructivism*. Cognitive constructivism stems from the work of J. Piaget, featuring the individual learning process and how a person constructs and develops his knowledge through experience. Sociocultural constructivism, developed by L.S.Vygotsky, emphasizes the social context of learning.

There is no absolute knowledge about learning, just interpretations of it. The acquisition of knowledge therefore requires the individual to consider the information and - based on their past experiences, personal views, and cultural background - construct an interpretation of the information that is being presented to them. Students 'construct' their own meaning by building on their previous knowledge and experience. New ideas and experiences are matched against existing knowledge, and the learner constructs new or adapted rules to make sense of the world. In such an environment the teacher cannot be in charge of the stu-

dents' learning, since everyone's view of reality will be so different and students will come to learning already possessing their own constructs of the world.

Teaching styles based on this approach therefore mark a conscious effort to move from these 'traditional, objectivist models didactic, memory-oriented transmission models' to a more student-centred approach. Main constructivist assumptions are:

- Learning is perceived as an active process, where knowledge is constructed, not acquired;
- Knowledge construction is based on personal experiences and the continual testing of hypotheses;
- Each person has a different interpretation and construction of knowledge process, based on past experiences and cultural factors;
- Emphasis is on the collaborative nature of learning and the importance of sociocultural context;
- Cognitive functions are believed to originate in, and are explained as products of social interactions;
- Learning is more than the assimilation of new knowledge by learners; it was the process by which learners were integrated into a knowledge community.

Humanistic approaches to learning are based on the principles of humanism and are founded most notably on the work of Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. They center on the learner as an individual and consider that learning is not just about the intellect, but also about educating the "whole person," taking a person's interests, goals, and enthusiasm into account, so that full potential can be achieved. This approach to learning is student centered, with learners encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning and being intrinsically, rather than extrinsically motivated. The primary goal of a humanistic education is human well-being, including the primacy of human values, the development of human potential, and the acknowledgment of human dignity. Main assumptions of humanism are:

- We have free will. Personal agency is the humanistic term for the exercise of free will. Personal agency means that we are free to make our own choices and choose our own path in life.
- People are basically good. The approach is optimistic about our ability to be caring, creative and kind.
- We all want to improve (or grow) as people. Becoming the best person you can be is called self-actualization.
- The person knows what is best for them. Because we all have our own way of looking at the world, only we know the right decision for us to make.

4. Multiple intelligences theory

According to Howard Gardner, Professor of Education at Harvard Univer-

sity, people have different strengths and intelligences. Gardner's early work in psychology and later in human cognition and human potential led to the development of the initial six intelligences. Today there are nine intelligences and the possibility of others may eventually expand the list. These intelligences (or competencies) relate to a person's unique aptitude set of capabilities and ways they might prefer to demonstrate intellectual abilities.

1. *Verbal-linguistic intelligence*: well-developed verbal skills and sensitivity to the sounds, meanings and rhythms of words.

2. *Logical-mathematical intelligence*: ability to think conceptually and abstractly, and capacity to discern logical and numerical patterns.

3. *Spatial-visual intelligence*: capacity to think in images and pictures, to visualize accurately and abstractly.

4. *Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence*: ability to control one's body movements and to handle objects skillfully.

5. *Musical intelligences*: ability to produce and appreciate rhythm, pitch and timber.

6. *Interpersonal intelligence*: capacity to detect and respond appropriately to the moods, motivations and desires of others.

7. *Intrapersonal:* capacity to be self-aware and in tune with inner feelings, values, beliefs and thinking processes.

8. *Naturalist intelligence*: ability to recognize and categorize plants, animals and other objects in nature.

9. *Existential intelligence*: sensitivity and capacity to tackle deep questions about human existence such as: What is the meaning of life? Why do we die? How did we get here?

Gardner's multiple intelligences theory can be used for curriculum development, planning instruction, selection of course activities, and related assessment strategies. Instruction which is designed to help students develop their strengths can also trigger their confidence to develop areas in which they are not as strong. Students' multiple learning preferences can be addressed when instruction includes a range of meaningful and appropriate methods, activities, and assessments. Taking the above information into account, some key dimensions of language learning include the following:

- Learning is both *intra*personal (i.e. takes place within the individual) and *inter*personal (i.e. accomplished socially in interaction with others). It is also personal in the sense of pertaining to the person, shaping who they are and their identity. The most important point here is that learning is about personal meaning-making – how children and young people make meaning within themselves and with others, in and through learning.
- Learning is developmental – that is, a continuous process where students engage with increasing complexity.

- Learning builds on prior knowledge and cannot occur without attending to students' prior conceptions/misconceptions.
- Learning is interactive where interaction is focused on meaning-making. Learning is mediated primarily through language – all the languages of the students' repertoires.
- Feedback is critical to learning – students need to know where they stand and what they need to do and understand in order to take the next steps in their learning.
- Learning involves transfer; it needs to be applied in diverse contexts. Through use in different situations, with different participants etc, students learn how to adjust their learning to the particular local context, circumstances and requirements.
- Learning is self-awareness and relates to metacognition (i.e. learners being aware of how they learn, and why they learn as they do).

These characteristics of learning are also features of *intercultural* language learning.

1.7 Language teaching

Current trends in the teaching of foreign languages aim to increase the quality of communication among the citizens of different language and cultural backgrounds. Present trends in the teaching of foreign languages attempt to react to new challenges and changes in education. Most recent trends in the teaching of foreign languages include:

- *The teaching focuses on the student*. The teacher is becoming a co-learner. This trend is influenced by humanistic pedagogy and psychology with an emphasis on the creative potential of each individual and his/her ability to change himself/herself. This understanding is undoubtedly influencing the changing roles of teacher and student in education.
- The concept of *autonomous learning* is being implemented. Learners are seen as individuals who can and should be autonomous, i.e. be responsible for their own learning climate. Moreover, autonomous education helps students to develop their self-awareness, vision, practicality and freedom of discussion. These attributes serve to aid a student in his/her independent learning.
- *Collaborative* or *cooperative* learning is being advocated. Cooperative/collaborative learning consists of a range of concepts and techniques for enhancing the value of student-student interaction. However, this type of learning requires the mastering of collaborative communication skills, e.g. agreeing politely, making compromises, explaining.... If learners succeed in their acquisition, then they are well equipped not only for language

learning but for their future career. One of the common examples of collaborative learning in the learning of foreign languages is project work, which enables students to learn together for a purpose other than to get a high score on an exam.

- *Curricula subjects are being integrated*. That means that students use not only their acquired knowledge but also their skills across curricula. This type of learning is exploited while teaching a curricular subject through the medium of a foreign language.
- *Diversity*. This aspect might be understood as the mix of students a teacher has in his/her classrooms in terms of student background, e.g., ethnic, religious, social class and their first language, sex, achievement levels, learning styles, intelligences and learning strategies. Moreover, the boundaries between the directed learning process and the individual processes of learning a foreign language are vanishing. Foreign language teaching does not represent one teaching method anymore and only one textbook, but a learner is exposed to a number of interactive incentives and teaching methods, such as project teaching or teaching with the help of new information and communication technologies.
- *Teaching methods* are closely interconnected with the latest scientific knowledge from the field of neurolinguistics and psycholinguistics. An example might be an interest in one's self in connection with the research of motivation.
- The *concept of multiculturalism* is being promoted. Its aim is to make students more sensitive and open to other nationalities and their culture and consequently to make them aware of their own culture, values and beliefs.
- The *concept of multilingualism* is being implemented. This means that besides the native language, each EU citizen should master another two foreign languages. In practice such a concept requires new teaching methods and wider content teaching.
- The learning of foreign languages is perceived as a *lifelong process*. Such a process should already involve pre-school learning and extend right through to learning in later life, but it should also cover various professional and personal needs.

Teaching process is a complex one and its main components are considered to be the acts of:

- planning a lesson;
- presenting and explaining the new material in a clear and comprehensible for learning way, taking into account the age of the students and their level of knowledge;
- checking comprehension through different techniques;

- providing practice in order to help better understanding, consolidate learning and improve performance;
- offering feedback during o after the practice stage;
- testing;
- evaluating;
- reflection (taking decisions for what is to come).

Until the 80's, the main interest in teaching was the teacher's role, on the methods s/he used and the effectiveness of the procedures. The perspective has changed nowadays and the process received the name "learner-centered teaching'. The difference between the two can be noticed in the following table:

Table 1.7.1 Differences between two approaches

Teacher-centered teaching	Learner-centered teaching
The center of interest is the teacher and the responsibilities.	The focus is on students needs, aims, preferences, as well as on the learning process.
The teacher establishes the activities, interactions and forms of evaluation.	The students have an active role in learning: they solve problems, discuss, explain, debate, they may decide upon different activities that better fit to their needs.
The focus is on classroom management, the teacher's explanations, manners of teaching.	The teacher encourages students' mental processes, learning strategies, imagination and autonomy.
The teacher initiates exchanges and controls the class.	Students interact naturally, they open and close conversations.
The student has little possibility to take initiative and to experiment.	Language learning is integrated with students' life experience.
The teacher shows little flexibility.	The teacher shows flexibility and adaptability to students and situations.
Common methods are demonstration, direct instruction, lecturing.	Students learn through a variety of communicative activities, they are involved actively.
It is the teacher who evaluates the responses.	The teacher encourages students' self-evaluation.
The teacher acts as an organizer or an instructor.	The teacher is a facilitator, a monitor, a guide or participant in different types of activities.

[4, p.45]

In conclusion, both theory and practice show that learning is a complex process, dependent on the understanding and expertise of the individual teacher faced with the individual students with his/ her different learning needs and strategies. Knowledge construction with the aim of allowing learners to develop

greater flexibility and awareness on communicative, linguistic, and learning levels needs to be part of any materials design.

REFLECTION

1. How does your learning style benefit to you? How can it help you interact with others?
2. Why do you think repetition is important for the learning process?
3. Think of some techniques that may raise students' attention.
4. Why is it important to make use of students' daily personal experience?
5. Describe two ways your teacher of English motivated you during the lessons. Which of them seemed to be the most effective?
6. Is there a relationship between students' learning style and the language learning strategy preferences?
7. Is there a difference in the language learning strategy preferences of the students based on their gender?
8. Why do you think collaboration and cooperation are important for the teaching-learning process?

TASKS FOR INDEPENDENT WORK

1. Analyze the roles of the teacher in a classroom. Take a closer look at what being a teacher means in the 21st century.
2. Relate on the differences in teaching beginning, intermediate and advanced levels.
3. Students can use the application https://padlet.com/ to help them present the material.

UNIT 2.
THE EVOLUTION OF TEACHING APPROACHES AND METHODS

2.1 Introduction

Teaching involves a continuous analysis of one's own work, the experiences of other teachers and the search for new means to improve teaching. When teaching a foreign language a teacher must think about the specific qualities offered to students of a certain mother tongue. That means that the methodology of teaching English has to take into account the problems posed by the English language for the students who will learn it.

Teaching English stands in relation with several challenges or problems:

- *What to teach?* That means the amount of knowledge, skills and habits that students have to obtain within the process of learning the language.
- *What are the aims of teaching?* When a teacher is sure of the aim of teaching, s/he will have the easiness of reaching the intended goal.
- *How to teach?* In this case one can call to mind the principles upon which teaching of English is based, the means, methods, fashion and tactics used in teaching in order to achieve the required final completion.

The answers to these questions define the echelon of didactics as a science. As a consequence it determines the nature of the problems to be dealt with.

On the other hand, foreign language teaching can be characterized as any deliberate endeavor to promote foreign language learning by manipulating the components and mechanisms of learning and/or the conditions under which these operate. This deliberately broad definition covers an extensive variety of pedagogic and instructional approaches, methods, strategies, techniques, practices, and activities, all of which can be applied in an extensive variety of settings, although most typically in a foreign language classroom setting.

As a part of language teaching theories, they all derived partly from social, economic, political, or educational circumstances, partly from theoretical consideration (new changes in language theories and in new psychological perspective on language learning), partly from practical experience, intuition, and inventiveness. Therefore, to some degree, they represent a combination of language teaching beliefs, but it is evident that they are characterized by the over-emphasis on single aspects as the central issue of language teaching and learning. Each approach or method has an articulated theoretical orientation and a collection of strategies and learning activities designed to reach the specified goals and achieve the learning outcomes of the teaching and learning processes.

2.2 The concepts of approach, method, procedure and technique

An *approach (paradigm)* refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serves as the source of practices and principles in language teaching. Theories also inform this level: for instance a structural view — the view that language is a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning; the functional view — language as a function of meaning in communication and the view that language is for interaction (interactionist). These provide a particular framework that may motivate a particular teaching method. These theories are derived from the areas of linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and are the source of principles and practices of language teaching. Despite the fact there are so many educational theorists, there are three generally accepted labels that they all fall under - *Behaviorism, Cognitivism* and *Constructivism*. In other words, an approach to language teaching describes:

- the nature of language;
- how knowledge of a language is acquired;
- conditions that promote language acquisition.

A method is a practical implementation of an approach. A theory is put into practice at the level a method. It includes decisions about:

- particular skills to be taught;
- roles of the teacher and the learner in language teaching and learning;
- appropriate procedures and techniques;
- content to be taught;
- order in which the content will be presented.

It also involves a specific syllabus organization, choices of the materials that will boost learning, and the means to assess learners and evaluate teaching and learning. It is a sort of an organizing plan that relies on the philosophical premises of an approach.

A procedure is an ordered set of techniques. They are the step-by-step measures to execute a method. A common procedure in the grammar-translation method, for example, is to start by explaining the grammar rules and exemplifying these rules through sentences that the students then had to translate into their mother tongue. According to J. Harmer (2001), a procedure is "smaller than a method and larger than a technique."

A technique refers to the actual moment-to-moment classroom steps that lead to a specified outcome. Implementing a procedure necessitates certain practices and behaviors that operate in teaching a language according to a particular method. The technique represents the actual implementation of a method in the classroom. It is a particular thing of doing things to accomplish

an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method which in turn must be in harmony with an approach. They are the actual moment-to-moment classroom steps that lead to a specified outcome. Every procedure is realized through a series of techniques. They could take the form of an exercise or just any activity that you have to do to complete a task. For instance, when using videos, teachers often use a technique called "silent viewing" which consists of playing the video without sound and asking students to figure out what the characters were saying.

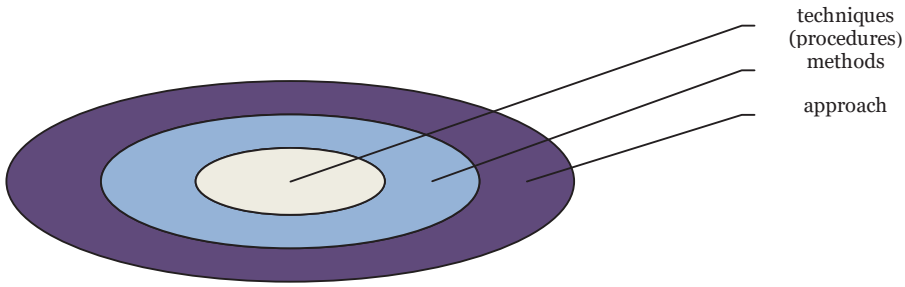
Table 2.2.1 Method implementation through techniques

SPECIFIC TEACHING METHODS	TECHNIQUES
Expository lecture Expository teaching is a teaching strategy where the teacher presents students with the subject matter rules and provides examples that illustrate the rules. It involves presenting clear and concise information in a purposeful way that allows students to easily make connections from one concept to the next.	explanations
	rule-example technique
	clarifications
	deductive arguments
	interpreting
	illustrations
	questioning
	diagrams, models, analogies, stories, outlines, summaries, reviewing, conceptual organizers,
Discussions Lecture-discussion is the teaching strategy that is designed to help students understanding the organized body of knowledge, i.e. the topics that relate the facts, concepts, principles, and procedures, and make the relationship between them explicit and clear (Eggen & Kauchak, 2007; Rosenshine, 1987). Core of the lecture-discussion is a repetitive cycle of presenting the information and monitoring the comprehension combined with integration. After the first cycle was complete, the second cycle occurs, then the third cycle, and so on until the learning ended. Each cycle includes a brief presentation, the monitoring of comprehension, presentation, and integration (Eggen & Kauchak, 2012).	guiding questions
	panel discussions
	group interviews
	group discussions
	debates
	dialogues
	role-play
	demonstrations
	illustrations

Demonstration Demonstration emphasizes telling, explaining, and showing. Its basic purpose is to prepare the learner for problem-solving. It makes a great deal of use of illustrations, visual aids, opportunity for questions, and demonstrations.	demonstrations
	chalk and talk
	role-play
	questions framing
	experimentation
	clustering
	examples
	survey
	simulation
	experimental exercises
	diagrams, models, analogies, stories, outlines, summaries, reviewing, conceptual organizers,
Problem solving Problem-based learning (PBL) is a method of educating learners that combines theoretical knowledge with practical activities. The process engages participants in considering complex and challenging issues and encourages them towards finding an appropriate solution. The expectation is that participants will have the motivation to learn because the problem scenarios are based on real-life situations found in the workplace.	brainstorming
	brainsketching
	brainwriting
	cubing
	Mind Map
	SWOT analysis
	case study
	panel discussion
	portfolio
	Woods' problem-solving model
	diagrams, models, analogies, stories, outlines, summaries, reviewing, consceptual organizers,
Discovery learning Discovery learning is a kind of teaching that is based on the students finding things out for themselves, looking into problems, and asking questions. Essentially, it is all about students coming to their own conclusions and asking about things in their course that might not make particular sense. Obviously, as soon as enquiries are made, they can learn new things and hence will have become part of an innovative, thought-provoking and interesting educational journey.	academic controversy
	constructive controversy
	debates
	guided discovery
	student projects
	scientific enquiry
	experimenting
	case study
	panel discussion
	exploration
	group research
	diagrams, models, analogies, stories, outlines, summaries, reviewing, conceptual organizers,

How do all of these relate? Different theories about the nature of language and how languages are learned (the approach) imply different ways of teaching language (the method) and different methods make use of different kinds of classroom activities (the techniques).

Figure 2.2.1 The relation between the approach, methods and tecniques



In the English language teaching pedagogy the two key terms *method* and *approach* are used frequently and interchangeably. Sometimes, the term 'method' refers to the overall plan for the orderly presentations of language material, no part of which contradicts and all of which are based on a selected approach and procedure. The term 'method' is sometimes compared with the term 'approach'. According to Yardi (2009), method is rigid while approach is more flexible.

An approach can also refer to *assumptions*. An approach is a set of correlative assumptions about the nature of language and language learning. An approach is treating something in a certain way. *Teaching approach* is teacher's personal philosophy of teaching, a set of assumptions (why). It is something that reflects a certain model or research paradigm, a set of theories and principles. *Learning approach* is the way teachers view the learning process, in which there are learning strategies with all theories. According to this view, learning approaches can be divided into three approaches are *student-centered approach, teacher-centered approach* and *learning process-centered approach*.

A method can also be considered as a way of learning that must be taken to realize the plan that has been a teacher in real and practical activities in the classroom to achieve learning activities. Thus, *a strategy* is "a plan for achieving goals" while the method is "a way for achieving goals". A method is a plan for presenting the language material to be learned and should be based upon a selected approach. The method is also defined as a habitual, logical, or prescribed practice or systematic process of achieving certain and results which accuracy and efficiency, usually in a preordained sequence of steps/techniques, a set of procedures that describe how to teach a language. A method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradict, and all of which is based upon the selected approach.

To sum up, the skill of a second language teacher lies in selecting an approach, a method, and a technique in view of the learner's educational, social and economic background; the curricula and the textbooks prescribed, and the goals/objectives to be achieved. A modern second language teacher should be flexible enough to swift to multiple approaches so as to enable him / her to make learning effective. Teaching a foreign language has always been a deep concern for language teachers. There are endless discussions about which language teaching method they should use in their class and which method is superior to the others.

2.3 Early and mid-twentieth-century methods (structural methods)

Grammar-Translation Method, the earliest approach in language teaching, accepted until the 1950s. The method displays the following characteristics:

- Language should be taught by deduction, through rules and lists.
- Students develop grammatical proficiency through memorization of linguistic paradigms.
- Use of translation into and out of the target language (TL), as a main technique in teaching and as a means of putting knowledge into practice.
- Much attention is paid to meaning, little attention is given to pronunciation.
- Learning is facilitated through finding an emphasizing similarities between the TL and source language) SL.
- Attention is given to reading and writing, rather than to speaking and listening, communicative skills are not emphasized.
- Literary language is considered superior to spoken language.
- Interactions between students are not encouraged; this means that interactional skills cannot be developed.
- The ability to communicate in the TL is not a goal of the language instruction.
- Emphasis is put on grammar, rather than on learning to use grammar.

Direct Method (Charles Berlitz, early 1900's) is linked with the introduction of phonetics and the interest in the spoken language.

- No use of mother tongue, the instruction is exclusively in the target language, translation is not encouraged.
- The meaning of words is explained through direct presentation, demonstration of pictures, intuition, visual aids.
- Abstract notions are explained through free associations, paraphrase, guessing from the context, the use of synonyms/antonyms.
- Pronunciation is considered an important component of language learning.

- Attention is given to speaking and to written language.
- Grammar is learnt through much practice, only in the TL.
- Teacher and student are partners in the teaching-learning process.
- Accuracy is important in both vocabulary and grammar.

Audio-Lingual Method (1950's) is based on conditioning and on behaviorism.

- Focus on listening and speaking that precede reading and writing.
- A speech-based instruction, aiming at oral proficiency.
- Use of vocabulary that belongs to everyday life activities that is taught through demonstrations or the use of objects.
- Abstract vocabulary is taught through association of ideas, accurate pronunciation and grammar.
- Reading and writing should be developed in close relation with speaking, listening plays an important place in language learning.
- Basic classroom activities are pattern practice and drills: repetition, replacement, expansion, contraction, completion, they are practiced until the response is automatic.
- Dialogues are among favorite strategies, they are memorized and the role-played.
- Students play a reactive role, they respond to stimuli.
- The role of the teacher is very important; s/he models the TL, controls the direction and pace of learning, monitors and corrects the performance.
- Activities are interesting and challenging, there is cooperation between teacher and student.
- Tape recorders and audio-visual equipment have a central role.

The Audio Visual Method (E.Dale) is based on the assumption that foreign language is basically a mechanical process and it is more effective if spoken form precedes written form.

- It is based on linguistics and psychology.
- It recognizes the importance of habit formation; achieved through exercises based on repetition and memorization.
- Information is conveyed via auditory and visual stimuli: photos, cards, posters, videos, DVDS etc.
- Emphasis is on speaking and listening as a means to communicate.
- This method is interested in how to use the language in order to communicate, so both vocabulary and grammar are introduced in context.
- The main idea is that language should be learnt in its natural forms.
- The focus is not on vocabulary but on grammatical structures which are acquired through drills and pattern practice.
- Students become familiar with everyday language while using it when talking about general topics.

2.4 Designer methods

The designer methods (Humanistic Approaches, 1970-1980's) were influenced by principles of psychology and psychotherapy.

Total Physical Response method (James J. Asher) states that the language can be learned through physical activities n a relaxed atmosphere.

- Students react to language without thinking too much.
- Imperative drills are the basic activities.
- The objective is to teach oral proficiency at a beginning level.
- The teacher acts as a controller of language and an instructor, s/he utters imperative forms that include vocabulary and grammar.
- Students act as listeners and performers first, than they listen to instructions and respond physically, little by little they learn commands and instructions and are able to use them on their own.

The Silent Way (Caleb Gattegno) – learning is facilitated and more effective when students discover things by themselves, rather than remember or repeat and perform solving activities in which physical objects are used.

- The teacher must be as silent as possible in the classroom.
- Language is presented to students as structural patterns, students learn the rules.
- Language is learned through inductive processes.
- On the basis of teachers models of words, structures and patterns, student create their own utterances.
- Correction is minimal, students are allowed to correct themselves, thus developing autonomy and responsibility for their own learning.
- The teacher encourages the students to use the new structures in situations.

Community Language Learning (Ch. Arthur Curran) - the classroom is the office in which the counselor meets the client, the atmosphere is based on warmth, trust, mutual understanding.

- Human learning is understood as having both cognitive and affective components.
- The interaction is the goal of language learning, the students can decide what is to be learned, so the teacher is a supporter.
- The class should become a community of learning in which students learn how to display linguistic knowledge and behavioral skills, emotions and feelings.
- Recommended activities are: reflection, observation, group work, free conversations, analysis and translations.

Suggestopedia (Georgi Lozanov, 1970's). Lozanov suggests that the human brain could process great quantities of material if simply given the right condi-

tions for learning, among which are a state of relaxation and giving over the control of the teacher. Music is central to this method. This method transcends the language classroom and can be applied in other school subjects. He claims that about 200 to 240 new words may be introduced each lesson. The teachers' role is to create situations and then to introduce the linguistic material.

- Learning is facilitated in an environment that is as comfortable as possible, featuring soft cushioned seating and dim lighting.
- "Peripheral" learning is encouraged through the presence in the learning environment of posters and decorations featuring the target language and various grammatical information.
- The teacher assumes a role of complete authority and control in the classroom.
- Self-perceived and psychological barriers to learners' potential to learn are "de-suggested".
- Students are encouraged to be child-like, take "mental trips with the teacher" and assume new roles and names in the target language in order to become more "suggestible".
- Baroque music is played softly in the background to increase mental relaxation and potential to take in and retain new material during the lesson.
- Students work from lengthy dialogs in the target language, with an accompanying translation into the students' native language.
- Errors are tolerated, the emphasis being on content and not structure. Grammar and vocabulary are presented and given treatment from the teacher, but not dwelt on.

Cognitive Code Approach (J.B.Carrol) – the study of a foreign language is a complex problem that involves not only behavior (habits), but mental processes (memory, problem solving).

- Language is considered to be a coherent and meaningful system and students are expected to understand it.
- It rejected the habit formation. There is language acquisition rather than habit formation.
- Lessons are based on deductive processes.
- Conscious study of grammar rules is considered essential.
- Creativity is stimulated.

Functional approach - importance should be given to what people want to do with the language (functions) or to what meanings people want to convey (notions).

- Communication is a meaningful behavior that manifests itself in a social and cultural context.
- Language teaching is organized in terms of content: language functions (persuading, agreeing, informing, arguing) and notions (such as time, quantity, location, motion).

- Students need to be encouraged to express their opinions, emotions, feelings freely, using authentic language.
- Emphasis is on the communicative purpose of speech.
- Teacher's role is to develop students' competence to use the language; testing is less controlled and more subjective.
- Testing is less controlled and more subjective.

2.5 More recent methods to language teaching

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT, 1980's) is an approach to language teaching that gained traction in the 1980s. It developed mainly as a reaction to the limitations of previous methods which put little emphasis on the ability to communicate or to interact. It was also influenced by developments in the way the language was described – taking into account the communicative function of language, i.e. that we use language to do things like suggest, invite, agree, request, criticize, predict, etc.

The approach emphasizes the importance of all four language skills and aims to achieve communicative competence (rather than linguistic competence) through considerable learner interaction and communication of "real" meaning. It is an approach that tends to promote fluency over accuracy, the functional over the structural and authentic materials over fabricated materials. Communication is seen as both the goal and the means. CLT is sometimes called the Communicative Approach (CA), and this may indeed be a better term since it is more a philosophy than a specific method. But whether called CLT or CA, the main idea is real, functional communication.

According to *Communicative Language Teaching*, the goal of language education is the ability to communicate in the target language. This is in contrast to previous views in which grammatical competence was commonly given top priority. It also focuses on the teacher being a facilitator, rather than an instructor. Furthermore, the approach is a non-methodical system that does not use a textbook series to teach the target language, but rather works on developing sound oral/verbal skills prior to reading and writing. The approach displays the following characteristics:

- Understanding occurs through active student interaction in the foreign language.
- Teaching occurs by using authentic English texts.
- Students not only learn the second language but they also learn strategies for understanding.
- Importance is given to learners' personal experiences and situations which are considered as an invaluable contribution to the content of the lessons.

- Using the new language in unrehearsed contexts creates learning opportunities outside the classroom.
- Fluency is an important dimension of communication.
- Communication involves the integration of different language skills.
- Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error.

Typical features of a *Communicative Language Teaching* lesson are**:**

- Use of target language/some mother tongue;
- Presentation by teacher of new functional language, vocabulary or structure;
- Practice by learners moving from controlled to spontaneous;
- Real-life interactive activities including information gap, role-play, worksheets and activity cards, games, use of authentic materials and realia;
- Development of actual listening, speaking, reading and writing, pairwork / group-work.

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) also known as *task-based instruction* (TBI, N.Prabhu) focuses on the use of authentic language and on asking students to do meaningful tasks using the target language. Such tasks can include visiting a doctor, conducting an interview, or calling customer service for help. Assessment is primarily based on task outcome (in other words the appropriate completion of real-world tasks) rather than on accuracy of prescribed language forms. This makes *Task-based language teaching* especially popular for developing target language fluency and student confidence. As such, it can be considered a branch of *communicative language teaching* (CLT). Most recent trends in *Task-based language teaching* include:

- Teachers need to determine the area of interest and a task (similar to what people do in everyday life), then they set the objectives for the lesson, check the thematic and the linguistic content of the lesson, then assess it.
- The area of interest is similar to what people do in everyday life.
- Activities are characterized by variety and flexibility, the teacher encourages their work.
- Students learn through an inductive approach, are open to conversation by expressing their thoughts and feelings openly.
- The role of the teacher changes from that of an instructor and prosecutor of errors to that of a supporter and inventor of tasks which her/his learners enjoy doing.

Structural Approach (SA) stresses the importance of structures which are carefully selected and graded. Structural grading consists of arranging the structural items or patterns into a suitable order. In this approach the basis of teaching is structures and patterns of English. The selected and graded structures are presented in a text book and taught through classroom situations, actions, gestures, pictures, blackboard drawings, etc. The teacher is expected to give choral,

group and individual oral drills based on certain structural patterns in order to reinforce and consolidate the language items taught.

The Structural Approach has certain inherent weaknesses; for instance, it is more concerned with the selection and gradation of language items to be taught than with the presentation of the same in the classroom. It just helps in course-designing. The drills presented through this approach are not only generally meaningless but also lawfully boring and mechanical. Conclusively speaking, the approach develops learner's structural competence to some extent but fails in developing their communicative competence. The principles underlying the structural approach are as following:

- Language is primarily speech.
- Learning a language is learning a set of habits.
- Structural approach can be easily adopted at all stages.
- Structural approach rightly assigns primacy to speech and also called aural-oral approach.
- It is based on the principle of simple to complex.
- This approach junctions by developing learning situations for pushing desired structure.

The Structural Approach is usually connected with the oral approach. The best way to learn a language, even if the main aims are the skills of reading and writing, is through the oral presentation of the new material by the teacher. It is linked with the repetitive drill method. People believe that through drills, a new word or structure gets fixed in the students mind. By miming and memorization of set phrases and sentences used by the teacher, pupils form the correct language habits. Importance is given to pronunciation through the use of tapes and the visual aids. There is a very little or no explanation of grammar of the language. Drills are varied by using new objects, but keeping the basic structure unchanged.

2.6 Eclectic theory of language

The eclectic method is a language teaching method that combines various approaches and methods to teach language depending on the objectives of the course and the abilities of the learners. It is also known as mixed methods. This method was first used in 1920s-1930s by English linguists, Henry Sweet and Harold Palmer. Then, Larsen-Freeman (2000) and Mellow (2000) began to use the term "principle declecticism". In their opinion, the principle declecticism is a desirable, consistent and pluralistic language teaching method.

The eclectic method is a combination of different teaching and learning methods and approaches. This method is an effective method for students at all ages and levels. Learning is fun and innovative because of the unique struc-

ture of the process (Kumar, 2013). According to Tarone and Yule (1989), this method is quite democratic, because it gives a chance to the teacher for selection. The eclectic method provides teachers with a third option, because it combines the elements of traditional and cognitive methods to make them both strong. It includes the integration of content, structuring of information, reduction of prejudice, pedagogy of equality and strengthening of competitiveness. Teachers should help children learn to control their own mental processes and to use them effectively. Teaching a foreign language should be simple for both teachers and learners and should be within the abilities of all teachers.

This method is called as eclectic method, because it takes and uses the useful parts of each method. The teacher chooses the method s/he will use according to the need and purpose. This method in which the students are active is a method that attracts interest and desire towards the learnt language in the students and it appeals to more than one sense. When the activities of the students are organized, techniques such as demonstration, question-answer, drama, simulation, group work and games are used (Barın, 1994). The principles of the eclectic method are:

- Language should be taught in target language. The native language of the student should also be included when necessary.
- It should be taken into consideration that there is a relationship between motivation and the learning of the learner when the language learning is not desired by the students and is not sufficient in terms of time.
- Word usage should be started early and words should be used in sentences. Vocabulary items should be taught in context.
- Communication-oriented activities should be conducted, less time should be spent for mechanical repetitions.
- Language teaching should be appropriate to the scientific field of the student.
- Four language skills should be included together.
- Teaching should be from easy to hard and from concrete to abstract.
- Individual differences among the students should be taken into consideration.

2.7 Traditional versus modern approaches

For effective teaching to take place, a good method must be adopted by a teacher. A teacher has many options when choosing a style by which to teach. When deciding what teaching method to use, a teacher needs to consider students' background, knowledge, environment, and learning goals. Teachers are aware that students learn in different ways, but almost all children will respond well to praise. Teachers often use techniques which cater to multiple learning

styles to help students retain information and strengthen understanding. A variety of strategies and methods are used to ensure that all students have equal opportunities to learn.

Table 2.8.1 Traditional approaches /methods versus modern approaches / methods

CHARACTERISTICS OF TRADITIONAL APPROACHES / METHODS	CHARACTERISTICS OF MODERN APPROACHES / METHODS
Language is understood as a system of forms and structures that need to be learnt.	Language is seen as a means of expressing meaning through form. The goal of foreign language teaching is communicative ability
The student has mostly a passive form, receiving the input.	The student has an active role, taking part in his/her development as a language learner.
Emphasis is on the cognitive domain.	Emphasis is both on cognitive and affective domains, students do not only learn things, they are also encouraged to express feelings and attitudes.
Students' learning is supported by extrinsic motivation.	Teachers develop intrinsic motivation in students.
Classes are mainly based on competition.	Students work in pairs or groups through cooperative activities and mutual support.
Teaching is followed by regular testing from the part of the teacher.	The teacher resorts to little testing.
The role of the teachers is that of the instructor, knowledge provider and class controller.	The teacher is a facilitator, monitor, guide, co-participant and learner.
Learning is based on memory practice.	Learning acquires a new dimension; it is made through discovery.
Creative expression and spontaneity are not encouraged.	Accent is on students' creativity, imagination and critical thinking.
Errors in language use are corrected by the teacher the moment they are produced, as accuracy is important in language learning.	Learning is understood as a dynamic process and errors are seen as natural steps in acquiring the language.
The basic model of teaching is PPP, presentation, practice, production.	The basic model of teaching is Task-based Learning (TBL).
Basic teaching techniques are presentation, explanation, demonstration.	New techniques are used: brainstorming, role-play, simulation, information transfer, problem- solving.
	Inductive learning is stimulated. It includes inquiry-based learning, problem-based learning, project - based learning.

[5, p. 54-55]

Almost all the approaches are known under the name of *humanistic approaches*. This term is used for methods in which the following principles are considered important:

- Development of human values;
- Growth in self-awareness and in the understanding of others;
- Sensitivity to human feelings and emotions;
- Active students' involvement in learning and in the way learning takes place.

The development of the students' personalities and the encouragement of positive feelings are considered to be as important as the learning of a language. The humanistic teacher should have some objectives to follow: to be honest, to show understanding to the students and their needs, to encourage students, to be patient and to encourage cooperation in the class, to create a relaxed atmosphere. The suggested activities that can contribute to their fulfillment are:

- to lower students inhibition through: guessing games, role play, songs, group work, story-telling, brainstorming, debates;
- to encourage risk taking (teachers need to praise the students efforts, to use fluency exercises where errors are not corrected on the spot, not to interrupt students flow of thought; to give out-of-class assignments;
- to build students self-confidence and to believe in their abilities;
- to help develop the intrinsic motivation of students.

REFLECTION

1. Select a method and speak about what you like/dislike about it.
2. Choose one characteristics you consider the strong/weak point of this approach. Motivate your choice.
3. What is the role habit formation plays in the teaching-learning process?
4. Do you agree with the idea of minimal correction in the lesson? Why/ not?
5. Do you agree with the idea of the teacher being silent as much as possible? Name advantages/disadvantages.
6. Think of some possible ways to encourage students to state their opinions and talk about their experiences in front of the classmates.
7. What strategies did your teachers use to lower student inhibition in the language class?

- Clear presentation of the objectives;
- Student-centered activities;
- Showing flexibility in teaching;
- Giving a lot of encouragement and praise;

- Repeating instructions in a different way;
- Correction of mistakes at the end of the activity.

TASKS FOR INDEPENDENT WORK

1. Define the role of the *Communicative Language Teaching Approach* for developing learners' communicative competence.
2. Illustrate how the eclectic approach can benefit to language teaching.
3. Students can use the application https://jamboard.google.com/ to help them present the material.

UNIT 3.
THE COMMON EUROPEAN FRAMEWORK OF REFERENCE FOR LANGUAGES (CEFRL)

3.1 Introduction

The Council of Europe's activities to promote plurilingualism, linguistic diversity and language learning in the field of education are carried out within the framework of the European Cultural Convention, (1954) ratified by 49 states.

The Language Policy Programme (Strasbourg) with the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML - Graz, Austria) - both in the Education Department - and the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages together provide a common approach within the framework of the Council of Europe for dealing with language issues.

- *The Language Policy Programme* which is managed in Strasbourg is responsible to all member states for the development of policy and guidelines to promote linguistic diversity and plurilingualism, and of reference instruments for policy planning and standards. Co-operation programmes have been carried out for over six decades in an intergovernmental framework. They concern not only modern languages, but also languages of schooling and the integration of migrants.
- *The European Center for Modern languages* is an Enlarged Partial Agreement of the Council of Europe created in 1994 in Graz, Austria, which has membership to date of 33 of the 47 Council of Europe member states. Its activities are complementary to those developed in Strasbourg: "*the Centre has as its mission the implementation of language policies and the promotion of innovative approaches to the learning and teaching of modern languages*" (Article 1 of its statute).
- *The European Charter for regional or Minority Languages* is the European convention for the protection and promotion of languages used by traditional minorities. Together with the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities it constitutes the Council of Europe's commitment to the protection of national minorities.

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFRL) is a well-known example of close and concrete co-operation between the Language Policy Programme and the *European Center for Modern languages* (ECML), through projects for training teachers and teacher trainers in the use of the CEFR, and in examination of aspects of assessment.

Consequently, the activities of the Council for Cultural Co-operation (CDCC), its Committee for Education and its Modern Languages Section, have been con-

cerned to encourage, support and co-ordinate the efforts of member governments and nongovernmental institutions to improve language learning in accordance with these fundamental principles and in particular the steps which they take to implement the general measures. These actions reaffirm the political objectives of its actions in the field of modern languages:

- To equip all Europeans for the challenges of intensified international mobility and closer co-operation not only in education, culture and science but also in trade and industry;
- To promote mutual understanding and tolerance, respect for identities and cultural diversity through more effective international communication;
- To maintain and further develop the richness and diversity of European cultural life through greater mutual knowledge of national and regional languages, including those less widely taught;
- To meet the needs of a multilingual and multicultural Europe by appreciably developing the ability of Europeans to communicate with each other across linguistic and cultural boundaries, which requires a sustained, lifelong effort to be encouraged, put on an organized footing and financed at all levels of education by the competent bodies;
- To avert the dangers that might result from the marginalization of those lacking the skills necessary to communicate in an interactive Europe.

Particular urgency was attached to these objectives by the First Summit of Heads of State, which identified xenophobia and ultra-nationalist backlashes as a primary obstacle to European mobility and integration, and as a major threat to European stability and to the healthy functioning of democracy. The second summit made preparation for democratic citizenship a priority educational objective, thus giving added importance to a further objective pursued in recent projects, namely to promote methods of modern language teaching which will strengthen independence of thought, judgement and action, combined with social skills and responsibility.

In the light of these objectives, the Committee of Ministers stressed 'the political importance at the present time and in the future of developing specific fields of action, such as strategies for diversifying and intensifying language learning in order to promote plurilingualism in a pan-European context' and drew attention to the value of further developing educational links and exchanges and of exploiting the full potential of new communication and information technologies.

3.2 What is 'plurilingualism'?

In recent years, the concept of plurilingualism has grown in importance in the Council of Europe's approach to language learning. *Plurilingualism* is the

ability of a person who has competence in more than one language to switch between multiple languages depending on the situation for ease of communication. Plurilinguals practice multiple languages and are able to switch between them when necessary without too much difficulty. Although plurilingualism is derived from *multilingualism* (also referred to as bilingualism), there is a difference between the two. Multilingualism is connected to situations wherein multiple languages exist side-by-side in a society but are utilized separately. In essence, multilingualism is the coexisting knowledge of separate languages while plurilingualism is the interconnected knowledge of multiple languages. Multilingualism may be attained by simply diversifying the languages on offer in a particular school or educational system, or by encouraging pupils to learn more than one foreign language, or reducing the dominant position of English in international communication.

The plurilingual approach emphasizes the fact that as an individual person's experience of language in its cultural contexts expands, from the language of the home to that of society at large and then to the languages of other peoples (whether learnt at school or college, or by direct experience), s/he does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a *communicative competence* to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact. In different situations, a person can call flexibly upon different parts of this competence to achieve effective communication with a particular interlocutor.

From this perspective, the aim of language education is no longer seen as simply to achieve 'mastery' of one or two, or even three languages, each taken in isolation, with the 'ideal native speaker' as the ultimate model. Instead, the aim is to develop a linguistic repertory, in which all linguistic abilities have a place. This implies, of course, that the languages offered in educational institutions should be diversified and students given the opportunity to develop. Furthermore, once it is recognized that language learning is *a lifelong task*, the development of a young person's motivation, skill and confidence in facing new language experience out of school comes to be of central importance. The responsibilities of educational authorities, qualifying examining bodies and teachers cannot simply be confined to the attainment of a given level of proficiency in a particular language at a particular moment in time, important though that undoubtedly is.

For this purpose, CEF not only provides a scaling of overall language proficiency in a given language, but also a breakdown of language use and language competences which will make it easier for practitioners to specify objectives and describe achievements of the most diverse kinds in accordance with the varying needs, characteristics and resources of learners.

3.3 Common European Framework

The Common European Framework provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe. It describes in a comprehensive way what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively. The description also covers the cultural context in which language is set. The Framework also defines levels of proficiency which allow learners' progress to be measured at each stage of learning and on a life-long basis.

The Common European Framework is intended to overcome the barriers to communication among professionals working in the field of modern languages arising from the different educational systems in Europe. It provides the means for educational administrators, course designers, teachers, teacher trainers, examining bodies, etc., to reflect on their current practice, with a view to situating and coordinating their efforts and to ensuring that they meet the real needs of the learners for whom they are responsible. By providing a common basis for the explicit description of objectives, content and methods, the Framework will enhance the transparency of courses, syllabuses and qualifications, thus promoting international co-operation in the field of modern languages. The provision of objective criteria for describing language proficiency will facilitate the mutual recognition of qualifications gained in different learning contexts, and accordingly will aid European mobility. Main objectives of the CEFR are:

- Promoting plurilingualism and diversification in the choice of languages in the curriculum;
- Supporting the development and demonstration of the plurilingual profile of individual learners;
- Developing and reviewing the content of language curricula and defining positive 'can do' descriptors adapted to the age, interests and needs of learners;
- Designing and developing textbooks and teaching material;
- Supporting teacher education and cooperation among teachers of different languages;
- Enhancing quality and success in learning, teaching and assessment;
- Facilitating transparency in testing and the comparability of certifications.

The CEFR is therefore a flexible tool to be adapted to the specific context of use – a fundamental aspect fully reflected in the level system which can be adapted and exploited flexibly for the development of learning /teaching objectives and for assessment. This flexibility may be seen in the development of Reference Level Descriptions (RLDs) for particular languages and contexts. The uses of the Framework include:

1. *The planning of language learning programmes* in terms of*:*
- their assumptions regarding prior knowledge, and their articulation with earlier learning, particularly at interfaces between primary, lower secondary, upper secondary and higher/further education;
- their objectives;
- their content.

2. *The planning of language certification* in terms of:
- the content syllabus of examinations;
- assessment criteria, in terms of positive achievement rather than negative deficiencies.

3. *The planning of self-directed learning, including*:
- raising the learner's awareness of his or her present state of knowledge;
- self-setting of feasible and worthwhile objectives;
- selection of materials;
- self-*assessment*.

4. *Learning programmes and certification* can be*:*
- global, bringing a learner forward in all dimensions of language proficiency and communicative competence;
- modular, improving the learner's proficiency in a restricted area for a particular purpose;
- weighted, emphasizing learning in certain directions and producing a 'profile' in which a higher level is attained in some areas of knowledge and skill than others;
- partial, taking responsibility only for certain activities and skills (e.g. reception) and leaving others aside.

The Common European Framework is constructed so as to accommodate these various forms. In considering the role of a common framework at more advanced stages of language learning it is necessary to take into account changes in the nature of needs of learners and the context in which they live, study and work. They have to be well defined, properly adapted to national situations and embrace new areas, particularly in the cultural field and more specialized domains. In addition, a considerable role may be played by modules or clusters of modules geared to the specific needs, characteristics and resources of learners.

3.4 An action-oriented approach

A comprehensive, transparent and coherent frame of reference for language learning, teaching and assessment must relate to a very general view of language use and learning. This approach is an action-oriented as it views users and learners of a language primarily as 'social agents', i.e. members of society who have tasks (not exclusively language-related) to accomplish in a given set of circumstances, in a spe-

cific environment and within a particular field of action. While acts of speech occur within language activities, these activities form part of a wider social context, which alone is able to give them their full meaning. The action-based approach therefore also takes into account the cognitive, emotional and volitional resources and the full range of abilities specific to and applied by the individual as a social agent. Accordingly, any form of language use and learning could be described as follows:

Language use, embracing language learning, comprises the actions performed by persons who as individuals and as social agents develop a range of ***competences,*** *both* ***general*** *and in particular* ***communicative language competences****. They draw on the competences at their disposal in various* ***contexts*** *under various conditions and under various constraints to engage in* ***language activities*** *involving language processes to produce and/or receive texts in relation to themes in specific* ***domains,*** *activating those* ***strategies*** *which seem most appropriate for carrying out the* ***tasks*** *to be accomplished. The monitoring of these actions by the participants leads to the reinforcement or modification of their competences.* [68 p.9]

- *Competences* are the sum of knowledge, skills and characteristics that allow a person to perform actions.
- *General competences* are those not specific to language, but which are called upon for actions of all kinds, including language activities.
- *Communicative language competences* are those which empower a person to act using specifically linguistic means.
- *Context* refers to the constellation of events and situational factors (physical and others), both internal and external to a person, in which acts of communication are embedded.
- *Language activities* involve the exercise of one's communicative language competence in a specific domain in processing (receptively and/or productively) one or more texts in order to carry out a task.
- *Language processes* refer to the chain of events, neurological and physiological, involved in the production and reception of speech and writing.
- *Text* is any sequence or discourse (spoken and/or written) related to a specific domain and which in the course of carrying out a task becomes the occasion of a language activity, whether as a support or as a goal, as product or process.
- *Domain* refers to the broad sectors of social life in which social agents operate. A higher order categorization has been adopted here limiting these to major categories relevant to language learning/teaching and use: the educational, occupational, public and personal domains.
- *A strategy* is any organized, purposeful and regulated line of action chosen by an individual to carry out a task which s/he sets for himself or herself or with which s/he is confronted.

- *A task* is defined as any purposeful action considered by an individual as necessary in order to achieve a given result in the context of a problem to be solved, an obligation to fulfil or an objective to be achieved. This definition would cover a wide range of actions such as moving a wardrobe, writing a book, obtaining certain conditions in the negotiation of a contract, playing a game of cards, ordering a meal in a restaurant, translating a foreign language text or preparing a class newspaper through group work.

Learners, teachers, course designers, authors of teaching material and test designers are inevitably involved in the process of focusing on a particular dimension and deciding on the extent to which other dimensions should be considered. It is clear, however, that although the often stated aim of a teaching/learning programme is to develop communication skills, certain programmes in reality strive to achieve a qualitative or quantitative development of language activities in a foreign language, others stress performance in a particular domain, yet others the development of certain general competences, while others are primarily concerned with refining strategies.

3.5 General competences and communicative language competences

The *general competences* of language learners consist in particular of their *knowledge, skills* and *existential competence* and also their *ability to learn*.

Knowledge, i.e. declarative knowledge is understood as knowledge resulting from experience (empirical knowledge) and from more formal learning (academic knowledge). All human communication depends on a shared knowledge of the world. Academic knowledge in a scientific or technical educational field and academic or empirical knowledge in a professional field clearly have an important part to play in the reception and understanding of texts in a foreign language relating to those fields. Empirical knowledge relating to day-to-day living (organization of the day, mealtimes, means of transport, communication and information), in the public or private domains is, however, just as essential for the management of language activities in a foreign language.

Knowledge of the shared values and beliefs held by social groups in other countries and regions, such as religious beliefs, taboos, assumed common history, etc., are essential to *intercultural communication*. These multiple areas of knowledge vary from individual to individual. They may be culture-specific, but nevertheless also relate to more universal parameters and constants. Any new knowledge is not simply added onto the knowledge one had before but is conditioned by the nature, richness and structure of one's previous knowledge and, furthermore, serves to modify and restructure the latter, however partially. Clearly, the knowledge which an individual has already acquired is directly rel-

evant to language learning. However, in certain contexts (e.g. immersion, attending school or university where the language of tuition is not one's mother tongue), there is simultaneous and correlated enrichment of linguistic and other knowledge. Careful consideration must then be given to the relationship between knowledge and communicative competence.

Skills and *know-how* (knowledge of the methods or techniques of doing something, especially something technical or practical), whether it be a matter of driving a car, playing the violin depend more on the ability to carry out procedures than on knowledge, but this skill may be facilitated by the acquisition of 'forgettable' knowledge and be accompanied by forms of existential competence (for example relaxed attitude or tension in carrying out a task). Thus, in the example quoted above, driving a car, which through repetition and experience becomes a series of almost automatic processes, initially requires an explicit break-down of conscious operations and the acquisition of certain facts which one does not have to consciously think about once one 'knows how to drive'. Once the skills have been mastered, the driver can be expected to be much more at ease and self-confident; otherwise this would be disconcerting for passengers and other motorists. Clearly, it would not be difficult to draw parallels with certain aspects of language learning (e.g. pronunciation and some parts of grammar, such as inflexional morphology).

Existential competence (savoir-être) may be considered as the sum of the individual characteristics, personality traits and attitudes which concern, for example, self-image and one's view of others and willingness to engage with other people in social interaction. This type of competence is not seen simply as resulting from personality characteristics. It includes factors which are the product of various kinds of acculturation and may be modified. These personality traits, attitudes and temperaments are parameters which have to be taken into account in language learning and teaching. Accordingly, even though they may be difficult to define, they should be included in a framework of reference. They are considered to be part of an individual's general competences and therefore an aspect of his or her abilities. In so far as they are capable of being acquired or modified in use and through learning (for example, of one or more languages), attitude formation may be an objective. Existential competences are culture-related and therefore sensitive areas for intercultural perceptions and relations: the way one member of a specific culture expresses friendliness and interest may be perceived by someone from another culture as aggressive or offensive.

Ability to learn (savoir apprendre) mobilizes existential competence, declarative knowledge and skills, and draws on various types of competence. Ability to learn may also be conceived as 'knowing how, or being disposed, to discover "otherness"' – whether the other is another language, another culture, other people or new areas of knowledge. Depending on the learners in question, the

ability to learn may involve varying degrees and combinations of such aspects of existential competence, declarative knowledge and skills and know-how as:

- Existential competence: willingness to take initiatives or even risks in face-to-face communication, so as to afford oneself the opportunity to speak, to prompt assistance from the people with whom one is speaking, such as asking them to rephrase what they have said in simpler terms, etc; also listening skills, attention to what is said, heightened awareness of the risks of cultural misunderstanding in relations with others.
- Declarative knowledge: it refers to facts or information stored in the memory that is considered static in nature. Declarative knowledge, also referred to as *conceptual, propositional* or *descriptive* knowledge, describes things, events, or processes; their attributes; and their relation to each other. It is contrary to procedural or implicit knowledge, which refers to the knowledge of how to perform or operate. Typical items of declarative knowledge might include: that Princess Diana died in 1997; that Goethe was 83 when he finished writing Faust; that there is a village in Hertfordshire, England, called Ugley.
- Skills and know-how: e.g. facility in using a dictionary or being able to find one's way easily around a documentation centre; knowing how to manipulate audiovisual or computer media (e.g. the Internet) as learning resources.

For the same individual there can be many variations in the use of skills and know-how and the ability to deal with the unknown:

- Variations according to the *event*, depending on whether the individual is dealing with new people, a totally unknown area of knowledge, an unfamiliar culture, a foreign language.
- Variations according to *context*: faced with the same event (e.g. parent/child relationships in a given community), the processes of discovery and seeking meaning will doubtless be different for an ethnologist, tourist, missionary, journalist, educator or doctor, each acting according to his or her own discipline or outlook.
- Variations according to the *prevailing circumstances* and *past experience*: it is quite probable that the skills applied in learning a fifth foreign language will be different from those applied in learning the first.

Such variations should be considered alongside concepts such as 'learning styles' or 'learner profiles' as long as the latter are not regarded as being immutably fixed once and for all. For learning purposes, the strategies selected by the individual in order to accomplish a given task will depend on the diversity of the various abilities to learn at his/her disposal, and of his/her ability to learn.

Communicative language competence

Communicative language competence can be considered as comprising several components: *linguistic, sociolinguistic* and *pragmatic*. Each of these components is postulated as comprising, in particular, knowledge and skills and know-how.

Linguistic competences include lexical, phonological, syntactical knowledge and skills and other dimensions of language as system. This component relates not only to the range and quality of knowledge (e.g. in terms of phonetic distinctions made or the extent and precision of vocabulary) but also to cognitive organization and the way this knowledge is stored (e.g. the various associative networks in which the speaker places a lexical item) and to its accessibility (activation, recall and availability). Knowledge may be conscious and its organization and accessibility will vary from one individual to another and vary also within the same individual (e.g. for a plurilingual person depending on the varieties inherent in his or her plurilingual competence). It can also be held that the cognitive organization of vocabulary and the storing of expressions, etc. depend, amongst other things, on the cultural features of the community or communities in which the individual has been socialized and where his or her learning has occurred.

Sociolinguistic competences refer to the sociocultural conditions of language use. Through its sensitivity to social conventions (rules of politeness, norms governing relations between generations, sexes, classes and social groups, linguistic codification of certain fundamental rituals in the functioning of a community), the sociolinguistic component strictly affects all language communication between representatives of different cultures, even though participants may often be unaware of its influence.

Pragmatic competences are concerned with the functional use of linguistic resources (production of language functions, speech acts), drawing on scenarios or scripts of interactional exchanges. It also concerns the mastery of discourse, cohesion and coherence, the identification of text types and forms, irony, and parody. For this component even more than the linguistic component, it is hardly necessary to stress the major impact of interactions and cultural environments in which such abilities are constructed. All the categories used here are intended to characterize areas and types of competences internalized by a social agent, i.e. internal representations, mechanisms and capacities, the cognitive existence of which can be considered to account for observable behavior and performance. At the same time, any learning process will help to develop or transform these same internal representations, mechanisms and capacities.

The language learner/user's communicative language competence is activated in the performance of the various *language activities*, involving *reception, production, interaction* or *mediation* (in particular interpreting or translating). Each of these types of activity is possible in relation to texts in oral or written form, or both.

As processes, *reception* and *production* (oral and/or written) are obviously primary, since both are required for interaction. Receptive activities include silent reading and following the media. They are also of importance in many forms

of learning (understanding course content, consulting textbooks, works of reference and documents). Productive activities have an important function in many academic and professional fields (oral presentations, written studies and reports) and particular social value is attached to them (judgements made of what has been submitted in writing or of fluency in speaking and delivering oral presentations).

In *interaction* at least two individuals participate in an oral and/or written exchange in which production and reception alternate and may in fact overlap in oral communication. Not only may two interlocutors be speaking and yet listening to each other simultaneously. Even where turn-taking is strictly respected, the listener is generally already forecasting the remainder of the speaker's message and preparing a response. Learning to interact thus involves more than learning to receive and to produce utterances. High importance is generally attributed to interaction in language use and learning in view of its central role in communication.

In both the receptive and productive modes, the written and/or oral activities of *mediation* make communication possible between persons who are unable, for whatever reason, to communicate with each other directly. Translation or interpretation, a paraphrase, summary or record, provides for a third party a (re) formulation of a source text to which this third party does not have direct access. Language activities are contextualized within *domains*. These may themselves be very diverse, but for most practical purposes in relation to language learning they may be broadly classified as fourfold: *the public domain, the personal domain, the educational domain* and *the occupational domain*.

The public domain refers to everything connected with ordinary social interaction (business and administrative bodies, public services, cultural and leisure activities of a public nature, relations with the media, etc.). Complementarily, the personal domain comprises family relations and individual social practices. The occupational domain embraces everything concerned with a person's activities and relations in the exercise of his or her occupation. The educational domain is concerned with the learning/training context (generally of an institutional nature) where the aim is to acquire specific knowledge or skills.

3.6 The CEFR: a turning point

Launched in 2001, the CEFR marked a major turning point as it can be adapted and used for multiple contexts and applied for all languages. The CEFR is based on all these achievements and has developed a description of the process of mastering an unknown language by type of competence and sub-competence, using descriptors for each competence or sub-competence, on which we shall not go into further detail here. These descriptors were created without reference to any specific language, which guarantees their relevance

and across-the-board applicability. The descriptors specify progressive mastery of each skill, which is graded on a six-level scale (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2).

Table 3.6.1 Common Reference Levels: global scale

PROFICIENT USER	C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarize information from different spoken or written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him-/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning. Can express him-/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
INDEPENDENT USER	B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex texts on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialization. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce a clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes, ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
BASIC USER	A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce himself/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people and known things. Can interact in a simple way provided other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

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It is desirable that the common reference points are presented in different ways for different purposes. For some purposes it will however be appropriate to summarize the set of proposed Common Reference Levels in a table. Such representation will make it easier to communicate the system to non-specialist users and will provide teachers and curriculum planners with orientation points.

In order to orient learners, teachers and other users within the educational system for some practical purpose, a more detailed overview is necessary. The *self-assessment grid* illustrates the levels of proficiency described in CEFR. Table 3.6.2 is a draft for a self-assessment orientation tool intended to help learners to profile their main language skills, and decide at which level they might look at a checklist of more detailed descriptors in order to self-assess their level of proficiency.

Table 3.6.2 Common Reference Levels: self-assessment grid

		A1	A2	B1
UNDERSTANDING	**Listening**	I can recognize familiar words and very basic phrases concerning myself, my family and immediate concrete surroundings when people speak slowly and clearly	I can understand phrases and the highest frequency vocabulary related to areas of most immediate personal relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local area, employment). I can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements.	I can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. I can understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear.
	Reading	I can understand familiar names, words and very simple sentences, for example on notices and posters or in catalogues.	I can read very short, simple texts. I can find specific, predictable information in simple everyday material such as advertisements, prospectuses, menus and timetables and I can understand short simple personal letter	I can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency every day or job-related language. I can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters.

SPEAKING	**Spoken interaction**	I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say. I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.	I can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar topics and activities. I can handle very short social exchanges, even though I can't usually understand enough to keep the conversation going myself.	I can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events)
	Spoken production	I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.	I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people, living conditions, my educational background and my present or most recent job.	I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.
WRITING	**Writing**	I can write a short, simple postcard, for example sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.	I can write short, simple notes and messages relating to matters in areas of immediate needs. I can write a very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.	I can write simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.

		B2	C1	C2
UNDERSTANDING	**Listening**	I can understand extended speech and lectures and follow even complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. I can understand most TV news and current affairs programmes. I can understand the majority of films in standard dialect	I can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. I can understand television programmes and films without too much effort.	I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language, whether live or broadcast, even when delivered at fast native speed, provided I have some time to get familiar with the accent.
	Reading	I can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. I can understand contemporary literary prose.	I can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. I can understand specialized articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field.	I can read with ease virtually all forms of the written language, including abstract, structurally or linguistically complex texts such as manuals, specialized articles and literary works.
SPEAKING	**Spoken interaction**	I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views.	I can express myself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. I can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution skilfully to those of other speakers.	I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. If I do have a problem I can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it.
	Spoken production	I can present clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to my field of interest. I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.	I can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.	I can present a clear, smoothly-flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context and with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points.

WRITING	**Writing**	I can write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view. I can write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences.	I can express myself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. I can write about complex subjects in a letter, an essay or a report, underlining what I consider to be the salient issues. I can select style appropriate to the reader in mind.	I can write clear, smoothly-flowing text in an appropriate style. I can write complex letters, reports or articles which present a case with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points. I can write summaries and reviews of professional or literary works.

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The chart in the following table was designed to assess *spoken performances*. It focuses on different qualitative aspects of language use.

Table 3.6.3 Qualitative aspects of spoken language use

	RANGE	**ACCURACY**	**FLUENCY**	**INTERACTION**	**COHERENCE**
C2	Shows great flexibility reformulating ideas in differing linguistic forms to convey finer shades of meaning precisely, to give emphasis, to differentiate and to eliminate ambiguity. Also has a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms	Maintains consistent grammatical control of complex language, even while attention is otherwise engaged (e.g. in forward planning, in monitoring others' reactions).	Can express him/herself spontaneously at length with a natural colloquial flow, avoiding or backtracking around any difficulty so smoothly that the interlocutor is hardly aware of it	Can interact with ease and skill, picking up and using non-verbal and intonational cues apparently effortlessly. Can interweave his/her contribution into the joint discourse with fully natural turn taking, referencing, allusion making etc.	Can create coherent and cohesive discourse making full and appropriate use of a variety of organizational patterns and a wide range of connectors and other cohesive devices.

C1	Has a good command of a broad range of language allowing him/ her to select a formulation to express him/ herself clearly in an appropriate style on a wide range of general, academic, professional or leisure topics without having to restrict what he/she wants to say.	Consistently maintains a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors are rare, difficult to spot and generally corrected when they do occur.	Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language.	Can select a suitable phrase from a readily available range of discourse functions to preface his remarks in order to get or to keep the floor and to relate his/her own contributions skilfully to those of other speakers.	Can produce clear, smoothly-flowing, well-structured speech, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
B2	Has a sufficient range of language to be able to give clear descriptions, express viewpoints on most general topics, without much conspicuous searching for words, using some complex sentence forms to do so.	Shows a relatively high degree of grammatical control. Does not make errors which cause misunderstanding, and can correct most of his/ her mistakes.	Can produce stretches of language with a fairly even tempo; although he/she can be hesitant as he or she searches for patterns and expressions, there are few noticeably long pauses.	Can initiate discourse, take his/ her turn when appropriate and end conversation when he / she needs to, though he /she may not always do this elegantly. Can help the discussion along on familiar ground confirming comprehension, inviting others in, etc.	Can use a limited number of cohesive devices to link his/ her utterances into clear, coherent discourse, though there may be some "jumpiness" in a long contribution
B1	Has enough language to get by, with sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some hesitation and circumlocutions on topics such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events.	Uses reasonably accurately a repertoire of frequently used "routines" and patterns associated with more predictable situations.	Can keep going comprehensibly, even though pausing for grammatical and lexical planning and repair is very evident, especially in longer stretches of free production.	Can initiate, maintain and close simple face-to-face conversation on topics that are familiar or of personal interest. Can repeat back part of what someone has said to confirm mutual understanding.	Can link a series of shorter, discrete simple elements into a connected, linear sequence of points.

A2	Uses basic sentence patterns with memorized phrases, groups of a few words and formulae in order to communicate limited information in simple everyday situations.	Uses some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes.	Can make him/herself understood in very short utterances, even though pauses, false starts and reformulation are very evident.	Can answer questions and respond to simple statements. Can indicate when he/she is following but is rarely able to understand enough to keep conversation going of his/her own accord.	Can link groups of words with simple connectors like "and, "but" and "because".
A1	Has a very basic repertoire of words and simple phrases related to personal details and particular concrete situations.	Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a memorized repertoire.	Can manage very short, isolated, mainly prepackaged utterances, with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words, and to repair communication	Can ask and answer questions about personal details. Can interact in a simple way but communication is totally dependent on repetition, rephrasing and repair.	Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like "and" or "then".

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Scaled descriptors are provided for aspects of linguistic competence and pragmatic competence, and for sociolinguistic competence.

3.7 Content coherence in Common Reference Levels

• *Level A1* is considered the lowest level of generative language use. This is the point at which the learner can interact in a simple way, ask and answer simple questions about themselves, where they live, people they know, and things they have, initiate and respond to simple statements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics, rather than relying purely on a very finite rehearsed, lexically organized repertoire of situation-specific phrases.

• *Level A2*

It is at this level that the majority of descriptors stating social functions are to be found, like use simple everyday polite forms of greeting and address; greet people, ask how they are and react to news; handle very short social exchanges; ask and answer questions about what they do at work and in free time; make and

respond to invitations; discuss what to do, where to go and make arrangements to meet; make and accept offers. Here too are to be found descriptors on getting out and about: the simplified cut-down version of the full set of transactional specifications for adults living abroad, like: make simple transactions in shops, post offices or banks; get simple information about travel; use public transport: buses, trains, and taxis, ask for basic information, ask and give directions, and buy tickets; ask for and provide everyday goods and services.

The next band represents a strong *(A2+) performance*. What is noticeable here is more active participation in conversation given some assistance and certain limitations, for example: initiate, maintain and close simple, restricted face-to-face conversation; understand enough to manage simple, routine exchanges without undue effort; make him/herself understood and exchange ideas and information on familiar topics in predictable everyday situations, provided the other person helps if necessary; communicate successfully on basic themes if s/he can ask for help to express what he wants to; deal with everyday situations with predictable content, though s/he will generally have to compromise the message and search for words; interact with reasonable ease in structured situations, given some help, but participation in open discussion is fairly restricted; plus significantly more ability to sustain monologues, for example: express how s/he feels in simple terms; give an extended description of everyday aspects of his/her environment e.g. people, places, a job or study experience; describe past activities and personal experiences; describe habits and routines; describe plans and arrangements; explain what s/he likes or dislikes about something; give short, basic descriptions of events and activities; describe pets and possessions; use simple descriptive language to make brief statements about and compare objects and possessions.

• *Level B1* reflects the level specification for a visitor to a foreign country and is perhaps most categorized by two features.

The first feature is the ability to maintain interaction and get across what you want to, in a range of contexts, for example: generally follow the main points of extended discussion around him/her, provided speech is clearly articulated in standard dialect; give or seek personal views and opinions in an informal discussion with friends; express the main point he/she wants to make comprehensibly; exploit a wide range of simple language flexibly to express much of what he or she wants to; maintain a conversation or discussion but may sometimes be difficult to follow when trying to say exactly what he/she would like to; keep going comprehensibly, even though pausing for grammatical and lexical planning and repair is very evident, especially in longer stretches of free production.

The second feature is the ability to cope flexibly with problems in everyday life, for example cope with less routine situations on public transport; deal with most situations likely to arise when making travel arrangements through an

agent or when actually travelling; enter unprepared into conversations on familiar topics; make a complaint; take some initiatives in an interview/consultation (e.g. to bring up a new subject) but is very dependent on interviewer in the interaction; ask someone to clarify or elaborate what they have just said.

The subsequent band seems to be a strong *(B1+)*. The same two main features continue to be present, with the addition of a number of descriptors which focus on the exchange of quantities of information, for example: take messages communicating enquiries, explaining problems; provide concrete information required in an interview/consultation (e.g. describe symptoms to a doctor) but does so with limited precision; explain why something is a problem; summarize and give opinion about a short story, article, talk, discussion, interview, or documentary and answer further questions of detail; carry out a prepared interview, checking and confirming information, though he/she may occasionally have to ask for repetition if the other person's response is rapid or extended; describe how to do something, giving detailed instructions; exchange accumulated factual information on familiar routine and non-routine matters within his/her field with some confidence

• *Level B2* is intended to reflect to show how the learner finds he/she has arrived somewhere, things look different, s/he acquires a new perspective, can look around him/her in a new way. This concept does seem to be borne out to a considerable extent by the descriptors calibrated at this level. They represent quite a break with the content so far. For example at the lower end of the band there is a focus on effective argument: account for and sustain his opinions in discussion by providing relevant explanations, arguments and comments; explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options; construct a chain of reasoned argument; develop an argument giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view; explain a problem and make it clear that his/her counterpart in a negotiation must make a concession; speculate about causes, consequences, hypothetical situations; take an active part in informal discussion in familiar contexts, commenting, putting point of view clearly, evaluating alternative proposals and making and responding to hypotheses.

Secondly, running right through the level there are two new focuses. The first is being able to more than hold your own in social discourse: e.g. converse naturally, fluently and effectively; understand in detail what is said to him/her in the standard spoken language even in a noisy environment; initiate discourse, take his/her turn when appropriate and end conversation when he/she needs to, though he/she may not always do this elegantly; use stock phrases (e.g. 'That's a difficult question to answer') to gain time and keep the turn whilst formulating what to say; interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without imposing strain on either

party; adjust to the changes of direction, style and emphasis normally found in conversation; sustain relationships with native speakers without unintentionally amusing or irritating them or requiring them to behave other than they would with a native speaker.

The second new focus is a new degree of language awareness: correct mistakes if they have led to misunderstandings; make a note of 'favourite mistakes' and consciously monitor speech for it/them; generally correct slips and errors if he/she becomes conscious of them; plan what is to be said and the means to say it, considering the effect on the recipient/s.

A strong *(B2+) performance* focuses on argument, effective social discourse and on language awareness. However, the focus on argument and social discourse can also be interpreted as a new focus on discourse skills. This new degree of discourse competence shows itself in conversational management (cooperating strategies): give feedback on and follow up statements and inferences by other speakers and so help the development of the discussion; relate own contribution skilfully to those of other speakers. It is also apparent in relation to coherence/cohesion: use a limited number of cohesive devices to link sentences together smoothly into clear, connected discourse; use a variety of linking words efficiently to mark clearly the relationships between ideas; develop an argument systematically with appropriate highlighting of significant points, and relevant supporting detail. Finally, it is at this band that there is a concentration of items on negotiating: outline a case for compensation, using persuasive language and simple arguments to demand satisfaction; state clearly the limits to a concession.

• *Level C1* was labelled Effective Operational Proficiency. What seems to characterize this level is good access to a broad range of language, which allows fluent, spontaneous communication, as illustrated by the following examples: Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Has a good command of a broad lexical repertoire allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions. There is little obvious searching for expressions or avoidance strategies; only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language. The discourse skills characterising the previous band continue to be evident at Level C1, with an emphasis on more fluency, for example: select a suitable phrase from a fluent repertoire of discourse functions to preface his remarks in order to get the floor, or to gain time and keep it whilst thinking; produce clear, smoothly flowing, well-structured speech, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.

• *Level C2* has been termed 'Mastery', is not intended to imply native-speaker or near native-speaker competence. What is intended is to characterize the degree of precision, appropriateness and ease with the language which typifies the speech of those who have been highly successful learners. Descriptors calibrated

here include: convey finer shades of meaning precisely by using, with reasonable accuracy, a wide range of modification devices; has a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms with awareness of connotative level of meaning; backtrack and restructure around a difficulty so smoothly the interlocutor is hardly aware of it.

In conclusion, the Common Reference Levels can be presented and exploited in a number of different formats, in varying degrees of detail. Yet the existence of fixed points of common reference offers transparency and coherence, a tool for future planning and a basis for further development. The intention of providing a concrete illustrative set of descriptors, together with criteria and methodologies for the further development of descriptors, is to help decision-makers design applications to suit their contexts.

REFLECTION

1. What is the purpose of the CEFR?
2. Where do the Common Reference Levels come from?
3. What claim to validity do the illustrative descriptors have?
4. How can the CEFR be used for curriculum design?
5. Why is the CEFR called an action-oriented approach?

TASKS FOR INDEPENDENT WORK

Project work: in groups students can learn how to assess spoken performances by focusing on the qualitative aspects of spoken language used after a speaking activity in class (Table 3.6.3). The teacher supports students in developing the ability to express themselves with precision and clarity, while encouraging them to communicate and to take risks.

UNIT 4.
CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

4.1 Introduction

Classroom management (CM) represents the way a teacher organizes the classroom, learners and the whole teaching process in order to make the lesson effective. The concept refers to management techniques used in the classroom and the activities to be performed. It also refers to all those activities necessary to create and maintain an orderly learning environment such as planning and preparation of materials, organization, classroom decoration, the establishment and enforcement of routines and rules. It is linked to issues of motivation, discipline and respect; it aims at encouraging and establishing student self-control through a process of promoting positive student achievement and behavior and involves planning, organization; control of learners, of learning process for creating an effective learning experience. There are two common goals of the CM:

1. To create and maintain a positive and productive learning environment;
2. To support and foster a safe classroom community.

Teachers play various roles in a typical classroom, but surely one of the most important is that of classroom manager. Effective teaching and learning cannot take place in a poorly managed classroom. Effective teachers appear to be effective with students of all achievement levels regardless of the levels of heterogeneity in their classes. If the teacher is ineffective, students will achieve inadequate progress academically, regardless of how similar or different they are regarding their academic achievement. The effective teacher performs many functions that can be organized into several major roles:

- Making wise choices about the most effective instruction strategies to employ;
- Designing classroom curriculum to facilitate student learning;
- Making effective use of classroom management techniques;
- Coping effectively with overlapping situations;
- Engaging students in a variety of challenging activities.

Therefore, effective teachers have a wide array of instructional strategies at their disposal, are skilled at identifying and articulating the proper sequence and pacing of their content, are skilled in classroom management techniques.

4.2 Classroom management components

1. *Climate for learning*

Climate for learning refers to the environment created by the school, the teachers and the students themselves. Creating an atmosphere to foster learn-

ing is one of the most important tasks of teaching. This requires teachers to employ many different strategies to motivate students, to increase students' opportunities to learn, to help students learn and maintain appropriate behavior, to promote student self-responsibility, and to foster accountability. It is seen as a major component of classroom behavior and learning. Creating and implementing a learning environment means careful planning for the start of the school year. The learning environment must be envisioned in both a physical space and a cognitive space. The physical space of the classroom is managed as the teacher prepares the classroom for the students. The cognitive space is based upon the expectations teachers set for students in the classroom and the process of creating a motivational climate. Effective teachers create and implement classroom management practices that cultivate an engaging classroom environment for their students. A significant aspect of this beginning is the teacher's establishment of expectations for student behavior, which are expressed through rules and procedures.

Recent research findings suggest strong relationship between classroom climate and students' school achievement. Classrooms which are characterized by greater cohesion and goal-direction, lesser extent of disorganization and conflicts, offer better opportunities for learning and consequently students become successful. An effective learning environment has in view the following parameters:

- Physical environment (the size of the classroom, cleanliness, tidiness, safety, sitting arrangement);
- The teacher's attitude towards the teaching process and the students (their learning styles, needs);
- The students' motivation and attitudes towards the learning process/one another/each other;
- The atmosphere created in the classroom.

2. Organization of the classroom

Classroom management and organization are intertwined. While rules and routines influence student behavior, classroom organization affects the physical elements of the classroom, making it a more productive environment for its users. How the classroom environment is organized influences the behavior in it. Classroom organization is evident in a room even if no one is present. Furniture arrangements, location of materials, displays, and fixed elements are all part of organization. Effective teachers decorate the room with student work, they arrange the furniture to promote interaction as appropriate, and they have comfortable areas for working. They also consider students' needs in arranging the room by leaving space for wheelchairs to maneuver; having walkways so that students can access materials, pencil sharpeners, and the trashcan with minimal disturbance to others; and organizing in such a way as to allow the teacher

to freely move around the room to monitor student progress. It means that the teacher needs to have in view certain aspects and answer positively the questions:

- Is the classroom clean, neat, and orderly in appearance?
- Can the blackboard represent an efficient tool (is it big enough, clean, is it properly used)?
- Are there any classroom rules and routines?
- Can all the students see the teacher, the blackboard, displayed materials well?
- Does the teacher know students' feelings?

3. Attending the students. Establishing good rapport

Positive teacher-student relationships promote a sense of school belonging and encourage students to participate cooperatively. Students develop confidence to experiment and succeed in an environment where they are not restricted by the fear of failure. Teachers are able to assist students with motivation and goal setting, and students can turn to them for advice and guidance. Developing positive teacher-student relationships takes significant time and effort; however, the benefit on both the teacher and student is immeasurable. Attending strategies are:

- The verbal code: teachers should value student diversity and identity by learning names quickly and pronouncing them correctly, talk about trust;
- The nonverbal code: nod, smile, eye contact, supportive look or touch.

A good rapport can be ensured by: the teacher's interest in each student as an individual, feedback offered on students' progress, fair manner treatment, value on what students think and say, balance between praise and criticism, creating a positive atmosphere by stimulating, energizing and motivating.

4. *Physical arrangement and teaching space*

Research shows that the physical arrangement of the classroom can affect the behavior of both students and teachers. The *spatial structure* of a classroom refers to:

- How the students are seated;
- Where the students are in relation to one another;
- How classroom members move across the room;
- The classroom atmosphere and order.

The classroom environment suggests that the classroom should be organized to accommodate a variety of activities throughout the day and to meet the teachers' instructional goals. The main principles are:

- The teacher needs to see and be seen by all the students;
- Minimize distraction to keep the students engaged;
- Provide each student as well as the teacher with a personal space;

- To ensure that each student can see the teachers' presentation and materials used in class.

The attributes of a structured learning environment are:

- Clearly defined spaces within the classroom that are to be used for different purposes, that students know how to behave in;
- Areas to store different items.

The area where the teacher prefers to sit or stand during the lesson is also of great importance, because it increases or decreases student involvement:

- If the teacher prefers sitting, this can trigger lack of attention, disruptive behavior, or unpleasant atmosphere;
- If the teacher prefers standing, but not mobile, he/she needs to master good techniques and be prepared with attractive material to keep the students busy during the lesson;
- The teacher who walks around the classroom monitoring students' activity, being ready to offer help is the one who contributes to a pleasant and relaxing atmosphere;
- The teacher who moves too much, can disturb or confuse the students;
- The teaching space contributes to the success of teaching therefore the students become more engaged in activities.

5. Teacher talking time

Teacher talking time (TTT) is the time that teachers spend talking in class, rather than learners. It can be compared with *student talking time* (STT). One key element of many modern approaches is to reduce the amount of teacher talking time as much as possible, to allow learners opportunities to speak, and learn from speaking. The relative value of teacher talking time and student talking time is a complex area. Learners need to produce language in real time conversation; to give them a chance to notice their own mistakes, and for the class to be student-centred. They also need input from an effective language user in order to form hypotheses about language rules, and the teacher may be one of the main sources of this input. A teacher can start exploring this area by taping themselves and finding out when, why and how much they and their students talk. Finally, it concerns more with its quality and not quantity.

Teacher talking time is linked with: the amount of info the teacher offers, the instructions, the checking techniques, questioning techniques, the feedback, as well as the way he/she reacts to students' errors. Less talk gives more opportunities to students to talk, to express their ideas, feelings, attitudes. The teacher talking time and student talking time depend on the type of the lesson and the activities involved.

6. Eye contact

Eye contact is a very important non-verbal teaching technique, which not only enhances students' attention in the classroom but also helps teachers in

the attainment of desired student results. It makes so much difference: if students feel that the teacher is actually talking and engaging with them, they are more likely to engage with teacher and listen what they're saying. Eye contact also helps to convey that all-important enthusiasm and passion that can bring the topic to life. One aspect of non-verbal communication is the use of the eyes to convey messages. The eyes are a powerful tool for both the teacher and the learner, yet much classroom time is spent with eyes firmly fixed on the book, the board, the floor, the window, or roaming randomly around the teaching and learning environment.

Good eye contact does not mean staring or gazing. Many learners are likely to find this uncomfortable and consequently avert their own eyes and lose concentration. Neither does good eye contact mean eyes darting from learner to learner around the room - this has no effect whatsoever. It is recommended that there should be three to five seconds eye contact for non-verbal communication to take place or while they are performing tasks. Students are encouraged to make eye contact while they are working together in pairs or groups. Research shows that there is a strong link between the amount of eye contact people receive and their degree of participation in group communication - in the number of turns taken in a group conversation for example. Part of the non-verbal code used in the classroom, it plays an important role especially in establishing good rapport. The teacher should look into pupils' eyes when addressing to them, or when explaining something. The teacher must have in view that a fix and steady look may sometimes make students lose confidence. Teacher's look must be encouraging, supportive and friendly.

7. Body language

Human communication is the process of acting on information, of creating meaning in both verbal and nonverbal messages. Communication is effective if the receiver understands a message as intended and/or when it has the intended effect by being properly encoded with appropriate nonverbal communication. Communication is structured by rules that depend on larger cultural frameworks as well as specific, smaller subcultures. In the classroom, communication is influenced by regional culture, disciplinary conventions, the cultural background of the instructor and the background of dominant groups among the students. A lot of the cultural rules and conventions are implicit, and members of the classroom community may experience varying degrees of uncertainty and anxiety in this regard. Moreover, much communication is mediated, using technology to transfer messages; and the conventions regarding communication via tools is again culturally determined.

Nonverbal language represents a good way to make ideas clearer and understandable in the classroom communication, it also improves teaching efficiency. Effective teachers use body language to communicate with students, build rapport

with them, and make them feel safe and supported. There are many things that teachers can do nonverbally to create an engaging environment for students. The more engaged that students are in the classroom, the more likely they are to succeed.

Research shows that over 80% of communication is non-verbal. This establishes an educational environment that nourishes positive relationships, which leads to increased student achievement. Body language is important in cultivating the student's character, because what the teacher does is imitated by students, sometimes subconsciously. It includes facial expressions and gestures:

- The teacher's smile encourages students;
- The teaching frowning the eyebrows can signal that something is missing in their answer, is incorrect or insufficient;
- A raised finger can signal attention;
- The intonation patterns - tone, rising or falling intonation is the paraverbal communication;
- The movement of teacher's head is a sign of approval, disapproval, interest or need for correction.

8. Raising students' motivation

Educational psychology has identified two basic classifications of motivation - intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation arises from a desire to learn a topic due to inherent interests, for self-fulfillment, enjoyment and to achieve a mastery of the subject. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is motivation to perform and succeed for the sake of accomplishing a specific result or outcome. Students who are very grade-oriented are extrinsically motivated, whereas students who seem to truly embrace their work and take a genuine interest in it are intrinsically motivated.

Raising students' motivation is not an easy task, lots of aspects of teacher's activities like organization of the course, relevance of material, variety in activities, use of appropriate strategies and techniques, nature of the assignments, informal interactions, attitudes toward students, style of teaching need to be taken into consideration. The usual procedures are: showing enthusiasm, variety of activities, establishing good rapport with students, relevance of topics and materials, bringing appropriate examples, active involvement in activities etc.

Classroom management involves both decisions, and actions, to any classroom activity, there will be a wide range of options as to possible actions: to stop or to continue an activity, to tell off a latecomer or to welcome him, to do something or to do nothing, no one can tell the right way to do something. The essential basic skill is to be able to look at and to read classroom events as they occur and think of possible options, and to turn them into effective and efficient actions.

4.3 Classroom management techniques

Classroom management techniques are the methods that teachers utilize to instill and implement good standards of behavior in their students. By using proven methods, teachers can encourage students to display appropriate behavior in the classroom. *Elementary-level teachers*, especially first grade ones, will want to implement classroom management strategies that create structure. A key component of creating structure for these young students is to ensure lesson plans do not have much downtime for students. A large block of unscheduled time can cause students to become restless and may lead to disruptive behavior. *Teachers of middle school* students will need to utilize different classroom management strategies than elementary-level teachers since adolescents present different challenges than younger students. Middle school teachers will largely want to focus on establishing rapport with students, allowing for more autonomy, teaching respect, and explicitly redirecting them from negative behaviors. Teachers can incorporate multiple middle school classroom management strategies into their lesson plans to keep students well-behaved and on track with their curriculum.

Classroom management strategies can also be more effective if they are relevant to the subject matter and activities. For example, a classroom that uses a lot of group work will want to incorporate some specific rules, guidelines, or expectations for how students should comport themselves in a working group. Similarly, an English class will need specific classroom management strategies that enable strong problem solving, practice, and attention to detail. The first step to a successful classroom management is establishing the rules on the first day.

Rules are descriptions of standards for acceptable classroom behavior, such as „listen when someone else is talking". Students should understand the reason behind the rules, so they can accept responsibility for their own behavior. Effective teachers have a minimum number of classroom rules, which tend to focus on expectations of how to act toward one another, maintain a safe environment, and participate in learning. These teachers offer clear explanations of the rules, model the rules, rehearse the expectations with students, and offer students opportunities to be successful in meeting the expectations. There is no magic number of rules that govern a classroom; rather, it is the clear establishment of fair, reasonable, enforceable, and consistently applied rules that makes a difference in classrooms.

Some teachers like to distinguish between *academic* and *behavior expectations*. Academic expectations relate to how students ought to conduct themselves related to learning, homework, class activities, and so on. Behavioral expectations relate to how students interact with one another and contribute to a space where everyone can learn and feel safe. Other teachers like to have an "other"

category that relates to special circumstances, including disaster drills, school assemblies, or recess. The following principles can guide teachers in their effort to promote this understanding:

1. Create rules and express them positively. It shouldn't just be a list of don'ts;
2. Justify rules and rehearse them! "…because I say so" is not a persuasive justification;
3. Discuss rules with the class. Explain their purpose, e.g. to improve learning;
4. Negotiate with the pupils to get commitment. Ask for suggestions and remember to justify and compromise. Make posters and get them to sign up;
5. Regularly review the rules together;
6. Encourage pupils to devise rules and take ownership of them;
7. Remind pupils of any relevant rules before a potentially disruptive activity or if you are aware of "something brewing". This kind of response can drastically reduce inappropriate behavior;
8. Encourage and develop team working (team rules for success).

Rules must also be consistent with the culture and established code of conduct of the school. It is not sufficient to simply state the rules or have them displayed; rules must be taught explicitly and monitored for understanding and compliance.

Procedures are routines that students follow in their daily learning activities. While they are more flexible than rules, procedures are specific ways of doing things that for the most part they vary little during the course of the day or the year. Classrooms typically require many routines to operate efficiently and effectively. For example, routines commonly include how to enter and leave the classroom, take attendance, indicate lunch selection, secure materials, dispose of trash, label work, turn in assignments, make a transition during or between instructional activities, get to safety during drills and actual emergencies, and change from one activity or location to another. In essence, routines shape the classroom climate. Effective teachers use routines for daily tasks. They invest the time at the start of the school year to teach the routines. By establishing and practicing routines that require little monitoring, teachers ensure that the focus of the classroom is more concentrated on instruction. Teachers frequently provide students with cues to remind them of acceptable behavior, and effective teachers are good at organizing and maintaining a positive classroom environment.

Effective teachers spend more time establishing classroom rules at the beginning of the year and periodically review rules throughout the year. Rules alone are insufficient to promote appropriate behavior and academic productivity;

rules must be implemented within the context of a comprehensive instructional and behavior management system that includes careful planning to meet the needs of individual students as well as the whole class, learning activities that promote student engagement, and consistent consequences for rule violations.

4.4 Managing disruptive behavior

Disruptive behavior can be defined as behavior that substantially or repeatedly interferes with the

instructor's ability to conduct class or other students' ability to learn. Disruptive behavior in classrooms is a significant challenge for learning in schools and a risk factor for students' academic achievement and a significant source of teachers' work-related stress. Earlier research shows that clear behavioral expectations, monitoring students' adherence to them and behavior-specific praise are effective practices to reduce disruptive behavior.

Highly productive and constructive training instructions alleviate, but do not eliminate, classroom behavior issues. Behavior management and classroom discipline have been observed to be ineffective in classrooms when teachers are stressful and are ineffective in their classrooms. Generally, *disruptive behavior is any behavior that interferes with the instructor's ability to conduct the class*, or the ability of other students to profit from the instruction. Such behavior may take various forms and can be dependent upon many factors including class size, subject matter, and the relationship between students. Examples of disruptive behavior include:

- Electronic devices going off including the answering of cell phones;
- Repeated tardiness;
- Leaving class without permission;
- Talking in class without permission;
- Making noise and repeatedly interrupting;
- Reading newspapers/magazines in class;
- Eating/ drinking in class without permission;
- Being verbally abusive to the instructor or other students including personal insults;
- Persistent and unreasonable demands for time and attention, both in and out of the classroom;
- Refusing to comply with the directions of the instructor;
- Attempts to contact you at your home in inappropriate ways;
- Behaviors indicating a romantic or other obsessive interest in you;
- Intimidating or harassing another person through words and/or actions;
- Threats of physical assault;
- Threatening/intimidating/harassing the instructor or other students, re-

gardless if verbally, written or through voice mail or e-mail communications;
- Carrying or displaying weapons, destroying property or throwing objects in a manner reasonably perceived as threatening.

Recognizing and acknowledging achievement and positive behavior is an important part of an effective management and may include offering incentives. Incentives and rewards should be negotiated with students and should match their age and developmental level. They should be fair and consistent and avoid any cultural or gender bias. It is a good idea to check how individual students respond to public praise before using this type of acknowledgement for achievement. Teachers should keep track of which students are being praised and reinforced to ensure that all students are receiving appropriate acknowledgement. Examples of positive reinforcement include:

- Timely positive feedback and acknowledging effort;
- Recognizing contributions to the community (citizenship);
- Recognizing participation in special events such as sports days;
- Merit certificates that link to the whole-school reward system, such as assembly awards;
- Raffle tickets for end of session, day, week, month, term prizes;
- Class star chart with clear criteria for earning rewards that are linked to specific rules;
- Class jobs and responsibilities;
- Free choice activity for a set time, such as computer, craft, sport activities;
- Whole-class celebrations, excursions or outings;
- Positive contact with family in person or via certificate, email, letter or phone call;
- Articles in the school newsletter and positive referral to executive staff;
- Students' involvement in collecting, counting, recording and monitoring progress.

Any system using concrete reward should be carefully monitored and 'phased out' over time as the students develop the intrinsic motivation and self-monitoring.

4.5 Classroom management style

Teaching style defines the behaviors or actions the teachers exhibit in the teaching process. Moreover, it reflects the beliefs and values teachers hold about the role of the teacher and the learner in the learning exchange. Teaching style is not only the teaching method itself but something larger that relates to the entire teaching-learning exchange, regardless of the environment or content of teach-

ing. Understanding the differences in the four types of teachers will help improve the teaching style, resulting in a better classroom discipline and greater student learning. There are four main types of teachers in the classrooms today.

1. *Authoritarian teaching style*

The authoritarian teacher places firm limits and controls on the students. Students will often have assigned seats for the entire term. The desks are usually in straight rows and there are no deviations. Students must be in their seats at the beginning of class and they frequently remain there throughout the period. This teacher rarely gives hall passes or recognizes excused absences. Often, it is quiet. Students know they should not interrupt the teacher. Since verbal exchange and discussion are discouraged, the authoritarian's students do not have the opportunity to learn and/or practice communication skills. This teacher prefers vigorous discipline and expects swift obedience. Failure to obey the teacher usually results in detention or a trip to the principal's office. In this classroom, students need to follow directions and not ask why. This teacher expects students to obey, and when they do not, the teacher is constantly yelling at the students to get them back in line. Very little is allowed past these teachers, every little infraction is caught and disciplined. Students obey, but mostly of fear, and the teacher blames the students for the discipline problems.

2. *Permissive teaching style*

The laissez-faire teacher is not very involved in the classroom. This teacher places few demands, if any, on the students and appears generally uninterested. The laissez-faire teacher just doesn't want to impose on the students. As such, he/she often feels that class preparation is not worth the effort. Things like field trips and special projects are out of the question. This teacher simply won't take the necessary preparation time. Sometimes, he/she will use the same materials, year after year. Also, classroom discipline is lacking. This teacher may lack the skills, confidence, or courage to discipline students. The students sense and reflect the teacher's laissez-faire attitude. Accordingly, very little learning occurs. Everyone is just "going through the motions" and killing time. In this aloof environment, the students have very few opportunities to observe or practice communication skills. With few demands placed on them and very little discipline, students have low achievement motivation and lack self-control.

3. *Detached teaching style*

The teacher is the one who really does not care. This teacher seems to have discipline problems in class, but may not even care what kind of grades the students may receive during classroom activities. The teacher will sit behind the desk until the students are working and grade papers during the class or when on duty. There is no emotional support or behavioral management from the detached teacher. The teaching style is often the result of an illness or depression. This teacher just doesn't want to impose on the students**.** As such, he/she often

feels that class preparation is not worth the effort. Accordingly, very little learning occurs. Everyone is just «going through the motions» and killing time. In this environment, the students have very few opportunities to observe or practice communication skills. With few demands placed on them and very little discipline, students have low achievement motivation and lack self-control.

4. Authoritative style

The authoritative teacher is the one who has an orderly classroom, a strong discipline plan and is caring and supportive. Students respect this teacher and know that they can go to him/her with their problems of any kind, no matter how big or small. The authoritative teacher places limits and controls on the students but simultaneously encourages independence. This teacher often explains the reasons behind the rules and decisions. If a student is disruptive, the teacher offers a polite, but firm, reprimand. This teacher sometimes metes out discipline, but only after careful consideration of the circumstances. The authoritative teacher is also open to considerable verbal interaction, including critical debates. The students know that they can interrupt the teacher if they have a relevant question or comment. This environment offers the students the opportunity to learn and practice communication skills.

Teachers need to spend time regularly reviewing their teaching style. Knowing the differences between the styles, will help teachers analyze their own teaching and focus on improving. Effective teachers are made not born. The implementation of an appropriate and well thought out classroom management plan is the lifeline of any teacher looking to be effective and make a difference. Teachers have an enormous responsibility and opportunity to foster a learning environment that is safe, fun, cooperative and relational. The only way to achieve success in this quest for transformation and empowerment is a classroom management plan that is based on research is always evolving to meet the ever changing culture of adolescents and to reflect the knowledge gained through experience within the classroom.

REFLECTION

1. Think of a situation when your teacher could not control the class. What did he/she do?
2. Is managing a class full of students the biggest challenge faced by the teacher?
3. What are the challenges of online classroom management?
4. Is classroom management an innate skill or something which can be taught?
5. How do you differentiate classroom management from discipline?
6. How would you design and arrange your ideal classroom?

7. What is the difference between procedures and rules?

TASKS FOR INDEPENDENT WORK

1. Analyze the classroom management of different levels: primary school, secondary school and high school classroom management.
2. Relate on classroom management strategies and activities in dealing with misbehavior.
3. Students can use the application https://bookcreator.com/ to help them present the material.

UNIT 5.
TEACHING READING

5.1 Introduction

Among the many definitions of reading that have arisen in recent decades, three prominent ideas emerge as most critical for understanding what "learning to read" means:

- Reading is a process undertaken to reduce uncertainty about meanings a text conveys.
- The process of reading results from a negotiation of meaning between the text and its reader.
- The knowledge, expectations, and strategies a reader uses to uncover textual meaning all play decisive roles in the way the reader negotiates with the text's meaning.

Reading does not draw on one kind of cognitive skill, nor does it have a straightforward outcome - most texts are understood in different ways by different readers. Thus, reading is a complex interactive process between the text and the reader, whose result is comprehension. This means that the overall purpose in teaching reading is to develop students' awareness, attitudes, abilities and skills needed for obtaining information, developing interests, and finally driving pleasure for reading through understanding. In other words, the goal of teaching reading is to help students become efficient readers. The reading process involves *the text, the reader,* and *the interaction* between the two. Theorists have proposed three basic models of how reading occurs: *bottom-up, top-down,* and *interactive models.*

1. Bottom-Up Model

In bottom-up theories, meaning resides in the text. This point of view shows this process as an essentially passive process, where the reader decodes the intended message of the writer by moving from the lowest level, such as letters and words, towards the higher levels of clauses, sentences, and paragraphs. This implies that the meaning comes from deciphering the letter, then the word, the sentence and finally the text. In other words, the process is conceived of as something unilateral in which the reader only has the role of extracting written information and constructs meaning from the particular text segment that is being processed without taking into account the surrounding environment.

The bottom-up or decoding model of reading was criticized for its failure to account for the contribution of the reader and his/her expectations about the text, which are informed by the knowledge of language, and are employed as part

of the reading process. The perceived importance of the reader's expectations in the processing of text led to the development of the top-down model of reading.

2. Top-Down Model

Goodman (1982) is closely related to top-down approaches of reading. He argues that readers bring a great deal of knowledge, expectations, assumptions and questions to the text and, given a basic understanding of the vocabulary, they continue reading as long as the text confirms their expectations. The top-down school of reading theory claims that readers fit the text into (cultural, syntactic, linguistic, and historical) knowledge they already possess and then check back when new or unexpected information appears.

As a complement, some other authors mention that the top-down model comprehends reading not as the bottom-up processing of words, and that the meaning is not entirely residing in the text. The knowledge, experience and concepts that the reader brings to the text, in other words, his/her schemata, are a very important part in the process. So, the reader brings expectations to the text and continues making predictions as she/he samples the text, while omitting parts of the text which are considered to be unimportant. If the predictions made seem to be incorrect, the reader will return to read the text.

3. Interactive Models

According to interactive models, reading is a process of constructing meaning from text through the use of both bottom-up and top-down processes, strategies, and skills (focus on the interaction). The balanced approach to teaching reading is used. Both bottom-up and top-down processes occur simultaneously for the reader to comprehend the meaning of the text. There are two levels of interaction:

- between the reader and the text;
- between two kinds of cognitive skills: identification and interpretation.

This model states that both these approaches interact to give the reader a hypothesis or prediction about the text. The reader eventually settles upon an interpretation of a text using a combination of lower-level comprehension skills and a variety of higher-level comprehension skills. In other words, readers have an automatic recognition of words and ideas that tap into their lower-level comprehension processing but eventually bring in the logic and knowledge of the topic and the world that tap into their higher-level comprehension processing. This means readers must have the ability to use context clues to understand unfamiliar words as well as background knowledge on a topic in order to get the full effect of the text. The interactive theory of reading assumes that these processes work parallel with each other, and failure to use both processes results in the reader not having the ability to understand the written work fully.

The most evident benefit of this model is the opportunity for the differentiation that it provides students. Students are not required to fit into a set mold or have identical skill sets to decode and interpret text. They are encouraged to use their own strengths to gain understanding and new information. When used in the classroom setting, students should be encouraged to share their knowledge with classmates or peers. This model allows the reader to bring his own background knowledge to reading and to interact with others to build meaning and memory from the text.

5.2 Types of reading

Developing reading comprehension should be a gradual, continuous process, as it involves a wide range of competences, among which:

- linguistic competence;
- discourse competence;
- sociolinguistic competence;
- strategic competence.

Reading also activates mental structures and develops a series of micro-skills such as:

- discriminating between: orthographic patterns, main idea and specific information, literal and implied meaning, relevant/non-relevant information;
- understanding of: layout, use of headings, implied info, attitudes and behavior, causes/effects;
- recognition of words at first sight, grammatical classes, communicative functions of the written text;
- anticipating or predicting effects, analyzing characters, behavior, attitudes and facts, synthesizing, appreciating, evaluating, linking information with real life.

The reading skill is taught in close relation with all other skills, it helps introducing and practicing phonetics, vocabulary and grammar, as well as language functions. Reading can be of several types.

Modelled reading

Modelled reading (reading to or reading aloud) involves students listening to a text read aloud by the teacher. The teacher models skilled reading behavior, enjoyment and interest in a range of different styles of writing and types of text. It provides an opportunity for teachers to demonstrate their enjoyment in reading, and allows students to see a purpose in learning to read.

Modelled reading can also be used to target various literacy focuses. This includes the teacher modelling skillful use of:

- concepts of print;
- phonological awareness;
- phonics;
- vocabulary;
- comprehension;
- fluency;
- visual literacy;
- understandings of literature.

Modelled reading is an essential part of daily reading programs across all year levels. Modelled reading:

- develops students' understandings about reading while building a background of text experiences that they can draw on as they learn to read independently.
- enables teachers to model good reading behaviors while providing opportunities to familiarize students with the linguistic and visual features of text.

Serial reading is a common form of modelled reading. As well as demonstrating fluent and expressive reading, teachers can also model the comprehension of unfamiliar or complex vocabulary; and talk through their thought processes when comprehending a text. Similarly, analysis of the composition of the pages, use of visuals, and elements of the text structure can also be highlighted and discussed. This all occurs in an authentic literacy experience, where modelling of texts for pleasure can stimulate thinking and motivate students to read.

Oral Guided Reading

Oral reading performance is used as an indicator of students' overall reading ability. It is used to measure three components of reading - *accuracy, rate,* and *fluency*, which have been shown to relate strongly to comprehension. Students are asked to read aloud from selected grade-level passages, and scores are based on accuracy, rate, and fluency. Listening to students reading aloud provides valuable insights into the covert cognitive processes used to decipher and comprehend printed materials. Oral reading also serves as a very valuable source of assessment information for teachers and for students themselves. As they read aloud, students become aware of any word identification problems and look for ways to correct them. By listening to a student's oral reading, a teacher can gain valuable insights into the student's word identification strategies and the degree of that student's fluency. It is generally practiced with beginners, as it gives students the possibility to hear themselves and acquire correct and fluent reading skills. Students follow the model offered by the teacher, trying to use correct pronunciation, accent and intonation.

Choral Reading

Choral reading is a literacy technique that helps students build their fluency, self-confidence, and motivation in reading. During choral reading a student or a group of students reads a passage together, with or without a teacher. Choral reading can be done individually, in small groups, or as a whole class. Choral reading is useful for beginners as it offers each and every student the possibility to read the text as a model by the teacher. There are three main reasons why choral reading is beneficial, and they include:

1. It provides a model of fluency;
2. It improves sight word recognition;
3. It allows practice and support.

Independent Reading

Independent reading is an authentic and individualized practice that can support the explicit teaching undertaken during the whole group focus at the start of a reading lesson and provide opportunities for reflection at the lesson closure. When students read independently, they are mindful of the explicit lesson they have just participated in, and draw on those skills to help them practice, read and understand text. After independent reading they are called on to share how those skills assisted their reading by giving an example or articulating their new knowledge or learning. Independent reading is a practice which all students can successfully undertake as it can be differentiated for every student. Texts selected are usually at an easy level, i.e. 95 to 100% decoding accuracy rate.

Intensive Reading

As the name suggests, intensive reading refers to reading short texts thoroughly and with clear goals, such as to answer reading comprehension questions or to identify how sentences are linked. Unlike extensive reading, the goal of intensive reading is not to read many texts for fluency, but rather to read a shorter piece of text to gain a deeper understanding of that text. To read intensively is to completely deconstruct a text, with the goal of absorbing as much meaning from it as possible. This is done by taking a text, and systematically looking up every word, phrase, or collocation that students do not understand. This is an activity that requires great mental effort and focus. Because of this, the learner who engages in intensive reading must be careful to follow specific guidelines, or else risk boredom and burnout. Texts are interesting and short, to be read only for brief periods of time, and to do so when students have the most mental energy. Ideal learning materials for intensive reading include:

- news articles;
- wikipedia articles;
- short stories;

- blog posts.

Although reading comprehension can be one goal of intensive reading, its goals may include learning subject matter, vocabulary learning and studying the authors' intentions. In other words, the goal of intensive reading is not limited to reading comprehension.

Extensive Reading

Extensive reading is an approach to second language reading. When learners read extensively, they read very easy, enjoyable books to build their reading speed and fluency. Another way to say this is that students learn to read by actually reading rather than examining texts by studying the vocabulary, grammar and phrases. It is instructive to compare *intensive reading* with *extensive reading*. Extensive reading gives students chances to read longer pieces of reading, which they choose, which they can read at their own speed and at their own ability level.

Extensive reading builds vocabulary. When learners read a lot, they meet thousands of words and lexical (word) patterns that are not taught in textbooks. It allows the learner to develop an awareness of collocations (common word partnerships) and thousands of lexical phrases and grammar patterns. It provides opportunities to see grammar in context so learners can deepen their understanding of how grammar is really used. It also helps learners to build reading speed and reading fluency. One objective of extensive reading is reading for pleasure. This builds confidence and motivation which makes the learner a more effective user of language.

It is sometimes hard to get learners to read outside the classroom. But reading is something they can do at home, and the teacher should encourage that as much as possible. Extensive reading is an excellent way to extend vocabulary and consolidate grammar, as well as to develop a general communicative command of language.

Scanning

Students look quickly through the text to find some specific information. To do this, they should move eyes quickly over the text and stop only when they find the word or information they are looking for, *e*.g. name, address, fact, number, date etc.

A common scanning activity is looking for a number in a telephone directory. It is a technique often used when searching for key words or ideas. In most cases, students know what they are looking for, so they are concentrating on finding a particular answer. Scanning is also used to first find a resource to determine whether it will answer some questions. When scanning, students look for the author's use of organizers such as numbers, letters, steps, or the words,

first, second, or next, for words that are bold faced, italics, or in a different font size, style, or color. Sometimes the author will put key ideas in the margin.

Skimming

Students get a general idea of what it is about, to discover the key topics, main ideas, overall theme, basic structure etc. their eyes focus briefly on a few lines, we do not have to read every word when we skim, we read some word combinations, or some phrases.

Skimming is used to quickly identify the main ideas of a text. When reading the newspaper, the reader is probably not reading it word-by-word, instead he/she is scanning the text. Skimming is done at a speed three to four times faster than normal reading. People often skim when they have lots of material to read in a limited amount of time. Skimming can be used when the reader wants to see if an article may be of interest in research. There are many strategies that can be used when skimming. Some people read the first and last paragraphs using headings, summarizes and other organizers as they move down the page or screen or they might read the title, subtitles, subheading, and illustrations. Also, readers consider reading the first sentence of each paragraph.

Reading for critical evaluation

Critical reading generally refers to reading in a scholarly context, with an eye toward identifying a text or author's viewpoints, arguments, evidence, potential biases, and conclusions. Critical reading means evaluating what has been read using the knowledge. The reader may look at the quality of the writing, the quality of the research, and the persuasiveness of the arguments, among other things. Finally, critical reading is an active process by which a scholar rigorously and systematically questions the literature with the goal of assessing credibility and validity. Whereas reading retention and comprehension involve remembering and understanding the main ideas, critical reading begins the process of taking action. The reader is not simply absorbing the information; instead, he/she is *interpreting*, *categorizing*, *questioning*, and *weighing* the value of that information. In other words, he/she is engaging in higher-order thinking and the upper reaches of Bloom's taxonomy.

Critical reading can serve many functions. Sometimes a text is examined critically to *analyze* it, sometimes to *compare* it to other texts, and sometimes to *evaluate* it. As stated by Halpern (2013), it seems crucially important that we teach our students to evaluate ideas, opinions, claims, decisions and conclusions of others in a critical manner. Sometimes when we read some articles, we may have to agree or disagree with what the writers say. In order to evaluate a piece of writing, we have to read carefully and think about what the writer expresses

before we come to a conclusion in that we have to examine critically what the writer says and pass a judgment.

The reader may particularly like the style in which the text is written or there may be other factors that will arrest his/her attention. This sort of critical examination helps the reader to evaluate the text. However, this requires the reader to exhibit more developed linguistic skills and to react to language more seriously. It can be argued that the skills of reading have to be developed gradually and systematically in the readers of a foreign language over a period of time. A learner should engage in much hard work in the act of developing advanced skills of reading such as reading for comprehension and reading for critical evaluation.

Critical reading versus active reading

Many authors equate critical reading and active reading, though in fact they are not the same. Active reading involves engaging with a text in order to understand what it contains. This could mean highlighting key words and phrases, making annotations in the margin, testing as reading, discussing with or explaining it to someone else after reading, as well as reading critically by asking questions about the text. Critical reading is therefore a form of active reading, but is only one of several ways to read actively. This means that it is possible to read a text actively, for example by highlighting it and making annotations, without reading critically.

Thinking critically, in the academic sense, involves being open-minded - using judgement and discipline to process what is being learned about without letting personal bias or opinion detract from the arguments. Critical thinking involves being rational and aware of feelings on the subject – being able to reorganize the thoughts, prior knowledge and understanding to accommodate new ideas or viewpoints. Critical reading and critical thinking are therefore the very foundations of true learning and personal development.

5.3 Reading activities

How to teach reading skills depends on which objectives the teacher aims at developing in his/her students and on how lesson plans are structured. To this effect, teachers must take decisions about the objectives of their reading comprehension lesson. Three stages are generally recommended to make reading more realistic and interesting.

1. Pre-reading stage

According to the constructivists, we construct new knowledge by relying on our prior knowledge. Being able to decode the information from the text is insufficient. Teachers should encourage learners to utilize their own world knowledge

and worldview to make sense of the text. This knowledge, which is often referred to as *schema*, is the essential condition for the process of construction of meaning. The reading session starts with a pre-activity, because reading needs to be prepared carefully. This stage is to prepare the learners for what they are going to read. The main aims of this stage are:

- to introduce students to the topic of the text they are about to read;
- to activate students' background knowledge about the topic (to help them comprehend the text) along with the vocabulary related to it;
- to arouse students' interest with the reading material;
- to introduce new vocabulary connected with the reading material

Pre-reading activities are an essential part of the reading lesson because of the following:

- They help students be more prepared for what they are about to read.
- These activities help learners anticipate the topic of the reading.
- Formulating expectations about the content of the text help learners prepare themselves for the kind of language, vocabulary, and even grammar that might be used in the text.
- These activities create the need for reading the text to know more about a topic.
- By creating the need to learn more about the topic, these activities increase students' motivation.

Teachers must activate students' knowledge about the topic of the text they are about to read using the following activities:

Brainstorming, a group creativity technique by which efforts are made to find new ideas and conclusions for a specific problem by gathering a list of spontaneous ideas and suggestions. This may be done following this process:

- In groups, students brainstorm ideas relating to the topic of the text.
- All members of the groups contribute to the generation of ideas about the topic.
- All ideas are to be accepted.
- The teacher sets a time for the brainstorming process.
- After generating enough ideas, groups organize their ideas and form sentences.
- Finally, they share their ideas with the whole class.

Discussions

This may be done as follows:

- The teacher prepares contrasting opinions about the topic of the text, or simply provides a quote related to the topic of the reading.
- Students work in groups to discuss and react to these opinions or quote.
- They then write a short report to be read by the representative of each group.

- Groups react to each other's opinions.

Pictures

Here is how pictures can be used as a pre-reading activity:

- The teacher provides pictures related to the topic of the text.
- In groups, the students work together to make sense of the pictures and guess what the text will be about.
- The representative of each group takes turns presenting their ideas.

Another alternative would be to:

- Teachers provide a series of pictures representing a series of events in the text.
- The students work in groups to put the events in the correct order.
- They then try to write a short paragraph about what they think the text will be about.

Pictionary - a guessing game in which players attempt to identify words from pictures drawn by other players. To prepare students for the topic and vocabulary of the reading activity, the teacher may use the pictionary activity:

- The teacher creates a list of vocabulary terms or concepts relevant to the current topic or unit.
- The teacher asks one student from each group to come to the board.
- The student gets secretly the first word or concept from the teacher.
- The student draws a picture representing the term or concept.
- The teacher sets a short amount of time for the student's group to guess the word or concept.
- When their group correctly identifies the word or concept within the time limit, they get a point.

Predicting

The teacher can prepare the learners to predict what the text will be about using different elements of the text:

- The teacher raises the learners' attention to only the title, the subheadings, the pictures, and/or the illustrations accompanying the text.
- They have a discussion in groups to predict the topic.
- Groups report their predictions.

KWL chart (Know, Want to Know, Learned)

KWL chart is an excellent reading strategy to guide learners through a text. KWL stands for Know, Want to Know, Learned. The aim is to elicit learners' prior knowledge of the topic of the text and set a purpose for the reading activity.

- Students draw a chart like the one below.
- They start by writing everything they know everything they already know about a topic on the K (Know) column.

- Students then list questions about what they want to know about the topic in the W (Want to Know) column.
- During or after reading, students answer the questions that are in the W (Want to Know) column and record them in the L (Learned) column.

Table 5.3.1 KWL chart

K (Know)	W (Want to Know)	L (Learned)
... ...	... ...	... ...

Cloud of words

This is an excellent activity to prepare students for the topic of the text and the vocabulary they are going to encounter.

- The teacher provides the title of the text.
- The learners work together in groups to make guesses about the topic.
- Then, the teacher provides a cloud of scattered words (relevant/irrelevant words to the text)
- They try to identify which ones of these words the learners will find in the text (they may use their dictionary).

Videos

Videos are an excellent tool to create a context for the reading activity and to bridge the gap between listening, writing, speaking and reading skills.

- Teachers choose a short video related to the topic of the reading.
- Then they set a purpose for students while they are watching the video. For example, ask a focus question, or ask them to complete a chart while they are watching the video.
- After watching the video, students work in groups to agree on their answers.
- After correction, students may have a discussion about the video.

Pre-reading activities introduce students to a particular text, elicit or provide appropriate background knowledge, and activate necessary schemata. Previewing a text with students should arouse their interest and help them approach the text in a more meaningful and purposeful manner as the discussion compels them to think about the situation or points raised in a text. The pre-reading phase helps students define selection criteria for the central theme of a story or the major argument of an essay. Pre-reading activities may also include discussing about the author or text type, reviewing familiar stories (students review Cinderella before reading Cendrillon), considering illustra-

tions and titles, skimming and scanning (for structure, main points, and future directions).

2. *While-reading stage*

While-reading activities are activities that help students focus on text features and its comprehension. In addition to guiding students towards a better understanding of the text, these activities aim at:

- Connecting students prior knowledge with the content of the reading;
- Helping them gain new knowledge;
- Training them to deal with similar text in the future.

Suggested techniques are:

Previewing- looking at title, headings, photos in order to get a sense of the structure and the content of the reading material.

Skimming

Skimming the text to check predictions is a while-reading activity that is an extension of some pre-reading activities. Skimming can be defined as reading a text quickly to get a general idea of the passage. Students do not have to read everything. Skimming involves among other things:

- Reading the title, the headings and the subheadings;
- Reading the introduction or the first paragraph;
- Reading the topic sentence of each paragraph;
- Looking at pictures, charts, or graphs;
- Paying attention to italicized or boldface words or phrases;
- Reading the concluding paragraph.

Scanning

Scanning refers to reading in order to find specific information such as a name, a date, or a number. This is a technique used when one is interested in finding specific information quickly.

- The teacher may want to ask students to scan a text to find answers to (a) specific question(s);
- With these questions in mind, students read the text to attempt to find answers;
- They may ignore irrelevant information;
- Students may use headings and any other clues that will help them identify which part of the text might contain the needed information. In other words, they will have to read selectively and skip through irrelevant sections of the text.

Comprehension questions

Most textbooks include comprehension questions that students have to answer while they are reading. These comprehension questions have different forms:

Pronominal questions or WH-questions begin with who, what, when, where, how, why, etc.

- These questions test both writing ability as well as reading ability;
- These questions can be literal or inferential (involving conclusions reached on the basis of evidence and reasoning). Inferential questions are more difficult to answer;
- The answer to pronominal questions might be one word, a phrase or a full sentence;
- If the aim of the teacher is to test comprehension, spelling mistakes, as well as grammar mistakes, may be tolerated.

Commands - identify, circle, underline, describe, explain, etc.

Yes/no questions2

Yes/no questions require short answers. These types of questions are easy to answer and do not require a high level of writing proficiency skills. Learners have a 50% chance of getting the correct answer.

True/false statements

Like yes/no questions, there is a 50% chance of getting the correct answer in true/false exercise.

- Learners decide whether each sentence is true or false according to the text;
- They may be asked to justify their answers from the text;
- The learners may be asked to rewrite the false sentences making the necessary changes to make them true.

Multiple-choice questions

Four choices are provided. So the leaner, has 25% chance of getting it right. This exercise is difficult to make, but it is easy to correct. Incorrect choices must be possible (partly correct) and relevant.

Sentence completion

Asking learners to complete sentences is an excellent way to assess comprehension. This type of exercise can take different forms from easy to difficult:

- The sentence to be completed can be taken as it is from the passage and the missing words may be copied from the text or the students must use their vocabulary knowledge to complete the sentence.
- The sentence to be completed is not taken as it is from the passage and the missing words may be copied from the text or the students must use their vocabulary knowledge to complete the sentence.

Graphic organizers

A graphic organizer, also known as a *knowledge map, concept map, story map, cognitive organizer, advance organizer,* or *concept diagram* is a

pedagogical tool that uses visual symbols to express knowledge and concepts through relationships between them. Graphic organizers are visual representations of knowledge that structure information by arranging important aspects of a concept or topic into a pattern using labels. The main purpose of a graphic organizer is to provide a visual aid to facilitate learning and instruction. Their main function is to help present information in concise ways that highlight the organization and relationships of concepts.

Text type and structure

- Identifying the type of text (i.e. email, newspaper article, scientific text, etc.);
- Identifying topic sentences and the main idea of paragraphs;
- Distinguishing general from specific ideas.

Cohesion - identifying the connectors (however, moreover, thus, etc.) to see how ideas are linked within the text.

Vocabulary and grammar work

Reading is a great opportunity for vocabulary and grammar practice, which contribute, to a better understanding of the text. Here are some examples of these activities.

- Vocabulary work

1. Teachers provide a list of vocabulary words from a reading passage and have students sort them into various categories: parts of speech, semantic fields (e.g. food, means of transport, banking, branches of government, etc.),
2. Matching synonyms or opposites;
3. Filling the gaps with the appropriate words from the text.

- Grammar work

Many grammar points are directly related to the meaning of the text. Students can be encouraged to notice the grammar structures used to convey meaning through activities such as: identifying verb tense or verb patterns (verb + infinitive or gerund), distinguishing passive from active structures, etc.

Reading exercises help students develop reading strategies, improve their control of the second language, and decode problematic text passages. Helping students to employ strategies while reading can be difficult because individual students need different strategies. Nevertheless, the teacher can pinpoint valuable strategies, explain which strategies individuals most need to practice, and offer concrete exercises in the form of "guided reading" activity sheets. Such practice exercises might also include guessing word meanings by using context clues, word formation clues, or cognate practice; considering syntax and sentence structure by noting the grammatical functions of unknown words, analyz-

ing reference words, and predicting text content; reading for specific pieces of information; and learning to use the dictionary effectively.

3. Post-reading stage

Post-reading exercises first check students' comprehension and then lead students to a deeper analysis of the text. Because the goals of most real world reading are not to memorize an author's point of view or to summarize text content, but rather to see into another mind, or to mesh new information into what one already knows, second language reading must go beyond detail-eliciting comprehension drills to help students recognize that different strategies are appropriate with different text types. For example, scanning is an appropriate strategy to use with newspaper advertisements whereas predicting and following text cohesion are effective strategies to use with short stories. By discussing in groups what they have understood, students focus on information they did not comprehend, or did not comprehend correctly. Discussions of this nature can lead the student directly to text analysis as class discussion proceeds from determining facts to exploring deeper ramifications of the texts. Post-reading activities are meant to show complete understanding of what has been read, more exactly students need:

- To show comprehension of both literal and implied meanings;
- To prove understanding of text-context and meta-content information;
- To demonstrate their attention and memory;
- To prove their ability to comment upon the reading material;
- To allow students express their attitudes and feelings towards what they have read;

Post-reading activities help learners summarize their learning, get a deeper understanding, and organize their thoughts and ideas. Here are examples of these activities:

What I learned

Some elements of the KWL chart mentioned above, namely the L (Learned) column, have to be completed after reading the text.

Discussion

Groups react to the content of the passage. Each group reports to the other groups a summary of their findings followed by whole class discussion. They answer questions about:

- type of the text (descriptive, narrative, argumentative, reflective, explanatory, allegorical);
- genre of the text (novel, poem, newspaper article, advertisement);
- theme of the text.

Summarizing

As a post-reading activity, teachers may ask students to write a summary of the main points of a text. Chambers and Brigham (1989, cited in Nation, 2009), report an interesting strategy to help learners summarize a passage. This strategy is called *summary by deletion*. This involves the following steps:

1. Students read the passage and delete all the sentences that merely elaborate the main sentences;
2. They delete all unnecessary clauses and phrases from the main sentences;
3. They delete all unnecessary words from what remains;
4. They replace the remaining words with their own expressions;
5. They write a final draft of the summary.

Retelling the story

Retelling the story would help learners to talk about the content of the passage. It is an opportunity for the teacher to integrate the speaking skill within the reading activity.

Think-Pair-Share

This is an excellent activity to help learners summarize what they learned and discuss it with other peers. This activity also encourages interaction and leads to various perspectives and comprehension. Here is how to proceed:

- Students write down their thoughts on the topic of the passage;
- Then, they discuss with a partner;
- Finally, they share with the whole class;
- They can rewrite the story and changing tenses, beginning/ending, point of view;
- They can extend stories.

Drawing

The teacher encourages the learners to translate the content of the text into storyboards, cartoons, or pictures. For example, they have to convert the most important ideas, facts, or events into the form of pictures accompanied with explanations in the form of captions.

Search quest

After reading the text, the teacher encourages the students to conduct a search quest to find out more about the topic of the text.

Videos

Students may use their cameras on their mobiles to make a video about the text. This can take the form of: a role play, a report, interview, etc.

Presentations

Students may be asked to prepare a presentation about the text. They may use the internet to find documents related to the topic. These documents can be in the form of pictures, movies, songs, poems, etc.

Vocabulary work

To gain cognitive depth of the vocabulary learned, students have to be encouraged to work on the newly acquired lexical items:

- Students identify the newly acquired words in the passage. They quiz each other on the parts of speech and meaning of these words;
- Students choose 10 words from the text, which they have to use to produce 10 sentences or to write a piece of writing that is related to the topic;
- Students find synonyms or antonyms for words/structures in the text;
- They do different exercises (multiple-choice, filling in, matching words/ structures in lists, completing sentences, filling in tables, etc.)

Peer testing

- Students work in pairs or in groups;
- They have to prepare questions about the text they have just read;
- The members of each pair or each group will have to identify:

- intention of the author (to shock, to amuse, to persuade, to warn, to impart information);
- attitude of the author (subjective/objective, indifferent/involved, confident/detached);
- point of view;
- setting;
- atmosphere of the extract (gloomy, optimistic);
- tone of the writer (monotonous, optimistic, hopeful, pessimistic, ironic, humorous, enthusiastic);
- rhetorical devices (cohesive devices, lexical linkers- repetitions, synonyms, stylistic devices etc.);
- discourse markers in the text.

5.4 The importance of rereading

Rereading consists of ongoing and repeated encounters with a text, guided by a particular task so that segments of the text get revisited and rethought. Rereading is the most effective type of reading, especially of foreign language texts, because it offers learners the opportunity to re-think messages and see features they have not noticed in initial reading.

Table 5.4.1 Differences between initial and rereading activities

Activities in initial reading	Activities in rereading
Identify the main topic, examples of its features (summarize content in a FL)	Talk or write about details and their implications (analyze or interpret content)
Identify words and phrases conveying author messages and author POV (point of view)	Role play or write about that POV from the reader's perspective (modify, agree, disagree)
Identify genre features (expected order of events; types of people, events, ideas, or objects; characteristics of style)	Perform or rewrite in a different genre (from description to dialogue, letter, diary entry, etc.)
Comprehend and reproduce text language in appropriate categories using provided matrix headings	Use different categories to change the text's messages (e.g., from before / after to problem / solution)

When learners read through the whole text two or three times, they will find that their own comprehension of the text improves, especially if their goal is to find how information is presented or arranged in that text-how it is sequenced and weighted. Such assessments help readers take a further analytic step. Readers start identifying ways a text's structure or semantics can suggest a point of view (positive, negative, dismissive, laudatory, impartial, incomplete, etc.) or an approach typical or atypical for the text's genre.

REFLECTION

1. What are some good strategies to develop pre-readers' comprehension skills?
2. What should be the reading habits for an academic programme?
3. How can teachers speed up the reading skills and the learning process?
4. How much background knowledge is needed to understand a piece of text?
5. Explain how the rereading can contribute to the development of reading comprehension.
6. Suggest some strategies of developing students' literacy horizons and motivating children to read.

TASKS FOR INDEPENDENT WORK

Project work: Practicing teaching
Topic: Developing reading comprehension

- Three students prepare teaching reading activities related to different stages of teaching a skill:

1. Pre-reading activities,

2. While reading activities,
3. Post-reading activities.

- Students teach a stage of a lesson related to a topic they discuss in advance. Time allowed is 5-7 minutes for each stage;
- The group plays the role of children/students;
- The closing activity consists in analysis and evaluation of the practical activities.
- Activity evaluation – whole class.

UNIT 6.
DEVELOPING LISTENING COMPREHENSION

6.1 Introduction

Cultivating students' listening skills is one of the most difficult tasks for any English as a second language (ESL) teacher. This is because successful listening skills are acquired over time and with lots of practice. The demands of the task are often frustrating for students because there are no precise rules, as in grammar teaching. Understanding that language is controlled by particular cultural experiences is a necessity for the language learner. If the cultural differences between the students' own culture and that of the language they are to learn is excessive, learners will usually keep some distance from the target language in their efforts to maintain their psychological comfort level. The aspect of cultural knowledge transmission is an equal part of language improvement and development of work in listening development has the potential for achieving a powerful influence on the formulation of students thinking habits and the application of foreign language expressions.

Cultural teaching, then, has direct and concrete influences on *intercultural communication*. When students gain an intimate knowledge of the culture of the target language they begin to understand how the language is used to reflect the thoughts, behaviors and customs of that society. In teaching English listening, teachers need to develop students' consciousness about intercultural communication and they need to energize students' capacity for wanting to engage with a different culture. Great care needs to be taken when selecting listening material and auxiliary texts, since these are a crucial aspect of the cultural factors in listening teaching. The selection of material related to British and American cultural background knowledge is of particular importance, since these tend to be the focus of much of the classroom time when students thinking ability and intercultural awareness is being cultivated.

Listening comprehension (LC) lessons must have definite goals, carefully stated. These goals should fit into the overall curriculum, and both teacher and students should be clearly cognizant of what they are:

1. Listening comprehension lessons should be constructed with careful step by step planning. This implies, that the listening tasks progress from simple to more complex as the student gains in language proficiency; that the student knows exactly what the task is and is given directions as to —what to listen for, where to listen, when to listen, and how to listen.

2. Listening comprehension lesson structure should demand active overt student participation. The most overt student participation involves his/her

written response to the listening comprehension material, and that immediate feedback on performance helps keep interest and motivation at high levels.

3. Listening comprehension lesson should provide a communicative urgency for remembering in order to develop concentration. This urgency, which along with concentration is a key factor in remembering, should come not from the teacher, but from the lesson itself. This is done by giving the students the writing assignment before they listen to the material.

4. Listening comprehension lessons should stress conscious memory work. One of the goals of listening is to strengthen the students' immediate recall in order to increase their memory spans. Listening is receiving, receiving requires thinking, and thinking requires memory; there is no way to separate listening, thinking, remembering.

5. Listening comprehension lessons should teach, not test. This means that the purpose of checking the students' answers should be viewed only as feedback, as a way of letting the students find out how they did and how they are progressing. There should be no pass/fail attitude associated with the correction of the exercises.

6.2 The listening comprehension process

To communicate adequately it is important for a listener to understand what the speaker says. Understanding spoken language can be described as an inferential process based on the perception of several cues rather than a simple match between sounds and meaning. The listening comprehension process is a combination of (roughly) four sub-processes or modules:

- *Hearing:* the auditory reception of an acoustic signal (perception), as is also performed on non-speech sounds;
- *Categorization of sounds*: categorizing incoming sounds in terms of the sound categories of the language;
- *Word recognition*: breaking up the stream of sounds into linguistic units (morphemes, words) and retrieving their meaning from long term memory; and
- *Comprehension*: integrating the meanings of the words in their sequence into an interpretation of the entire utterance, i.e., a reconstruction of the speaker's communicative intention (= message).

Obviously, the third and fourth modules draw heavily on linguistic knowledge. Both lexical knowledge, needed to recognize words, and knowledge of the rule system of the language, needed to decode the grammatical relationships among the words that make up the sentence, are part of the listener's linguistic competence. However, especially at the third stage, knowledge of the world, i.e.,

non-linguistic knowledge plays an often-indispensable role in the listening process.

The first sub-process of the listening skill is *hearing*. Hearing is the relatively peripheral process of filtering the relevant speech signal from the multitude of acoustic events that simultaneously strike the ear. Even under optimal listening conditions the speaker's voice must be isolated from background noise. In more complicated listening situations, such as may occur when several speakers talk at the same time, in a noisy environment, the process by which a listener is able to attend to just one speaker's voice is ill understood. The sub-process of filtering the relevant signal from the complex auditory input is language independent, and never poses a specific problem for the foreign language learner.

As a first language-specific transformation listeners *categorize* incoming sounds in terms of the sound categories of their language, this is the second sub-process of listening. Speech sounds differ along a limited number of phonetic dimensions, each of which may depend on several auditory cues. Spoken utterances are characterized by so called supra-segmental (or prosodic) properties. These are properties that do not belong to specific, individual speech sounds but subtend larger units of at least the size of a syllable. Prosodic features serve to break up the continuous utterance into smaller chunks (clauses and phrases, sometimes referred to as thought units) by the presence of pauses and boundary marking pitch changes, and to mark one syllable or word.

The third sub-process of the listening skill is *word recognition*. The process of word recognition has been the object of phonetic and psycholinguistic research for years; the extensive body of research has resulted in several word recognition models. The word recognition process in a non-native language has to deal with the incongruence between native and non-native language elements. It is only recently that researchers have begun to work on an explicit non-native word recognition model.

The fourth sub-process of the listening skill is *the comprehension* (and/or interpretation) of the stream of sounds that is uttered by the speaker. When the incoming words are recognized, they are assigned to grammatical categories (various classes of content words and function words) and the structural and semantic relationships between the words are established: the input gets parsed. Because of the redundancy in communication it is not necessary for the listener to make a precise and exhaustive grammatical analysis; moreover, the rate of delivery and the limited processing capacities of the listener make it rather impossible for language users to construct detailed grammatical analyses. The parsing process critically depends on the learner's knowledge of the language.

Understanding a message does not mean remembering every single detail, so students' inability to recall information does not always signal a lack of comprehension. Yet some exercises - namely, multiple-choice and very specific ques-

tions - test listeners' memory skills rather than focusing on the listening process. Instructors should try to include various types of comprehension questions that discuss the content of the text as well as invite students to examine their listening performance.

Ineffective listeners rely on a single strategy (e.g., focusing on individual sentences, missing the relationship between ideas) without changing or adapting it. To cope with difficult texts more effectively, students should be exposed to a variety of strategies. Explaining, modeling, and regularly practicing with students how to set goals, plan tasks, self monitor, and evaluate helps them control their listening. Anticipating content, inferring, guessing, and recognizing redundancies improves specific listening problems. Encouraging interaction with classmates and native speakers through listening expands communicative contexts and enhances self-confidence.

Effective strategy use does not happen by itself. Although the very idea of strategies may seem to be too abstract to students, teachers can help them appreciate the importance of strategies by including activities with a focus on their listening process. For example, students could discuss (in small groups or with the class) what they did to prepare for listening, follow the text, identify key points, and so forth. Or the class could share personal experiences with various listening tasks and develop a master list of effective strategies for different types of texts, adding to it as their strategic competence grows. To introduce a strategy, the teacher needs to get students to realize that there is a problem and a way of dealing with it. The teacher can model the strategy by explaining what he/she does and why it is helpful in this particular case, and provide multiple opportunities to practice in different listening situations. Depending on the task, the teacher could also remind students to be flexible in their choice of strategies and to employ strategic listening outside of the class.

The listening skill offers students various opportunities to acquire new language used in different contexts, with different varieties and accents of English and to develop their understanding of the spoken language. Comprehension of the natural discourse involves students taking into account both the linguistic and situational context in which the language is produced; their evaluating both literal and implied meaning of words and phrases, as well as recognizing of indirectness of various speech acts.

In addition to linguistic skills learners must have some non–linguistic skills and knowledge: appropriate background knowledge, appropriate social and cultural skills and knowledge, appropriate purpose for listening. Taking into account the fact that the listening skill is not acquired automatically and at the same time language learning involves intentional listening, teachers need to teach their students how to do it and how to develop this skill.

6.3 Types of listening activities

1. *Global listening comprehension* or *extensive listening* refers to understanding the very general idea(s) or gist of the listening text after the first or second listening activity. While the students might pick up some details after the first listen, teacher's aim should be to help them focus on the general meaning first, so that they can establish a preliminary framework that will enable them to get more details in the subsequent listens.

2. *Holistic listening activity* means listening to the whole text while *segmental listening* involves listening to specific segments of the text. Holistic listening should precede segmental listening, and its aim is to allow students to develop strategies and build stamina in processing listening texts. The segmental listening is very beneficial while doing intensive listening.

3. *Intensive listening* has the global comprehension as a purpose. It requires students to understand the meaning of each discourse and, ultimately, to understand every sentence and word. Generally, intensive listening requires students to listen to a text several times, or divide the text into paragraphs and sentences to understand each one; or by doing dictation word by word. It is crucial to help students develop effective listening strategies and build listening skills that are emphasized in global listening activities. Intensive listening involves zeroing in on particular segments of the text, and this should come only after the students have developed global comprehension of the text. Intensive listening may target different goals such as:

- Getting more detailed understanding of some segments of the text;
- Transcribing certain segments in the text;
- Guessing the meaning of a word or phrase from context;
- Looking at some grammatical structures to see how they can aid comprehension, etc.

Intensive listening activities can be done in class or in the laboratory or can be given as homework assignments. At the lower levels of instruction, teachers consider doing global comprehension activities in class to work on strategies and utilize group work, and assign the intensive listening part for homework.

The purpose of intensive listening is to build basic listening skills, while extensive listening is to strengthen and enlarge effectiveness of intensive listening in order to improve overall listening ability. In listening teaching, both intensive and extensive listening should be combined with cultivating students' basic skills, the development of the productive listening habits of active thinking and the ability to understand the text. Therefore, teachers must encourage students to engage in intensive listening in class, requiring students to understand the general meaning and also to become familiarized with English pronunciation, intonation and the changes in language flow.

In activities outside the class students need to engage in extensive listening; listening to many different varieties of language phenomena and gaining more knowledge through TV programs, radio, the Internet and as many other kinds of exposure to listening training they can find. Exposure to demands of listening should include aspects of everyday life, science and technology, and academic lectures. Teachers must create language-learning environments that stimulate students' interests and raise students' passion and enthusiasm for learning English.

The fact that listening is a complex multistep procedure that involves different types of processing implies that both top-down and bottom-up skills should be practiced in the classroom. Although many teachers tend to favor such top-down activities as comprehension questions, predicting, and listing, listening practice should incorporate bottom-up exercises for pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary that allow learners to pay close attention to language as well.

Bottom-up processing helps students recognize lexical and pronunciation features to understand the text. Because of their direct focus on language forms at the word and sentence levels, bottom-up exercises are particularly beneficial for lower level students who need to expand their language repertoire. As they become more aware of linguistic features of the input, the speed and accuracy of perceiving and processing aural input will increase. To develop bottom-up processing, students could be asked to:

- distinguish individual sounds, word boundaries, and stressed syllables;
- identify thought groups;
- listen for intonation patterns in utterances;
- identify grammatical forms and functions;
- recognize contractions and connected speech;
- recognize linking words.

Top-down processing relies on prior knowledge and experience to build the meaning of a listening text using the information provided by sounds and words. To arrive at a meaning of a text, the listener draws on her knowledge of the context, topic, speakers, situation, and the world, matching it to the aural input. Top-down listening skills include the following techniques:

- listening for gist, main ideas, topic, and setting of the text;
- listening for specific information;
- sequencing the information;
- prediction;
- guessing;
- making inferences.

Skilled listeners simultaneously engage in top-down and bottom-up processing, using both types of skills to construct meaning. Although pedagogically peo-

ple often practice them separately because of their distinctly different focus, they can be addressed within the context of a single listening text.

6.4 Principles in teaching listening comprehension

According to Morley and Lawrence (1991), there are *general principles* for teaching listening comprehension. They are as follows:

1. Listening comprehension lessons should have definite goals and they should be clearly stated.

2. Listening comprehension lessons should be constructed with careful step by step planning. This suggests that listening activities move from the simple to the more complex ones; that the learners know what the activities are and are given directions as to "what to listen for, where to listen, when to listen, and how to listen."

3. Listening comprehension structure should demand active overt student participant. That is, the most overt student participant includes the written answer to listening comprehension material and immediate feedback on performance helps keep learners' interest and motivation.

4. Listening comprehension lessons should provide a communicative necessity for remembering to develop concentration. This necessity should come from the lesson. This is done by giving the learners the writing assignment before they listen to the material.

5. Listening comprehension lessons should emphasize conscious memory work. One of the objectives of listening is to strengthen the learners' immediate recall to increase their memory spans. It means that listening is receiving, receiving needs thinking, and thinking needs memory; there is no way to separate listening, thinking, remembering.

6. Listening comprehension lessons should "teach" not "test." It means that the goal of checking the learners' responses should be viewed only as feedback, as a way of allowing the learners understand how they did and how they are progressing. There should be no pass/fail attitude related with the correction of the exercises.

Specific listening principles are:

- Teachers are carefully preparing the listening activity by discussing the topic in advance;
- The students are offered to listen to different materials as many times as possible;
- The teacher encourages them not only to listen, but also to work on different tasks related to the listening material;
- The teacher tells the student that they do not need to understand everything from the very beginning, this is a gradual process under various forms and different situations;

- The teacher and the students discuss topics in advance and activate linguistic and background knowledge;
- The teacher allows students to listen to authentic materials (lectures, every day conversations, songs, TV news, etc.) graded according to their level and covering a wide range of accents, speaking styles;
- The teacher should choose the strategies and techniques that ensure recognition, comprehension and procession of the material;
- The teacher encourages students in their attempt of correct decoding of the listening material.

It is impossible to have pure listening classes. This happens because effective listening involves complex processes of recognition, identification, selection, evaluation etc. This means that the skill is often integrated with speaking or writing.

6.5 Stages of a listening activity

1. Pre-Listening Stage

A well-designed listening activity should be broken down into carefully sequenced "phases" that build on each other. The initial pre-listening phase should prepare students by helping them activate their background knowledge and clarify their expectations and assumptions about the text. An ideal pre-listening task is one in which the teacher, through carefully constructed questions, helps the students to activate the background information and language components needed to comprehend the text without "giving" this information to the students. The students in class had not seen the text before or done any preparation for listening. This stage gives the teacher an important role: that of preparing students for the listening task. The aims of stage are:

- To activate the students' schema and vocabulary related to the topic;
- To form some preliminary assumptions about the content of the text;
- To motivate students for the activity by posing some questions that could provide them with a reason for listening.

Recommended techniques of this stage include:

1. Discussions about the topics. This activity may be based on: looking at pictures, maps, charts, diagrams and talking about them; exchanging ideas about the topic brought into discussion by the teacher; reading a text based on the same topic.

2. *Predicting*. Students predict the topic, the vocabulary they expect to hear or predict content or make lists of ideas they expect to hear.

3. *Selection*. Students may be given a list a words (some of them are from the listening material, others are not), they have to select the ones they expect to hear.

4. *Brainstorming*. Students generate ideas about the topic. The information can be organized within semantic maps/mind maps.

5. Guiding questions. The teacher guides discussions through a process of questioning or pre-learning vocabulary.

2. While-Listening Stage

Listeners who participate actively in the listening experience are more likely to construct clear and accurate meaning as they interpret the speaker‘s verbal message and nonverbal cues. During the listening experience students verify and revise their predictions. They make interpretations and judgments based on what they heard. Listening teacher may ask students to note down key words to work out the main points of the text. Students answer comprehension questions while listening to the text and select specific information to complete the table provided with the text. While-listening activities usually have some of the following purposes:

- To focus students’ comprehension of the speaker‘s language and ideas;
- To focus students’ attention on such things as the speaker‘s organizational patterns;
- To encourage students’ critical reactions and personal responses to the speaker’s ideas and use of language.

An open-ended activity could follow that allows students to have the freedom to practice listening comprehension in the class about their daily life and asking for further information. In doing while-listening activities, it is important to remember the following:

- The teacher allows students to listen to the text two or three times as a whole before going to intensive listening.
- Students are encouraged to focus on global meaning first and don’t pose questions that ask them for details after the first listen.
- The teacher encourages students to make assumptions after the first listen and verify them after the second listen.
- The teacher focuses the questions and attention at this stage on the segments of the texts that are accessible to the students in terms of vocabulary and structures. At this stage students don’t need to “get” everything in the text.

While-listening stage represents the real meeting of the students with the listening material. The procedure is the following:

1. The teacher plays the cassette from the beginning to the end and students listen to it, then the teacher asks a general question about the text in order to check general comprehension/idea. Before asking the students to report what they have understood and before asking any comprehension questions, teachers should allow them to work in small groups to discuss what they’ve gotten out of

the text after the first engagement with the text. Students report what they have understood. Instead of asking questions on specific pieces of information in the text, the focus should be on global comprehension first and on sharing with the colleagues.

It is important to use the board to write the pieces of information "captured" by the students after the first listen. This will help create focal points for the second listen. If a piece of information presented by a student is incomplete or incorrect, write it down with a question mark and ask the class to focus on it during the second listen. Also, teachers should remember to use positive reinforcement and encouragement and keep in mind that the aim at this phase is to get an overall view of the "forest" not individual trees.

2. The teacher plays the cassette again but stops it after meaningful segments, s/he asks questions to check understanding of details, and at the same time students are given to complete the task, for example:

- Looking at a picture and pointing;
- Ticking off items. Students are given a list of words/a text and they tick off words while listening;
- Circling items. Students are given a list of words and they circle the ones they hear;
- Answering questions. Students are asked one or more questions before proper listening, or they listen to the text and answer the questions;
- Repetition. Students repeat words or structures following the recorded model;
- Note-taking (for advanced level);
- Obeying instructions. Students perform actions in response to instructions, showing comprehension by physical response.

So, comprehension expands after the second listen. After students have finished their second listen, the teacher allows them time to add to, modify, or verify the information they presented after the first listen. Then students can work in pairs to discuss the questions on a worksheet. The goal of these questions is to encourage the students to "dig deeper" in the text in preparation for a possible third listen in class or at home.

When doing listening activities teachers need to remember to allow the students to do multiple listens. They need to have confidence in the students' ability to collectively "create meaning" using the various pieces of information contributed by each one of them.

3. The teacher plays the cassette again from the beginning to the end and students listen to confirm comprehension of the whole text.

It is easy to notice that listening is not the only skill practiced during this stage, speaking or writing is also involved. These activities are connected with the ones done in the previous stage since they are based on the information and

vocabulary discovered during the pre-listening stage. At the same time they help students to perform the tasks in the next stage.

3. Post-Listening Stage

A post-listening activity represents a follow up to the listening activity and aims to utilize the knowledge gained from listening for the development of other skills such as speaking or writing. If students have listened to a TV program presenting a certain point of view regarding health care, for example, teachers can ask the students to do some research and identify some opposing views to present them in class. Alternatively, teachers may want to engage the students in a discussion of the merits of the views that were expressed in the listening segment. Like post-reading activities, post-listening activities allow for recycling and further activation of vocabulary and structures as long as they are interesting and engaging and are carefully thought out. Here are some examples of follow-up activities:

- Comparing passages, information with predictions made in the pre-listening;
- Completing charts or grids on the basis of the acquired information;
- Identifying similarities/differences, mistakes;
- Extending lists, paraphrasing (students retell or rewrite the text using different words);
- Re-ordering a jumbled dialogue; role play simulation, text mapping, summarizing, doing true-false exercises;
- Problem–solving. The teacher describes a problem, students listen to it and then discuss the solution;
- Jigsaw listening. Students are divided into groups, listen to different passages and then exchange information to complete the text;
- Filling in the missing words, tables, charts, diagrams;
- Students engage in conversations or put down the ideas on the basis of knowledge they received during the listening activity.

In order to improve the listening ability it is necessary to listen frequently to a teacher reading well, since it is very difficult to generate a high quality output without appropriate input. Secondly, students need to practice reading aloud. By such activity students will learn to combine the act of listening with reading. Students must be actively engaged in producing language of high quality if they are to improve their English proficiency levels. Teacher-student and students-student exchanges should be emphasized as opportunities for a free exchange of opinions when participants can consolidate their listening approaches and skills during the process of communication. Through a variety of listening-reading, listening-writing and listening-speaking activities, students can not only strengthen their language skills but also sharpen their interests and raise their motivation to improve their learning efficiency.

6.6 The role of students

The process view of listening has changed the role of the listener from someone who was thought to passively receive the spoken message to an active participant in the act. Translated into the realities of classroom teaching it means that students take responsibility for their own learning how to listen. Instead of ingesting language and content, responding to comprehension questions when asked, and receiving instruction, they interact with the text and the task at many levels. They construct meaning by drawing on their schemata and switching between bottom-up and top-down processing. They employ a variety of strategies and skills, and discuss their effectiveness with their classmates. They rely on meta-cognitive abilities to overcome difficulties and seek additional opportunities to listen outside of class. By actively attending to their listening needs, learners improve performance in listening and learning the second language.

Another important aspect of active listening is its *social dimension*. A typical listening textbook as well as most teacher-made material contains only recorded speech. Thus students cannot rely on facial expressions and body language to gain valuable cues to meaning, and they are missing the opportunity to communicate with the speaker as well. To approximate real-life listening experiences, students can be grouped or paired up to practice showing understanding or incomprehension, asking questions, agreeing or disagreeing with the speaker, and interrupting when appropriate.

Students are capable of observing their own cognitive processes in their listening and also verbalizing their theories about learning to listen in English. The listening notes by students and pre-listening and post-listening discussions are very helpful in this sense. These activities are very useful by involving students in thinking, not just about the content of listening, but more importantly, about the process of listening. By doing so, they can have chances to share with one another‘s thoughts and strategies so that they can improve their own listening ability. More importantly, they will be aware of what leads to their success and failure and then work out their own effective strategies in listening.

6.7 Teacher’s role versus listening challenges

In a process-oriented classroom, the teacher assumes a more supportive role, facilitating rather than controlling and testing listening. The teacher continues to manage the classroom business of planning, implementing, and assessing listening while taking a non-interventional stance in listening instruction. Instead of presenting students with the correct answer, teachers guide them in comparing responses and reflecting on different steps they took to achieve comprehension. Students are encouraged to become aware of their listening, monitor their efforts,

and provide feedback on their performance. It is essential that students receive feedback immediately after the task, while they still remember the activity.

At the same time, teachers do not want to embarrass weaker listeners in front of their classmates, so the discussion of common errors and ways to avoid them should be impersonal and nonjudgmental: e.g. *There were some problems with . . .* instead of *You made a mistake in . . . .*

Personal feedback can be spoken or written; a quick in-class conference right after the activity may be followed by an email message with observations and suggestions after class. Individual comments should be transparent, targeting specific strengths and weaknesses and providing tips for improvement. A good strategy is to start with a general positive statement: e.g. *You did a great job understanding all the reasons the speaker stated*. Teachers can also mention areas for improvement: e.g. *I didn't see you taking notes while listening. Did you pay attention?*

Feedback could be finished with encouragement to sustain confidence and create a positive listening environment where students are not afraid to try new strategies, make guesses, and discuss:

e.g. *You managed to understand a lot from the text*.

To relieve anxiety associated with listening in a foreign language successful teachers find ways to praise even their smallest successes to give them a sense of accomplishment. For learners, listening presents a challenge for a variety of reasons, among which are the following:

- *Listening involves multiple modes*. Listening involves the interpersonal and interpretive modes of communication. It requires the listener to assume either a participative role in face-to-face conversations, or a nonparticipative role in listening to how other people speak or present.
- *Listening involves all varieties of language*. In addition to listening to lectures and presentations in academic and formal settings, learners have also to partake or listen to exchanges that involve various levels of colloquialism.
- *Listening involves "altered" and "reduced" language forms*. In addition to dealing with the vocabulary and structures of the language, listeners have to learn to comprehend reduced forms of the language (e.g., I *wanna* go, Just a *sec*).
- *Listening involves variable rates of delivery*. Unlike a reading text that is at the learner's control, a listening text is constantly moving and at variable speeds that often cannot be controlled by the listener.

Because of all these factors, listening activities often create high levels of anxiety and stress among learners that can interfere with comprehension.

Teaching listening skills is one of the most difficult tasks for any ESL teacher. This is because successful listening skills are acquired over time and with lots of

practice. It's frustrating for students because there are no rules as in grammar teaching. One of the largest inhibitors for students is often mental block. While listening, a student suddenly decides that he/she doesn't understand what is being said. At this point, many students just tune out or get caught up in an internal dialogue trying to translate a specific word. Some students convince themselves that they are not able to understand spoken English well and create problems for themselves. Signs that students are blocking are:

- Students constantly look up words;
- Students make pauses when speaking;
- Students change their eye contact away from the speaker as if they are thinking about something;
- Students write words down during conversation exercises.

They key to helping students improve their listening skills is to convince them that not understanding is OK. This is more of an attitude adjustment than anything else, and it is easier for some students to accept than others. Another important point that is that they need to listen to English as often as possible, but for short periods of time. Teachers need to select a wide range of materials to increase listening content besides using textbooks. Students need to listen to different levels of English in order to be exposed to natural, lively, rich language, such as listening to English songs, seeing films with English text. In these ways it is possible to raise students' enthusiasm, cultivate their listening interests, and achieve the goals of learning English.

REFLECTION

1. What are the factors that influence the choice of the type of processing (top –down, bottom - up) the teachers usually take into consideration?
2. To what extent do you think we can utilize group work in doing listening activities?
3. How can a teacher help the students who still don't get anything from a listening passage after listening multiple times?
4. How can students be prepared for a listening activity?
5. What is the relation between listening and intercultural communication?

TASKS FOR INDEPENDENT WORK

Project work: Practicing teaching

Topic: Developing listening comprehension

- Three students prepare listening activities related to different stages of teaching a skill:

1. Pre - listening activities,
2. While - listening activities,

3. Post - listening activities.

- Students teach a stage of a lesson related to a topic they discuss in advance. Time allowed is 5-7 minutes for each stage;
- The group plays the role of children/students;
- The closing activity consists in analysis and evaluation of the practical activities.
- Activity evaluation – whole class.

UNIT 7.
DEVELOPING WRITING SKILLS

7.1 Introduction

Writing is one of the most difficult of language skills. It is more than putting down sign or letters or the alphabet or words and phrases in isolation. Writing requires the ability to produce language in chunks; it requires deliberate organization of ideas and their logical development with appropriate language use and meaningful expression.

Out of the four skills in learning a language , 'writing ' is very important, as it serves as the medium through which we communicate our ideas, thought or feelings to people who are at a distance from us. In fact, language learning is incomplete without acquiring writing skills. For a second language learner, writing in second language is used for specific purposes but the mother tongue is used for all other general purposes. Here are some assumptions and principles about writing that should be taken into consideration by the teachers of foreign languages:

- Students learn best by *doing*. Teachers offer an abundant and engaging range of writing tasks for meaningful purposes and real audiences;
- Getting better at writing requires doing it a lot. Development in writing capacity requires regular opportunities to write in order to improve the writing process;
- *Purpose* and *audience* shape all writing. Teachers make this clear to students before expecting them to write;
- Writing is a process, not a 'one-shot-act' to produce a product for the teacher (as examiner);
- We not only learn to write, but *we write to learn*. Writing is a means of discovering, connecting, clarifying and communicating what we know and who we are;
- Writing involves four elements: the writer, the reader, the ideas and the craft. "I (writer) intend to persuade you (reader) of the importance of X (ideas) and will do so in Y form (craft)" (Walshe, 1980);
- *What* is being written will shape *how* and in what *form* it is finally presented;
- The continuum of writing begins with reflection and culminates in publication;
- The teacher must model being a writer by writing with the class and sharing their writing (and their process of writing) as much as possible;
- The teacher provides models of good writing by immersing students in others' writing;

- The teacher must help the students to understand writing as a process and provide many authentic opportunities for sharing and publishing students' writing;
- Teachers must monitor students' writing and show them how they are growing as writers. Every writer needs a writing partner – a caring, patient, helpful person to share in the journey;
- Not all writing should be linked to assessment;
- Reading and writing are not binary opposites (i.e. it is false to perceive reading as passive reception and writing as active production). Both are part of the same process of actively re-writing everything that is read and actively re-reading everything that is written. Students learn to read texts from a writer's point of view and write texts from a reader's point of view;
- Effective writing practices and routines should begin in years 7-10 in order to build student capacity and capital, cultivate positive attitudes to and enjoyment of writing, and develop confidence in writing.

7.2 Reflection points for teaching writing

In the light of these principles, it is instructive to reflect on teaching practices by noticing some of the facts that may constrain students' engagement and development. The table below highlights a number of potentially limiting practices and reflection points for consideration.

Table 7.2.1 Writing limiting practices and reflection points

Writing (composing)	Reflection points for teaching
Students are frequently required to respond to someone else's writing (texts they have read)	Is there an appropriate balance between opportunities for students to write in response to others' texts and opportunities to compose their own texts?
Topics are usually assigned by teacher, with limited choice in content and form	Are there opportunities for students to choose their own writing topics? Are there options for students to select from within assessment tasks?
The audience for student writing is generally that of the teacher (as examiner)	Do students have opportunities to write for a range of audiences beyond those of the teacher (and peers)?
Writing tasks are often not explicitly connected to a meaningful purpose, beyond assessment	Does a writing task include a purpose that can be connected to students' lives?
Little class time is dedicated to writing	Do students have regular opportunities in class to engage in the process of writing?

There is an emphasis in the classroom on critical writing, with creative writing often undertaken by students at home in their own time	Are there opportunities for creative as well as critical writing in class?
Writing is usually assessed as a final 'product'	Are students encouraged to reflect on their writing in order to develop confidence as writers and to internalize the writing process? Are aspects of the process of writing assessed in addition to the final product? Is all (or most) student writing assessed?

There is no precise answer to the question of how to teach writing. There are as many answers as there are teachers and teaching styles, or learners and learning styles. The following diagram shows *what* writers have to deal with as they produce a piece of writing:

Table 7.2.2 Components of a piece of writing

SYNTAX sentence structure, sentence boundaries, stylistic choice, *etc.*		CONTENT relevance, clarity, originality, logic, *etc.*	THE WRITER'S PROCESS getting ideas, getting started, writing drafts, revising
GRAMMAR rules for verbs, agreement, article, pronouns, *etc.*		**CLEAR, FLUENT, AND EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION OF IDEAS**	PURPOSE the reason for writing
MECHANICS handwriting, spelling, punctuation, *etc.*	ORGANIZATION paragraphs, topic and support, cohesion and unity	AUDIENCE the reader/s	WORD CHOICE vocabulary, idiom, tone

7.3 Approaches to teaching writing

Writing is a productive skill that brings many benefits to students, such as developing creativity, grammar practice, vocabulary and spelling, ideas organization. There are lots of approaches to teaching writing.

The Controlled-to-Free Approach

In the 1950s and early 1960s, speech was the main concern in language teaching, and writing was considered a sub-skill for reinforcing speech through mastery of language forms. Ken Hyland labels this approach as "focus on language structures" and provides a four-stage process of writing; in the first stage, students learn certain grammar and vocabulary, and in the second stage, students practice fixed patterns. Next, students copy model texts, and finally, students write essays using the patterns they have learned. This process is sequential and

aims at achieving accuracy; writing instruction focuses on developing reproduction skills in fixed patterns and the ability to identify and correct problems from linguistic knowledge.

This approach emphasizes accuracy of writing over fluency, and classroom activities are designed to develop the students' ability to produce certain structures. First of all, presenting formal patterns as short fragments is not authentic and can make it difficult to develop writing skills beyond a sentence level. Although students can compose accurate sentences, it does not mean that they can produce appropriate written texts for a particular communicative purpose.

In addition, structure-focused instruction disregards knowledge of both writers and readers; writers decide what and how to write depending on the readers and purpose of writing. Readers also bring their linguistic and contextual knowledge to infer the meaning of the texts. In this way, syntax, grammar, and mechanics are mostly emphasized instead of content, process, audience, and purpose of writing. This approach expects writers to have error-free sentences, and this characteristic makes it different from the other writing approaches.

The Free-Writing Approach

This approach emphasizes quantity and fluency over quality and accuracy; students write freely on a topic as much and as quickly as possible without worrying about correct forms. Although students at first feel challenged to pour out their ideas quickly, as they practice it, they feel more comfortable putting their ideas down on a piece of paper. Teachers do not correct students' free-writing but only comment on the content. Some students volunteer to read their writing to the class, which provides a real audience for students. It is important that teachers allow students to express what they want to say and focus on the students' own creativity and self-discovery. Teachers should not be directive but supportive; they should try to provide a positive and cooperative environment to help students freely construct their own meanings.

The Free-Writing Approach does have some drawbacks. Although some students find writing is not so frightening through this approach, others may experience difficulties because the free-writing approach is unlikely to consider the special needs of beginning-level learners. Those learners, especially in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms, need more specific guidelines and directive interventions from teachers because those students struggle to find appropriate vocabulary and compose a basic sentence. In academic writing, students have to write about certain topics with researching the topics instead of freely writing down what they want to express. Also, the errors in students' final products do affect the students' final grades for the papers, so students should focus on organization and accuracy as well as content. In this regard, the free writing approach has limitations in preparing EFL students for academic writing.

In short, the approach considers content the most important instead of accurate forms of languages.

The Paragraph-Pattern Approach

Instead of accuracy of grammar or fluency of content, the paragraph-pattern approach stresses another feature of the diagram, organization. Students copy paragraphs, analyze the form of model paragraphs, and imitate model passages. They put scrambled sentences into paragraph order, they identify general and specific statements, they choose or invent an appropriate topic sentence, they insert or delete sentences. This approach is based on the principle that in different cultures people construct and organize their communication with each other in different ways. So even if students organize their ideas well in their first language, they still need to see, analyze, and practice the particularly "English" features of a piece of writing.

The Grammar-Syntax-Organization-Approach

This approach stresses on simultaneous work on more than one composition feature. Teachers who follow this approach maintain that writing cannot be seen as composed of separate skills which are learned sequentially. Therefore, students should be trained to pay attention to organization while they also work on the necessary grammar and syntax. This approach links the purpose of writing to the forms that are needed to convey the message.

Some teachers stressed the need to work simultaneously on more than one of the features. Writing, they claim, cannot be seen as composed of separate skills which are learned one by one. So they devise writing tasks that lead students to pay attention to organization while they also work on the necessary grammar and syntax. For example to write a clear set of instructions on how to operate a calculator, the writer needs more than the appropriate organizational plan based on chronology; sequence and words like first, then finally and perhaps even sentences structures like "When..., then...". During discussion and preparation of the task, all these are reviewed or taught for the first time. Students see the connection between what they are trying to write and what they need to write. This approach then links the purpose of a piece of writing to the forms that are needed to convey the message. So, this approach takes into account both the accuracy of the message and the form under which it is conveyed.

The Communicative Approach

This approach stresses the purpose of a piece of writing and the audience for it. Student writers are encouraged to behave like writers in real life and to ask themselves the crucial questions about purpose and audience.

- Why am I writing this?
- Who will read it?

Traditionally, the teachers alone have been the audience for student writing. But some feel that writers do their best when writing is truly a communicative act, with a writer writing for a real reader. So, teachers using communicative approach have extended the readership. They extend it to other students in the class who not only read the piece but actually do something with it, such as respond, rewrite it another form, summarize or make comments but not correct.

The Process Approach

This is a recent approach to writing, the accent is no longer on the product but on the process. Students are trained to generate ideas, by discovering ideas and new language forms, they take responsibility for their own writing, as they chose topics, forms, genres and they write about their own observations and experiences. Thus, the process approach puts major focus on the process of writing, such as how writers get started or how they develop their ideas. As students are given enough time to go through the writing process along with appropriate feedback from both their teachers and peers, they can develop their first drafts which might be unorganized and full of grammatical errors to final drafts which are better organized with fewer grammatical errors. Process writing teachers should be careful when adapting this approach to classrooms. Students who learn English as a second language (ESL) or a foreign language (EFL) expect more explicit and strict direction from their teachers.

In the process approach, the students do not write on a given topic in a restricted time and hand in the composition for the teacher to "correct" which is usually means to find the errors, rather they explore a topic through writing and showing the teacher and other each other their drafts and using what they write to read over, think about, and move them on to new ideas.

Teachers who use the process approach give their students two crucial supports: time for the students to try out ideas and feedback on the content of what they write in their draft. They find that the writing process becomes a process of discovery for the students: discovery of a new ideas, and new language forms to express those ideas.

Process writing has been criticized because it puts the focus only on process, and teaching good writers' strategies cannot fully equip students as good writers. In implementing process writing in the ESL/EFL classroom, it is still controversial whether teachers should correct students' grammatical errors and teach students grammar to improve students' writing or not.

Cooperative Approach

Apparently, this alternative to individual writing draws its great advantage from cooperation with others. As Harmer (2001) points out, the group research or generation of ideas is much richer than if students work individually. What motivates students for active participation is common work on the whole writing

assignment: gathering ideas, discussion and even peer evaluation. Group work is then crowned with group pride of group accomplishment. Cooperative approach works well with genre-based as well as process writing, or as the case may be, with all approaches as it 'only' alters the pattern of interaction of the assigned writing task from individual to group work. And, not only is this way of writing advantageous and easier for students, it also brings about a great relief for the teacher who can give more detailed feedback to writing assignments for they seemingly deal with less pieces of group work than of individual work.

7.4 Stages of teaching writing

Teaching writing is a complex process involving many activities like initial probing into experiences, organization of ideas into meaningful sentences and expression of thoughts and feelings by students with confidence and ease. The process of writing is often described as consisting of three major activities or groups of activities or stages:

1. Pre-writing Stage

This stage has the role to stimulate students' flow of ideas and motivate them. This part of the writing process is to some extent a planning part, commencing with choosing a topic and rounding off with structuring ideas, which precede the writing itself.

Choosing topics

Not many are needed, but good ones. The teacher should also have in mind that students themselves are great sources of topics, which can positively influence their writing process as they feel actively engaged and their intrinsic motivation works as a real fuel for their writing journey.

Generating ideas

Generating ideas is one of the most demanding tasks for students. Finding and communicating ideas is more effective if students are allowed to cooperate and if they are given opportunity to speak, to listen, to read, and to write, all in a series of activities rather than in one isolated exercise. We can distinguish two main kinds of discovery techniques for creating ideas: *guided* (using prompts for generating ideas, e.g. questions) and *unguided* (generating ideas by writers themselves, e.g. brainstorming). However, some of the activities in the following list may be used either as guided or unguided:

Brainstorming

It is one of the most effective ways of gathering ideas. It involves quick thinking without inhibition; it suppresses censorship and is suitable for individual or,

even better, group work. Brainstorming by the teacher is used as a demonstration of the technique if unfamiliar to students. Brainstorming by students is a group work benefiting and contributing to the cooperative way of learning.

Questions

A basic problem-solving prompt for the writer, are good to ask as they yield interesting answers that might become foundation of the text-to-be. They can be invented by students themselves or given by the teacher in sets which help students to look at the topic from different angles. Another important aspect of asking right questions is focusing on what the reader needs to know, i.e. the writer should consciously consider what information is shared with the reader and what should therefore be conveyed.

Discussion & Debate

Engaging students in discussion and debate encourages students to create their own understanding of the content and connect it to their experiences. Learning is improved when students are encouraged to form opinions and develop their own ideas about the content. By including discussion and debate-style activities in classes, teachers encourage students to think more deeply and gain broader insight through the shared ideas and different perspectives of others. The effectiveness of an in-class discussion or debate relies heavily upon the level of planning undertaken before class. Students may feel uncomfortable disagreeing publicly, so teachers should try to begin with generic discussions to allow students to build confidence. When planning discussions, things to be considered are:

- What content do you want students to focus on?
- What questions can you ask to inspire a rigorous conversation or debate?
- Will students need time to prepare in advance?
- Will students need guidance with how to ask probing questions?

Note-making

This is a helpful technique that can be either structured (guided) or unstructured (unguided). With the first mentioned, students make organized, categorized notes, e.g. spidergrams, mind maps, whilst with the latter, they write down ideas similarly as in brainstorming – without organizing them.

Visual materials

It plays an essential role in the writing process as it represents a shared experience of all students of the class. Visuals help to draw students' attention, focus them on the same thing, and strengthen their interest. They can bear the form of pictures, photos, drawings, posters, cartoons, diagrams, graphs, tables, maps, and even realia (physical objects). Pictures can be used as singles or as sequences

which bring more divergent interpretations and offer variety of outcomes. Also, completing incomplete maps and plans can offer a great room for creativity.

Role plays and simulations

These are widely used techniques that are open-ended in the range of ideas they may offer and therefore provide a great stimulus for generating ideas.

Reading material

The reading material like pictures accounts for shared content in the classroom and supports communicative activities. In addition, reading, both intensive and extensive, has significantly beneficial contribution to the writing process for it actively engages students with new language and culture.

Whole group discussion

This kind of eliciting ideas, sharing useful vocabulary and grammar, and engaging students with their own opinions and/or experiences, helps generating ideas prior to the writing stage.

Cubing

This strategy allows students to explore a topic from six different points of view. The name cube comes from the fact that cubes have six sides and students explore a topic from the following six perspectives:

1. Describe: How would you describe this topic/issue/event/person? Describe key characteristics /points/and/or attributes including size, shape, and colors.
2. Compare: What is it similar to?
3. Associate: What does it make you think of? How does the topic connect to other topics/issues/subjects? How does this decision/event connect to other decisions/events? How does this person/character relate to other people/characters?
4. Analyze: Tell how it is made or what it is composed of. How would you break the topic / problem / issue /event/decision into smaller parts?
5. Apply: What can you do with it? How is it used? How does it help you understand other topics/issues/decisions/events?
6. Argue for or against: take a stand and list reasons for supporting or not supporting it.

- I am for this because/I am not for this because ...
- This works/ This does not work because ...
- I agree / I disagree because ...

For and against

It is an activity which helps students to come up with ideas regarding the topic. This task can be carried out individually, in pairs or preferably in two buzz

groups, one group thinking about positive reasons/advantages, the other one writing down negative reasons/disadvantages. After a time limit the ideas are shared in class and written on the board.

Analyzing genres

This method is particularly suitable for Genre Approach. If students are writing in a particular genre, they first need to be exposed to a great variety of models and analyze them. Models of concrete genres are a great source to notice: specific vocabulary and phrases, linking words, punctuation, paragraphing, layout, other characteristic features. The best methods therefore are real examples of the targeted genre (e.g. advertisement, formal letter, newspaper article, recipe, etc.)

Linking words

An activity in which students are given texts with first few linking words underlined and the rest removed. They discuss the meaning of the words, how they link ideas and how they are punctuated. Students then fill in blanks with most suitable linking words.

Punctuation

Students inspect punctuation marks, capital letters and apostrophes in the given model and discuss their rules.

Focusing on purpose, reader and form

The expression of the main idea is closely connected to:

- the writer's purpose for writing the particular piece of text;
- taking into account the reader, and
- the form the text is going to take.

Discovering main ideas

It may not happen easily and it often is the case that the writer discovers their key point during the drafting stage. One of three techniques that help the writer find their focus is *fast writing*. Compared to brainstorming, this type of activity develops not only ideas but relates them.

Loopwriting

It is an upgraded fast writing activity with a summarizing sentence after each paragraph used as an opening sentence for a new loop. *Conferencing* is a consultation between the writer and the reader (teacher or colleague student). It is used for clarifying and explaining the writer's point to the reader.

Hypothesizing

A hypothesis is an assumption, interpretation, or guess based on currently available information. It is always subject to refinement as new data becomes

available. Generating *hypotheses*, or making predictions, is one of the most powerful instructional tools. Some teachers refer to it as a process of making "educated guesses" because there are two elements involved. One, students need some background knowledge or prior experiences (the "educated") to make a prediction. Second, they need to use that knowledge in an active way.

Generating hypotheses involves two types of thinking. The first, *deductive* thinking is the process of using a general rule to make a prediction about a future event or occurrence. *Inductive* thinking, on the other hand, is the process of drawing new conclusions based on information we already know and are taught.

Considering purpose

This is a core aspect of the writer's effort to be taken into account. Understanding the importance of purpose in writing is an essential part of the writing process and forms the basis for the writer's decisions on the content and the way of expressing it. It involves methods of detecting the writer's reason, selecting and rejecting ideas, shifting data, transforming (sharing) personal experiences, and establishing or communicating clearly a viewpoint.

Considering audience

It is another important aspect to be considered while composing a text. The writer is to take a role of a critical reader in order to be effective in conveying their message. Certain activities in writing classes can help writers to tailor their writings so as to suit potential readers: reconstructing (deducing the sort of) a reader, clarifying information to unfamiliar reader, or sharing 'expert' knowledge to laymen.

Showing attitude

An activity in which students supply removed attitude words (e.g. obviously, personally, etc.)

Considering form

It involves knowledge how different types of texts are conventionally structured in different forms. Since it is important that the writer matches the expectations of the reader concerning the appropriate form, there are some activities that teachers might find useful in their writing classes: comparing (analyzing) characteristics of text-types and then varying (experimenting with) text forms.

Organizing texts

Writing is culturally/conventionally determined, just as eating habits or social interaction. The English way of thinking, dealing with topic, putting ideas in structures and connecting them is different from other cultures and therefore

does not predetermine a successful writer in L1 to be successful in L2 in the same way. If willing to be effective, the writer should adopt skills of organizing thoughts, grouping ideas and sequencing them. These activities can help improve and practice organizing the text:

- The outline

Before writing a text the writer should have a brief plan of their writing, which usually follows pre-writing activities such as brainstorming, list-making, reading, discussing, etc. This device works as a guide for the writer during their writing phase as well as after when the writer has to review their work.

- Ordering information

Ordering information into clusters or categories involve grouping ideas into frameworks (spidergrams, tables, schemes) or paragraphs, using statement prompts (words, phrases), considering priorities for arranging information. Students can put sentences cut in strips in the correct order according to 'cohesive ties'. Students can also work in groups and select the most relevant ideas from the list or reject them. Then they group information in paragraphs and finally decide on the best order of paragraphs.

- Experimenting with arrangements

It helps writers to understand that there might not be the one and only way to organize the information, but more. This also prepares the writer to adjust and change the arrangement in order to achieve best results.

- Relating structure to focal idea

It shows that the main idea can give the writer a good lead how to structure the text. This aspect can be practiced on texts in which the reader expects certain elements but not in a fixed order, for example telling personal anecdotes (stories) or writing about people's lives and achievements.

Controlled writing

The technique of controlled writing is based on Controlled-to-Free Approach which focuses on accuracy and where the content and form are supplied by the teacher. In contrast to free writing, when students generate, organize and express own ideas in own sentences, in controlled writing students follow, continue, manipulate or complete. This technique can be used as a preparatory stage to free writing as it helps students grow mature in writing, and that it is suitable at all levels, but most beneficial at early stage of language learning.

2. While- writing stage

The second stage of activity is the writing itself and with good writers this consists of making a first draft. But, writing the first draft is often interrupted as the writer stops to read over the review, to get an idea of how the text is developing, to revise plans and bring in new ideas or to process the old ones. There is

a good deal of recycling in the process from planning to drafting, reviewing, re-planning, revising, etc. Good writers tend to concentrate on getting the content right first and leave details like correcting, spelling, punctuations and grammar until later. The products the students are going to offer at the end of the writing lesson may belong to one of the three categories:

1. *Functional writing (advertisements, application forms, CVs, letters, etc.)*

Functional writing is the practice of expressing specific information meant to mirror real-life scenarios such as how to make or do something, giving advice, inviting someone to something or telling what happened in a specific situation. The functional writing often turns a complex subject into something that is more understandable to the reader. The teachers can help students master this type of writing by assigning various functional writing activities.

2. Academic writing (essays, reports, papers, dissertations, thesis)

Academic writing refers to a style of expression that researchers use to define the intellectual boundaries of their disciplines and their specific areas of expertise. The characteristics of academic writing include a formal tone, use of the third-person rather than first-person perspective (usually), a clear focus on the research problem under investigation, and precise word choice. Like specialized languages adopted in other professions, such as, law or medicine, academic writing is designed to convey agreed meaning about complex ideas or concepts for a group of scholarly experts.

3. *Creative writing (poems, short stories, diaries, informal writing)*

Creative writing is any form of writing which is written with the creativity of mind: fiction writing, poetry writing, creative nonfiction writing and more. The purpose is to express something, whether it be feelings, thoughts, or emotions. Rather than only giving information or inciting the reader to make an action beneficial to the writer, creative writing is written to entertain or educate someone, to spread awareness about something or someone or to express one's thoughts.

Creative writing is any writing that goes outside the bounds of normal professional, journalistic, academic, or technical forms of literature, typically identified by an emphasis on narrative craft, character development, and the use of literary tropes or with various traditions of poetry and poetics. Both fictional and non-fictional works fall into this category, including such forms as novels, biographies, short stories, and poems.

4. Formal writing style. Characteristics

- *Complex*. Longer sentences are likely to be more prevalent in formal writing. Students need to be as thorough as possible with their approach to each topic when they use a formal style. Each main point needs to be introduced, elaborated and concluded.
- *Objective*. State main points confidently and offer full support arguments. A formal writing style shows a limited range of emotions and avoids emo-

tive punctuation such as exclamation points, ellipsis, etc., unless they are being cited from another source.

- *Full words*. No contractions should be used to simplify words (in other words use "It is" rather than "It's"). Abbreviations must be spelt out in full when first used, the only exceptions being when the acronym is better known than the full name (BBC, ITV or NATO for example).
- *Third person*. Formal writing is not a personal writing style. The formal writer is disconnected from the topic and does not use the first person point of view (I or we) or second person (you)

5. *Informal Writing Style*. Characteristics

- *Colloquial*. Informal writing is similar to a spoken conversation. Informal writing may include slang, figures of speech, broken syntax, asides and so on. Informal writing takes a personal tone as if you were speaking directly to your audience (the reader). You can use the first or third person point of view (I and we), and you are likely to address the reader using second person (you and your).
- *Simple*. Short sentences are acceptable and sometimes essential to making a point in informal writing. There may be incomplete sentences or ellipsis (…) to make points.
- *Contractions and abbreviations*. Words are likely to be simplified using contractions (for example, I am, doesn't, couldn't, it's) and abbreviations (e.g. TV, photos) whenever possible.
- *Empathy and emotions*. The author can show empathy towards the reader regarding the complexity of a thought and help them through that complexity

The *writing activities* can vary from controlled up to free/independent ones.

Copying

This is the most elementary type of exercise that can be used for developing correct spelling. Sometimes it may seem boring, as it is a mechanical exercise, which does not require much thinking. Copying can be of two types: 1. *Simple* (students copy word for word from the written sources); 2. *Tasked* (students get a task while copying- to underline, to change tenses etc.)

Dicto-comp

Dicto-comp is a technique for practicing composition. It is controlled writing that combines text dictation and text reconstruction. A passage is read to a class, and then the students must write out what they understand and remember from the passage, keeping as closely to the original as possible but using their own words where necessary. Teachers reading can be repeated several times, then the students write what they remember, without any supplementary help of

the teacher. This technique does not only require students to write but demands careful listening and retention of the material read out. It involves the students' ability to listen carefully, to summarize, to elaborate, and to use English in a particular context, the vocabulary or phrases useful in that particular context, and to organize the material.

Finishing sentences

Students receive worksheets with unfinished sentences written on them, they have to read and complete the sentences. These activities can be done by guided writing – the teacher builds an outline or a list on the blackboard of expressions which are used by students as a basis for writing.

Split sentences

Students are offered a number of split sentences in a jumbled order, they listen to a recorded story and then they have to join the split sentences and write them in the correct order.

Description based on listening

Students listen attentively to a description of a person and jot down the exact descriptive words or phrases, then listen again and write the description down by using their descriptive words and phrases.

Sequenced description

The teacher writes on the blackboard some verbs in a jumbled order referring to a process (e.g. that of making a cake). Students listen to the material and arrange the verbs in the order in which they appear in the listening passage. The teacher offers students sequence markers (first, second, next, after that…) in order to help them write a coherent text.

Picture sequence essay

Students are shown a series of pictures that indicate a story line, they formulate sentences and write them down, following the rules of essay writing.

Writing a summary

Students read a passage or a text and summarize it, first orally and then in written form. This technique can be done in different ways. Students can:

1. Write a one-sentence summary of each paragraph.
2. Formulate a single sentence that summarizes the whole text.
3. Write a paragraph (or more): begin with the overall summary sentence and follow it with the paragraph summary sentences.
4. Rearrange and rewrite the paragraph to make it clear and concise, to eliminate repetition and relatively minor points, and to provide transitions. The final version should be a complete, unified, and coherent.

Story completion

The class is divided into groups; the first group writes a sentence on a sheet of paper and then gives it to the second group in order to write the next sentence. The second group passes to the third group and so on. The result is a story written through joint efforts. The activity develops cooperative skills and may also become a funny and interesting activity.

Paragraph writing

The teacher reads a paragraph together with the students in terms of topic, main sentence and supporting sentences. Students are then asked to write a similar paragraph on a topic. What the students should know is:

- The paragraph deals with one topic;
- The idea expressed is developed from one sentence to the next one in a coherent, logical order;
- Alternation of long and short sentences provides variety;
- Thoughts are connected by linkers;
- A good paragraph is characterized by a careful logical development.

Guided composition

This technique includes the following steps: students are given the main ideas of a text; then they are asked to retell the text using discourse markers (the, after, before, but, if.) except `and`; then students choose a title and enrich it with the active vocabulary. Another form of the activity can be performed when students are asked to change names of characters, tenses, events etc.

Paraphrasing

Students read a piece of writing and then transform it, saying the same thing but using other structures, replacing active by passive voice, long sentences by short ones, subordinate clauses by gerund, etc.

Grammar instruction

The teacher should develop a series of contexts based on the real world tasks that students will need to perform, and then teach grammar and vocabulary in relation to those contexts. Teachers should teach the grammatical forms that typically occur in various writing tasks and then have students practice them.

Guided writing or scaffolding

In guided writing, the teacher works with the whole class or a small group of students who have similar needs and actively prompts, coaches and guides them as them as they write a composition. Since, most of the learners in the compulsory English classroom are low level or intermediate learners, teacher

should present a structured lesson that guides the students through the writing process in a way that all learners understand all the elements and processes in a writing tasks or activities. Here, students take on the actual drafting and the teacher closely supervises the students. Since it gives each student the opportunity to produce his/her own writing, with a bit of teacher support far better in supporting the learners' writing skill development. This approach is often used to teach a specific writing procedure, strategy, or skill. A typical format for a 20-minute guided writing lesson is recommended to be adopted for teaching writing in compulsory English classroom. It might include the following four steps:

1. Engagement in a brief, shared experience that is of interest to students, including both a linguistically and informationally rich activity and accompanying conversation, and expansion of students' ability to talk about content of interest.

2. Discussion of strategic behavior for writing, including a presentation of a think-aloud or a cue for

strategic activity along with active discussion of ways in which students can integrate this strategy into their own writing

3. Students' time to write individually with immediate guidance from the teacher, who "leans in" to

interact with individual students about immediate decisions and strategies and uses prompts to guide students' thinking for problem solving while writing

4. A brief sharing activity in which the writer's immediate work is shared with an audience, and writers experience their newly written texts as a whole.

3. Post- writing stage

The last stage in the writing lesson is that in which the product is read, possible mistakes corrected and the whole work evaluated. It is a revising stage, which besides drafting, represents the core of the process of writing. In grading the piece of written work, attention should be given to: length, correct grammar, originality of ideas, range of vocabulary used, range and complexity of structures used, appropriateness of style, spelling, handwriting, punctuation, organization of ideas, its relevance to the title. The teacher needs to offer feedback to their students, on their errors. It is now unanimously that feedback can be of two types:

1. Direct feedback. The teacher reads the piece of writing, locates the errors and corrects them overtly. This can be done by means of a correction code or through explicit verbal comments. This type of feedback seems to be more efficient with beginners who can not offer self-correction. Error correction code can be used as a tool for optimizing learning opportunities: WW - wrong word, WT - wrong time/tense, WF – wrong form, WO - wrong order, SP - spelling, P-

punctuation, X - extra word, MW - missing word, Art. - article, WAdj. – wrong adjective, NE - noun ending, SVA – subject-verb agreement, WV- wrong voice etc. This code offers ground for students to correct errors easier because they can identify the type of error.

2. *Indirect feedback*. The teacher indicates the error but does not correct it. In this case, the options are: to circle or to underline the mistake; to signal its presence at the beginning of the line. It is a good technique for advanced students as they have to think, analyze and try to offer correction of the errors.

3. *Selective feedback*. The teacher does not mark all the errors, but a large proportion of them (only grammar or spelling).

There are many alternative ways of offering correction to students: to use green or black pen, to discuss marking criteria with students, to write the correct answers on the margins, to write nothing but to discuss individually with the students, to allow students to mark each other's work. The skill of correct writing is mainly attained by practice, by various exercises. The process should be carefully prepared. The teacher offers much help in the beginning, chooses good examples of written material, which is fit for their age and level of knowledge. Central to the approach to writing is the concept of writing as a creative process in which meanings are made through the active and continued involvement of the writer with the unfolding text. Text-based approaches (copying, reordering etc.) have been replaced by the process approaches. Writing is seen as involving both mechanical skills (correct spelling, grammar, vocabulary) and compositional skills (accuracy, fluency, coherence, drafting, paraphrasing, etc.). Summing up, effective writing means: focus on the topic, organization of material, use of supporting ideas developed through details, use of standard written English and of variation in sentence structure.

REFLECTION

1. What should be the balance between creative and critical writing?
2. Describe the role of the Communicative Approach in teaching writing.
3. Is there an appropriate balance between opportunities for students to write in response to others' texts and opportunities to compose their own texts?
4. Do students have opportunities to write for a range of audiences beyond those of the teacher (and peers)?
5. How can students be engaged in evaluating their own writing?

TASKS FOR INDEPENDENT WORK

Project work: Practicing teaching

Topic: Developing writing skills

- Three students prepare writing activities related to different stages of teaching a skill:

1. Pre - writing activities,
2. While - writing activities,
3. Post - writing activities.

- The students teach a stage of a lesson related to a topic they discuss in advance. Time allowed is 5-7 minutes for each stage;
- The group plays the role of children/students;
- The closing activity consists in analysis and evaluation of the practical activities.
- Activity evaluation – whole class.

UNIT 8.
DEVELOPING SPEAKING ABILITIES

8.1 Introduction

Speaking is one of the four language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking). It is the means through which learners can communicate with others to achieve certain goals or to express their opinions, intentions, hopes and viewpoints. In addition, people who know a language are referred to as 'speakers' of that language. Furthermore, in almost any setting, speaking is the most frequently used language skill. It is considered that speaking is used twice as much as reading and writing in our communication.

Developing speaking skills is of vital importance in English as a foreign language (EFL) programmes. Speaking is probably a priority for most learners of English. Speaking instruction is important because it helps students acquire EFL speaking skills thus converse spontaneously and naturally with native speakers. Furthermore, if the right speaking activities are taught in the classroom, speaking can raise general learners' motivation and make the English language classroom a fun and dynamic place to be.

Speaking is a high complex mental activity which differs from other activities because it requires much greater effort. It includes sub processes and involves distinct areas of planning. The speaker has to retrieve words and phrases from memory and assembles them into syntactically and propositionally appropriate sequence. Speaking also happens in the context of limited processing capacities due to limitations of working memory, and thus a consequent need for automation in each area of production arises. Speaking is also defined as an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information. Its form and meaning are dependent on the context in which it occurs, the participants, and the purposes of speaking. Speaking can be defined operationally as students' ability to express themselves orally, coherently, fluently and appropriately in a given meaningful context to serve both transactional and interactional purposed using correct pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary and adopting the pragmatic and discourse rules of the spoken language. In other words students are required to show mastery of the following competences/ skills:

- *Linguistic competence*. This includes the following skills: using intelligible pronunciation; following grammatical rules accurately; using relevant, adequate and appropriate range of vocabulary.
- *Discourse competence*. This includes the following skills: structuring discourse coherently and cohesively; managing conversation and interacting effectively to keep the conversation going.

- *Pragmatic competence*. This includes the following skill of expressing a range of functions effectively and appropriately according to the context and register.
- *Fluency*. This means speaking fluently demonstrating a reasonable rate of speech.

8.2 Characteristics of the speaking skill. The communicative competence

In general, learners' activities should be designed based on equivalence between fluency and accuracy achievement. Both fluency and accuracy are important elements of communicative approach. Classroom practice can help learners develop their communicative competence. So they should know how the language system works appropriately.

The first characteristic of speaking performance is *fluency* and it is the main aim of teachers in teaching speaking skill. According to Hughes (2002), fluency is the learners' ability to speak in understandable way in order not to break down communication because listeners may lose their interest. Fluency is also considered the ability to answer coherently by connecting the words and phrases, pronouncing the sounds clearly, and using stress and intonation. So, fluency is the ability to keep going when speaking spontaneously. Normally, students should not be corrected during fluency activities. However, in feedback afterwards, the teacher can comment favorably on any strategies on any strategies the students used to increase their fluency.

The second characteristic of speaking performance is *accuracy*. Learners should be fluent in learning a foreign language. Therefore, teachers should emphasize accuracy in their teaching process. Learners should pay enough attention to the exactness and the completeness of language form when speaking such as focusing on grammatical structures, vocabulary, and pronunciation. In fact, accuracy involves the correct use of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. Ongoing correction is often appropriate during accuracy exercise. Learners' correct *use of grammatical structures* requires the length and complexity of the utterances and the well-structured clauses. To gain accuracy in terms of vocabulary means to select suitable words in the suitable contexts. Learners sometimes apply similar words or expressions in various contexts which do not mean similar things. So, learners should be able to use words and expressions correctly.

Pronunciation is the lowest level of knowledge learners typically pay attention to. In order to speak the English language accurately, learners should master phonological rules and they should be aware of the various sounds and their pronunciations. Learners should also know the stress, intonation, and pitch. All of these elements help learners speak the English language easily and effectively.

Communicative Competence

The communicative competence means having 'a competence to communicate'. This competence can be oral, written or even nonverbal. It is an inclusive term that refers to possessing the knowledge of the language as well as the skill to use the language in real life situations for fulfilling communicative needs. Language, according to many researchers, is a means of communication, and it comprises four main skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. To acquire these language skills, one needs not only to learn grammatical rules but to practice such skills till he gets used to all of them. Whenever he/she acquires the skills of the language and manages to use them effectively and appropriately according to the context, we can say that the required level of the communicative competence is achieved.

The term 'communicative competence' was first used by Dell Hymes in 1966 in his lecture delivered in a conference on ' *Developing the Language of the Disadvantaged Children'*, then it was published as a paper entitled *'On Communicative Competence'* in 1972 and republished in 2001. Hymes introduced his notion 'communicative competence' in contrast to Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance. For Chomsky (1965), competence is "the ideal speaker-listener knowledge of his language". He argued that the focus of the linguistic theory is "to characterize the abstract abilities of the speaker listener which enable him to produce grammatically correct sentences". Hymes (1972) pointed out that communicative competence doesn't only represent the grammatical competence but also the sociolinguistic competence. He stated that "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" and defined communicative competence as "the tacit knowledge" of the language and "the ability to use it for the communication" [24, p.60].

Canale and Swain (1980) introduced their model of communicative competence which has become the most common for researchers in this field nowadays. The model was not a contrast to Hymes' one but it is rather a further development for it. This development in the field of communicative competence is continuing till today. Canale and Swain believe in the importance of the sociolinguistic work that Hymes had emphasized in his model of communicative competence. Their model focuses on the interaction of grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence. Here are the components of communicative competence in the framework introduced by Canale and Swain:

1. Grammatical competence includes using correct grammar, pronunciation and adequate vocabulary. Using grammar correctly in speech implies the ability to produce the distinctive grammatical structures of the language and to use them effectively in communication taking into consideration the characteristics of spoken grammar. For example, spoken clauses, rather than complete sentences, are often joined with coordinators like "and" or "but", or not joined through

conjunctions, but simply uttered next to each other, with possibly a short pause between them. Thus simple phrasal structure and purposeful repetition can often be markers of high proficiency. Using vocabulary adequately implies the ability to recognize and use words in the way that speakers of the language use them. It implies using the common collocations of words and fixed phrases. Pronunciation includes elements such as:

- Sounds: these include consonants, vowels and consonant clusters;
- Intonation: this refers to the pattern of pitch changes. There are two basic patterns: rising and falling;
- Rhythm: it is created according to the position of stress within a single word or a group of words. Within words stresses have fixed positions but stress within a group of words can move according to meaning;
- Linking and assimilation: when sounds are linked in spoken language, changes occur because of the influence of neighboring sounds.

2. *Discourse competence*. With respect to transactional speech, it is argued that the discourse competence implies the ability to use various information routines - evaluative and expository including their sequential stages in conversations. It also includes the ability to use the typical rituals for starting or closing a conversation and for changing the subject. With respect to the interactional element of spoken discourse, it is based on the speaker's knowledge of interaction routines and the typical interactional features including boundaries such as openings and closings, interrupting, as well as sequential organizations of turns and topics. Concisely, the discourse competence includes the learner's ability to:

- Structure the discourse coherently so hearers can easily follow the sequence of what is said. This implies an adequate knowledge of information and interactional routines;
- Use grammatical and lexical references appropriately to refer to people and objects so listeners can keep track of them;
- Use discourse markers that cue coherence relations. These are divided into those that mark informational relations and those that mark conversational relations.

Conversational discourse markers consist of discourse particles (well, now, anyway) used by participants to maintain conversational coherence. *Informational markers* include those signaling the introduction of a topic, a shift to a new topic and a summary of the topic. They include also inter-sentential connectors such as markers indicating causative relations, concessive relations, etc:

- Keep a conversation going through (ensuring that people will listen, showing interest and interrupting politely to clarify or challenge what someone has said);
- Manage turn-taking which entails taking a turn of talk, holding a turn, and relinquishing a turn.

3. Pragmatic competence is quite linked to "appropriateness". It is affected by the context, purpose and interlocutors in the conversation. The pragmatic competence includes two sub-competences: functional competence and sociolinguistic competence.

a) *Functional competence* refers to the ability to accomplish communication purposes in a language. It includes the use of speech acts and phrases associated with them. Hence, to achieve a certain function, some forms are considered appropriate while others are not. Language functions classification is based on listing the main functions for which the language is used. The main language functions are:

- *Social functions* include functions such as greeting, introducing people, complaining, thanking and apologizing.
- *Information* includes functions such as asking for factual information, providing personal information, describing and narrating.
- *Giving opinion* includes functions such as asking for an opinion, giving an opinion, agreeing, disagreeing and predicting.
- *Requesting* includes functions such as requesting, asking favors and accepting or refusing a request.
- *Directing* includes functions such as encouraging, persuading, suggesting, advising, instructing, and threatening.

b) *Sociolinguistic competence*, on the other hand, is defined as the awareness of how to speak appropriately in different situations and to different people, with varying degrees of formality. Here, the focus is on politeness strategies which entails that the more distant the social relationship between the speaker and hearer, the more politeness markers we would expect to be required.

4. Strategic Competence. In addition to the other three competencies, effective speakers use compensatory and achievement strategies, for example gestures, circumlocution, topic selection, etc. to assist when they don't know all the words to say [9, p.56].

Strategic training helps students to manage output in the form of the following skills: interrupting, asking for clarification, asking for explanation and changing the topic. Here it is clear that the strategic competence subsumes many of the skills involved in other competences. Fluency, although not a main component either in communicative competence models or conversational models, is related to using all speaking skills in the context of the time-bound nature of speaking. It relies on the speaker's ability to use facilitation skills (fillers, lexical phrases, ellipsis, etc.) and compensation skills (self-correction, rephrasing, or repeating) to cope with ongoing fast communication.

8.3 Stages of a speaking activity

Speaking is a specific spoken discourse that is primarily social. The social element is expressed through wishes, feelings, attitudes, opinions and judgments. Speaking can be formal or informal. *Formal speaking* occurs in business or academic situations, or when meeting people for the first time. *Informal speaking* is typically used with family and friends, or people you know well. The main conditions for developing speaking skill are: the opportunity for students to get much information about language content and language use and the opportunity to practice language as much as possible.

The speaking competence needs to be built systematically, through joint efforts of teachers and students, starting with simple tasks, based on repetition of words, up to more demanding ones, i.e. dialogues, role-playing and simulation. The success is achieved under some conditions. They are connected with *teachers who*:

- Generate the need to speak and motivate students to use the language as much as possible;
- Choose topics that reflect real-life issues, i.e. for real purposes;
- Use a variety of activities and do not interfere too much while students are using the language freely;
- Offer models of language with proper intonation, rhythm and accent and ask students to repeat in chorus and individually;
- Provide maximum opportunity to students to speak the target language by providing a rich environment that contains collaborative work, authentic materials and tasks, and shared knowledge;
- Try to involve each student in every speaking activity; for this aim, practice different ways of student participation;
- Reduce teacher speaking time in class while increasing student speaking time. Step back and observe students;
- Indicate positive signs when commenting on a student's response;
- Do not correct students' pronunciation mistakes very often while they are speaking. Correction should not distract student from his or her speech;
- Involve speaking activities not only in class but also out of class; contact parents and other people who can help;
- Walk around classroom to ensure that students are on the right track and see whether they need help while they work in groups or pairs;
- Provide the vocabulary beforehand that students need in speaking activities;
- Diagnose problems faced by students who have difficulty in expressing themselves in the target language and provide more opportunities to practice the spoken language.

The success is achieved by the *students who*:

- Become convinced of the need to communicate with each other as an important step to developing both communication and interpersonal skills;
- Show tolerance to each other when using the language;
- Take risks in using the language and experiment it in different situations and contexts.

In other words, students are expected to become spontaneous, flexible and able to manipulate the linguistic system in such a way as they could express the intended message as effectively as possible in concrete situations. This means that the language they produce will be evaluated in terms of its social acceptability as well as its functional effectiveness. For an effective speaking lesson, teachers should be familiarized with the stages of a speaking activity:

1. *Pre-communicative stage*

- Introduce the communicative function;
- Highlight the fixed expressions,
- Point out the target structure,
- Provide students with the necessary vocabulary,

2. *Practice stage*:

- Correct students if necessary,
- Prompt students if necessary;
- Ban monolingual dictionaries,
- Aim for intelligibility;

3. *Communicative interaction*

- Encourage language negotiation,
- Take notes of any aspects that may hinder communication (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar) ,
- Respect students `wait ` time.

4. *Feedback and reformulation*

It gives students feedback on their pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and students are asked to repeat the task if necessary. Errors should be seen as natural steps in language learning. It is generally considered that correction should be delayed until students finish their conversation, so that fluency in language, as well as their self-confidence may be developed.

8.4 Speaking activities

Speaking activities that concentrate on getting learners to produce sounds, phrases or grammatical structures range from activities, which are controlled by the teacher to activities where the learners have more freedom to choose the language, they use. Controlled activities generally focus on the learners produc-

ing language accurately, while less controlled activities focus on developing the learners' fluency.

Drills

They are suitable to learn grammar structures and vocabulary because they are repetitive exercises easier than typical grammar exercises where students practice and repeat the same thing several times. Using drills, the teacher has a lot of control over what the learners say:

- They must respond to the teacher or each other;
- Learners must answer correctly and according to a precise pattern.

There are three types of drills:

1. *Substitution drills*: they are used when the teacher wants to practice a particular vocabulary area (for example; places in a town: supermarket, post-office, swimming pool, etc). These drills are good to improve vocabulary because learners have to substitute one word for another. We can use substitution drills to practice structures as well as vocabulary.

2. *Transformation drills*: the teacher invites students to transform sentences, for example, an affirmative sentence into a negative sentence or an affirmative sentence into a question.

3. *Functional-situational drills:* the teacher practices the language of a function such as giving an advice.

Information gap activities

In this activity, students are supposed to be working in pairs. One student will have the information that the other partner does not have and the partners will share the information. This kind of activity serves many purposes. Each partner plays an important role because the task cannot be completed if the partners do not provide the information the others need. These activities are effective because everybody has the opportunity to talk. There are different types of information gap activities such as:

- *Describe and draw*: one student has a picture and has to describe it to a partner who tries to draw what he or she is describing.
- *Describe and arrange*: students have to arrange objects according to instructions from a partner.
- *Describe and identify*: students have to identify which picture their partner is describing.
- *Find the differences*: is a funny activity where students have to find some differences describing a picture.

Role-plays

One way of getting students to speak is role-playing. Students pretend they are in various social contexts and have a variety of social roles. In role-play ac-

tivities, the teacher gives information to the learners such as who they are and what they think or feel. Thus, the teacher can tell the student that *You are David, you go to the doctor and tell him what happened last night, and….* Each learner acquires a personality or interprets a character and receives a card with some information about their role and the situation. In these activities, the teacher gives the information to the learners (cards) such as who they are and what they think or feel. With other learners or in a group, they then have to act out a situation as if they were people on their card.

Simulations

Simulations are very similar to role-plays but what makes simulations different than role plays is that they are more elaborate. In simulations, students can bring items to the class to create a realistic environment. For instance, if a student is acting as a singer, he/she brings a microphone to sing and so on. Role-plays and simulations have many advantages. First, since they are entertaining, they motivate the students. Second, they increase the self-confidence of the hesitant students, because in role play and simulation activities, they will have a different role and do not have to speak for themselves, which means they do not have to take the same responsibility.

Storytelling

Students can briefly summarize a tale or story they heard from somebody beforehand, or they may create their own stories to tell their classmates. Story telling fosters creative thinking. It also helps students express ideas in the format of beginning, development, and ending, including the characters and setting a story has to have. Students also can tell riddles or jokes. For instance, at the very beginning of each class session, the teacher may call a few students to tell short riddles or jokes as an opening. In this way, not only will the teacher address students' speaking ability, but also get the attention of the class.

Interviews

Students can conduct interviews on selected topics with various people. It is a good idea that the teacher provides a rubric to students so that they know what type of questions they can ask or what path to follow, but students should prepare their own interview questions. Conducting interviews with people gives students a chance to practice their speaking ability not only in class but also outside and helps them becoming socialized. After interviews, each student can present his or her study to the class. Moreover, students can interview each other and "introduce" his or her partner to the class.

Story completion

This is a very enjoyable, whole-class, free-speaking activity for which students sit in a circle. For this activity, a teacher starts to tell a story, but after a

few sentences he/she stops narrating. Then, each student starts to narrate from the point where the previous one stopped. Each student is supposed to add from four to ten sentences. Students can add characters, events, descriptions, etc.

Reporting

Before coming to class, students are asked to read a newspaper or magazine and, in class, they report to their friends what they find as the most interesting news. Students can also talk about whether they have experienced anything worth telling their friends in their daily lives before class.

Picture narrating

This activity is based on several sequential pictures. Students are asked to tell the story taking place in the sequential pictures by paying attention to the criteria provided by the teacher as a rubric. Rubrics can include the vocabulary or structures they need to use while narrating.

Picture describing

Another way to make use of pictures in a speaking activity is to give students just one picture and having them describe what it is in the picture. For this activity students can form groups and each group is given a different picture. Students discuss the picture with their groups, then a spokesperson for each group describes the picture to the whole class. This activity fosters the creativity and imagination of the learners as well as their public speaking skills.

Find the difference

For this activity students can work in pairs and each couple is given two different pictures, for example, picture of boys playing football and another picture of girls playing tennis. Students in pairs discuss the similarities and/or differences in the pictures. The classroom activities meant to develop speaking skills have certain characteristics.

1. They depend on students' command of English. So,

Beginners: seek information, read, listen observe, compare (find similarities/ dissimilarities), show preferences, give pieces of advice, guess, offer help/ask for help;

Intermediate level students - analyze (identify parts of a whole, look for patterns and relationships), classify, contrast ideas, make suggestions, demand explanations/clarifications;

Advanced level students - evaluate (determine the worth of objects, ideas), infer (predict, hypothesize), justify and persuade (describe reasons for decisions and convince others*),* solve problems (identify a problem, determine a process, follow steps to a solution), synthesize (select, integrate information in new ways).

2. Communication activities involve much interaction between students. They work in groups, exchange ideas, ask questions, gives answers, interpret, contradict each others, support and encourage, process information and compare results.

3. All communication activities are task based. The teacher assigns a task, which students have to accomplish.

As mentioned before, pragmatics refers to the ability to communicate in social situations. This is why the teacher should offer activities that are meant to develop social communication skills. Among such skills, that of listening actively while being engaged in conversation has an important role.

8.5 Speaking problems

There are some problems for the speaking skill that teachers can come across in helping students to speak in the classroom. These are inhibition, lack of topical knowledge, low participation, and mother-tongue use.

Inhibition is the first problem that students encounter in class. When they want to say something in the classroom they are sometimes inhibited. They are worried about making mistakes and fearful of criticism. They are ashamed of the other students' attention towards themselves.

The second problem is that learners complain that *they cannot remember* anything to say and they do not have any motivation to express themselves. Learners often have nothing to say probably because their teachers had selected a topic that is not appropriate for them or they do have enough information about it. It is sometimes very difficult for learners to answer when their teachers ask them to tell things in a foreign language because they have little opinions about what to say, which vocabulary to apply, or how to use grammar accurately.

The third problem in the speaking class is that the *participation is very low*. In a class with a large number of students, each student will have very little time for talking because just one student talks at a time and the other students try to hear him/her. In the speaking class, some learners dominate the whole class while others talk very little or never speak.

The last problem related to the speaking ability is that when some learners share the same *mother-tongue,* they try to use it in the speaking class because it is very easy for them. There are some reasons why learners use mother-tongue in their speaking classes. The first reason is that when teachers ask their learners to talk about a topic that they do not have enough knowledge, they will try to use their language. The second reason is that the application of mother-tongue is very natural for learners to use. If teachers do not urge their learners to talk in English, learners will automatically use their first language to explain something to their classmates. Speaking activities involve some challenges when practicing English. They are:

Table 8.5.1 Challenges and solutions while practicing speaking

Challenges	**Solutions**
Students are passive	- the teacher should guide and involve them in activities - motivation through interesting authentic material and skillful techniques
Students feel frustrated when facing new vocabulary	- the teacher should show sympathy to frustrations, be patient and tolerant - encouragement and support can lower students' inhibition
Students do not have sufficient command of English to engage in conversation	- students participate in conversation when they are prepared for it - the topic and vocabulary should be adapted to students' level of knowledge, age and interest
Students do not understand everything from the very beginning	- the teacher should make them understand that language learning is a complex process that develops in hierarchical steps and they are not expected to know and understand everything from the very beginning
One or more students dominate the conversation, others have little chances to speak	- the teachers can mention the benefits of the ability of listening carefully to the others - students should be told about the necessity of being fair and friendly to each other and behave like a team, with equal chances to all members
Teacher talking time is increased	- the teacher should remain quiet as much as possible and intervene only when necessary, - teachers need to exercise a strict control over TT when the purpose of instruction is developing the communicative competence
Sometimes students stop in the middle of conversation and they do not know what else to say	- the teacher does not allow for such a silence - the teacher acts as a prompter - the teacher encourages both verbally and nonverbally
The topic might not be of interest for students	- the teacher should take into account students' needs and interests - motivation through interesting authentic material and skillful techniques
Students use mother tongue during conversation	- the teacher should ask them to return to English - the teacher should have in view the reasons for which they use the mother tongue, analyze the problem and find adequate solutions

Active and responsive listening manifests in several ways, all of them supporting two activities: focusing on the content/form of language expression and encouraging the partner. Students have also the chance to learn what politeness means and show how that can be practiced and become part of everyday life.

They need to learn some of the following procedures, in order to be polite. Here are some of the main techniques the teachers can use to support students in their effort while practicing speaking:

- Using encouraging utterances: Say more..., Go on..., Keep talking...;
- Asking clarifying questions: For example? Do you mean...? Be more specific about...;
- Trying to detect implicit meaning: Shall I understand that...? You say that...?
- Asking for repetitions, reformulations or corrections: Sorry, what did you say? Will you repeat please?
- Using prompts and adverbs as responses: Sure..., Yes..., Well..., All right..., Really?
- Using interjections to show agreement and /or interest: Uh huh (involvement), Gee! (surprise or admiration), Gosh (surprise or annoyance), Ha! (pleasure of discovering something);
- Role switching: If I were you..., if I were in your shoes...;
- Signaling contradictions: don't you think you contradict yourself a little bit?
- Expressing your feelings and attitudes: I like/dislike what I hear..., I cannot agree with this, It sounds strange because...;
- Using anticipatory constructions: I guess you'll say that..., I am pretty sure I know what follows;
- Summing up the messages: So, the idea is that..., The conclusion is that..., To sum up..., In conclusion..., To cut a long story short...;
- Asking for a paraphrases, for a better understanding of the message;
- Asking for examples;
- Asking open questions to allow for display of attitudes and feelings: What do you say/feel about...?
- Using nonverbal language (nodding, bending head, encouraging smile, frowning, raised eyebrows);
- Making natural and appropriate eye-contact;
- Using an order by questions: *Why don't you stop talking* instead of *stop talking*;
- Using politeness forms: Could/will you shut the door?
- Using litotes: He is not a bad guy, is he?
- Using euphemism as politeness procedure: Where is she now? She is at the lady's room;
- Using endearing: Sweetheart, close the door!
- Using disarmers: I am sure what you are going to say, but...;
- Using hyperboles in utterances: You have been wonderful!

8.6 Assessment criteria for oral production

Speaking skills are an important part of the curriculum in language teaching, and this makes them an important object of assessment as well. Errors should be seen as natural steps in language learning; correction should be delayed until students finish their conversation, so that fluency in language, as well as their self-confidence may be developed. Assessment of the oral performance should take in view certain language components:

- *Fluency* – presence of hesitations, language limitations (making pauses), disconnections in discourse (are the ideas linked in logical order);
- *Vocabulary* – use of appropriate words, knowledge of vocabulary, use of mother tongue (to fill in vocabulary gaps);
- *Pronunciation* – hard to understand, pronunciation problems, use of appropriate intonation;
- *Grammar* – grammar, word order, tense errors, type of structures used.

Formal assessment takes the format of tests as it involves a more structured planning, design and administration than simply observing or monitoring students. Test formats are as varied as the type of tasks that form the basis for the test.

Table 8.6.1 Test formats. Pros and cons

TEST FORMAT	PROS	CONS
Free interviews (students chat in groups or as individuals).	Realistic and reduce stress for students.	Very difficult to rate performance (personality factor). Need to maintain conversation at same time as rating.
Picture description (using photo or drawing).	Give tester time to listen and students something concrete.	Artificial task and there is no interaction.
Information transfer (information gap through notes or pictures)	Realistic need for communication. Tests key interactive strategies.	Can be problems when one student is a lot weaker than the other, if in pairs.
Role – play: students assume roles with or without cued information.	Excellent for testing interaction and commonly used task in most materials.	Can test the ability to act.
Oral presentations: students prepare and give short talks.	Realistic and gives the tester time to assess performance.	The interaction and can be highly stressful – not suitable for younger students.

Informal assessment of speaking activities is very important since there are considerable difficulties in organizing formal oral tests in certain teaching con-

texts. In a good number of cases, it is the only way to assess speaking. Most informal assessment simply takes the form of student observation and monitoring of activities as they happen in the classroom. The information the teacher gets by observing and monitoring students' needs to be recorded and, in that sense, it seems advisable to use a band scale, which provides some sort of standardization of perceptions so performance. A band scale provides some sort of standardization of perception so that teachers reach an agreement on what and how to assess. The following table is a sample band scale provided by Harris and McCann

Table 8.6.2 Band scale

5	Speaks fluently	Almost no errors
4	Speaks quite fluently	Some errors
3	Some difficulty in speaking	Many errors
2	Difficulty with speaking	Almost incomprehensible
1	Unable to use language	Incomprehensible

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Self-assessment of one's own performance in speaking activities is a difficult area to implement. For that same reason, there are certain steps that should be followed:

1. Establish a set of criteria so that everyone knows beforehand what he/she is going to reflect on;
2. It is better to ask students to reflect on their achievements and the inadequacies they perceive rather than asking them to give themselves marks;
3. Self-assessment should take place immediately after completion of the task, although audio and video recording may prove a real help;
4. It is important to complement self-assessment results with the teacher´s information from observations and tests feedback.

Teaching speaking is a very important part of second language learning. The ability to communicate in a second language clearly and efficiently contributes to the success of the learner in school and success later in every phase of life. Therefore, it is essential that teachers pay great attention to teaching speaking. Rather than leading students to pure memorization, providing a rich environment where meaningful communication takes place is desired. With this aim, various speaking activities such as those listed above can contribute a great deal to students in developing basic interactive skills necessary for life. These activities make students more active in the learning process and at the same time make their learning more meaningful and fun for them.

REFLECTION

1. What are the challenges faced by school learners in acquiring the speaking skill?
2. What are the challenges faced by school teachers in developing the speaking skill?
3. Describe the role of the Communicative Approach in developing the writing skill.
4. How are the components of the communicative competence related?
5. Explain the concept *the balance between teacher talking time and student talking time*.
6. Suggest some interventions for reducing speaking anxiety.
7. Do you think speaking can be acquired or learned?

TASKS FOR INDEPENDENT WORK

Project work: Practicing teaching
Topic: Developing speaking comprehension

- Four students prepare teaching speaking activities related to the stages of improving the speaking skill:

1. Pre - communicative activities,
2. Practice stage activities,
3. Communicative interaction.
4. Feedback and reformulation.

- Students teach a stage of a lesson related to a topic they discuss in advance;
- The group plays the role of children/students;
- The closing activity consists in analysis and evaluation of practical activities.
- Activity evaluation – whole group.

UNIT 9.
FOCUS ON TEACHING VOCABULARY

9.1 Introduction

Vocabulary is an indispensable part of language learning and teaching. It is one of the most critical aspects of teaching and learning a foreign language. Also, vocabulary is the key to enrich foreign language/target language knowledge. The different perspectives of teaching vocabulary reveal the complexity of helping learners to succeed in adequately learning vocabulary. Therefore, this is a process that requires the help of teachers who are responsible for providing students with productive activities. In theory, to be useful in teaching, teachers should give an overview of student needs, characteristics, and culture. The research in the field of teaching and learning vocabulary has provided us with valuable insights, but the main idea is that students learn material vocabulary through reading material and through direct instruction in the classroom, as well as through meaningful tasks they are required to accomplish. Teaching vocabulary to English language learners is an important part of students' language development, but making the most of vocabulary instruction requires careful planning and memorization. Learners, in their turn, need not only to learn a lot of words, but to remember them. In fact, *learning is remembering*. Unlike the learning of grammar, which is essentially a rule-based system, vocabulary knowledge is largely a question of accumulating individual items. Researchers into the workings of memory customarily distinguish between the following systems*: the short-term store, working memory,* and *long-term memory*.

The short-term store (STS) is the brain's capacity to hold a limited number of items of information for periods of time up to a few seconds. It is the kind of memory that is involved in holding a telephone number for as long as it takes to be able to dial it or to repeat a word after the teacher's modelling. But successful vocabulary learning clearly involves more than simply holding words in minds for a few seconds. To focus on words long enough to perform operations on them is the function of *working memory* (WM). Many cognitive tasks such as reasoning, learning and understanding depend on working memory. It can be thought of as a kind of work bench, where information is first placed, studied and moved about before being filed away for later retrieval. The information that is being manipulated can come from external sources via the senses, or it can be 'downloaded' from the long-term memory - or both. Material remains in working memory for about twenty seconds.

Long-term memory (LTM) can be thought of as a kind of filing system. Unlike working memory, which has a limited capacity and no permanent content,

long-term memory has an enormous capacity, and its contents are durable over time. However, the fact that learners can retain new vocabulary items the length of a lesson (i.e. beyond the few seconds' duration of the short-term store) but have forgotten them by the next lesson suggests that long-term memory is not always as long-term as we would wish. Rather, it occupies a continuum from 'the quickly forgotten' to 'the never forgotten'. The great challenge for language learners is to transform material from the quickly forgotten to the never forgotten.

9.2 Types of vocabulary

It is generally admitted that vocabulary can be divided into two large categories: active and passive vocabulary.

Active vocabulary consists of those words over which one can use in his/her speech and writing. The person knows the meaning of those words accurately. Active vocabulary refers to the productive side of language. It consists of the words one uses confidently because he/she understands their meanings and usage. In order to give the proficiency in spoken and written language, words must continuously be added to the active vocabulary of the students. Active vocabulary of a language calls for:

- The use of right word in right place;
- The spontaneous recall of words;
- Grammatical accuracy i.e., use of correct tenses, inflections and word order;
- In speech, fluency and ability to reproduce correct sounds, pronunciation, intonation, rhythm etc.

Passive vocabulary consists of those words, meaning of which can be understood when they appear in speech or writing of others but which we cannot use in our own speech and writing because we are not fully conversant with them. In passive vocabulary, the person does not know the precise meaning of a particular word and he/she does not make use of those words in communication. Sometimes we can understand the meaning of that word only to a certain extent depending on the contest. Passive vocabulary refers to the receptive side of language. Passive vocabulary calls for:

- the recognition of vocabulary in speech or writing;
- acquaintance with major grammatical items or forms;
- the skill of stimulating rapidly the sense of large word groups.

It is observed that an undergraduate student has 3000 to 5000 active vocabulary whereas the same student has 5000 to 10,000 passive vocabulary. A good communicator tries to turn passive vocabulary into active vocabulary. It is obvious that words from passive vocabulary shift to active vocabulary after some years. There is no hard and fast rule of acquiring active vocabulary. The one and

only requirement is the student's enthusiasm and effort with some proper directions. There is a distinction between using and understanding vocabulary, so there are several types of vocabulary from this perspective:

- *Meaning/oral vocabulary* – connected with listening and speaking;
- *Literate/written vocabulary* – connected with reading and writing;
- *Receptive vocabulary* – connected with listening and reading (understanding the material when listening an reading);
- *Expressive vocabulary* – connected with speaking and writing, it is the vocabulary that people use to express themselves.

Teaching vocabulary has never been considered as something simple. The aspects that need to be taken into consideration are connected with:

a) *Receptive vocabulary* which involves the ability to recognize the word when it is heard or read, its structure (root, stem, affixes), to use the word in a variety of contexts; the knowledge about the meaning of the word, the semantic relations with other words, the correct grammar use, the word frequency.

b) Productive vocabulary which includes the ability to: pronounce the words correctly, write it correctly, to reconstruct it, to use it in different contexts with its appropriate meaning, use the word in new contexts, to produce synonyms and antonyms for it, to decide upon its suitability with respect to the style and register, fit for a specific context.

Generally speaking, vocabulary refers to the words we must understand to communicate effectively. Educators often consider four types of vocabulary: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Listening vocabulary refers to the words we hear and comprehend. The listener is able to link the words being spoken to their meaning. This level of understanding is aided by word context, intonation and, if there is visual contact with the speaker, by gestures and facial expressions. Listening is, like reading, an interpretational form of vocabulary. In our adulthood, most of us can identify and comprehend almost 50000 words. Children who are deaf are exposed to visual listening as they are exposed to sign language. But in this case, the number of words developed is far less than a normal child's secondary listening vocabulary.

Speaking vocabulary refers to the words we speak. Our speaking vocabulary is restricted. Most of the adults use almost 5000 to 10000 words for communication (for conversation and giving instructions). The number of words used in this case is far less than listening vocabulary, the reason being the level of comfort in usage.

Reading vocabulary refers to the words we recognize when reading. We read and understand many words, but we do not use them in speaking vocabulary. If a person is a reader then this type of vocabulary happens to be the second largest vocabulary. Needless to say, vocabulary grows with reading.

Writing vocabulary represents those words which we regain while writing to express ourselves. It is very easy to explain ourselves verbally by using facial expressions and modulation of voice, but using the same words for communicating the same concept or thought through writing is not that easy. Our writing vocabulary is intensely affected by the words we can spell.

9.3 Useful principles for teaching vocabulary

- Teach vocabulary in an explicit, systematic way

Teachers choose the vocabulary that students need to know in order to support their reading development and content area learning. Also, they plan repeated exposures to ensure mastery. When introducing new vocabulary student-friendly definitions for words important to the task at hand are provided.

- Teach vocabulary thematically

The vocabulary is organized around a common theme, and reading materials that reinforce that vocabulary in context.

- Teach vocabulary by focusing on common root words and affixes to expand word knowledge.

Learning about roots, prefixes, and suffixes is a great way to reinforce and expand learners' understanding of English words. Breaking the words down into smaller pieces makes unfamiliar words more comprehensible.

- Capitalize on cognates

Students are taught to make the connection between words that are the same or similar in English and in their primary language. This is an easy way to improve both vocabulary and reading comprehension.

- Preview, preview, preview!

Before reading, students look through essential vocabulary and preview the content. They "walk" through the book or chapter, looking at the pictures and demonstrating how the previewed vocabulary is used in context since vocabulary is learned best through meaningful associations.

- Teach vocabulary specific to content

Content-specific words include words such as 'photosynthesis', 'revolution', 'metaphor', and words with multiple meanings such as 'party', 'mouse', 'table', etc. A student's maximum level of reading comprehension is determined by knowledge of words. Teachers focus on key words that students will need to comprehend texts, learn the content in those texts, and pass tests.

- Knowing a word means:
- the ability to define a word;
- the ability to decode and spell that word;
- having the ability to recognize a word it in its spoken and written forms;
- knowing its different meanings;

- knowing its part of speech (e.g. a noun, a verb);
- being able to pronounce it properly;
- being able to use it correctly within a sentence in an appropriate grammatical form;
- for technical words, recognizing it in context;
- the ability to recognize different types of English e.g. boot/trunk; lift/elevator (British /American).

▪ Teach *signal words* and *directional* words in order to build a student's academic vocabulary.

Teachers help English language learners (ELLs) learn how to recognize, understand, and use signal and directional words. *Signal words* are sometimes called "transition" words and "signal" relationships between clauses. They include cause and effect words ("therefore" and "because"), comparison and contrast words ("despite" and "while"), and time sequence words ("then and "before"). *Directional words* describe a language function students need to perform, such as "explain", "compare", "inform", "contrast", "persuade," "justify", etc.

▪ Differentiate between different kinds of academic vocabulary and usage

Teachers also help ELLs understand how to recognize and when to use different kinds of academic vocabulary (content-specific words, signal words, etc.) by making clear and specific distinctions between the different kinds of academic words students need to know for a specific topic.

▪ Teach students how to use context clues to discover word meaning

Students are shown how to determine more meaning based on the rest of the sentence or surrounding paragraphs.

▪ Give students multiple opportunities to work with vocabulary

This includes connecting vocabulary to personal experience, allowing students to use their primary language to make associations, using cognates, practicing speaking, reading and writing, using artwork to represent words, in addition to techniques such as Total Physical Response (TPR), which allows students to show what they know by acting it out.

▪ Teach students to actively engage with vocabulary as they read

Underlining, highlighting, making notes, and listing unknown vocabulary words are just a few strategies that foster comprehension by helping ELLs actively engage with text.

▪ Teach what a student may need to know about an item

1. What it means. It is vital to get across the meaning of the item clearly and to ensure that students have understood correctly with checking questions.

2. The form. Students need to know if it is a verb/noun/ adjective etc. to be able to use it effectively.

3. How it is pronounced/spelt. This can be particularly problematic for learners of English because there is often no clear relation between how a word is

written and how it is pronounced. It is very important to use the phonemic script in such cases so the students have a clear written record of the pronunciation. Teachers can also drill words that you think will cause pronunciation problems and highlight the word stresses.

4. If it follows any unpredictable grammatical patterns. For example, man-men / information (uncountable) and if the word is followed by a particular preposition (e.g. depend on).

5. The connotations that the item may have. Bachelor is a neutral/positive word whereas spinster conjures a more negative image.

6. The situations when the word is or is not used.

- Is it formal / neutral / informal? For example, spectacles/glasses/specs.
- Is it used mainly in speech or in writing? *To sum up* is usually written whereas *mind you* is spoken.
- Is it outdated? For example, wireless instead of radio.

7. How the word is related to others, for example synonyms, antonyms, lexical sets.

8. Collocation or the way that words occur together. Teachers describe things 'in great detail' not 'in big detail' and to ask a question you 'raise your hand' you don't 'lift your hand'. It is important to highlight this to students to prevent mistakes in usage later.

9. What the affixes (prefixes and suffixes) may indicate about the meaning, for example, substandard, 'sub' meaning under. This is particularly useful at a higher level.

9.4 Ways to present vocabulary

Learners need to learn both the meaning and the form of a new word. It's worth pointing out that both these aspects of a word should be presented in close conjunction in order to ensure a tight meaning and form fit. The greater the gap between the presentation of a word's form and its meaning the less likely that the learner will make a mental connection between the two. The number of new words presented should not overstretch the learners' capacity to remember them. Nor should the presentation extend so far into the lesson that no time is available to put the words to work. Course books tend to operate on the principle that a vocabulary presentation should include at most about a dozen items. Having decided on the *number of items* to teach, there is then the choice of the *sequence of presentation,* either the meaning first, then form or vice versus.

There is an argument that presenting the meaning first creates a need for the form, opening the appropriate mental "files", and making the presentation both more efficient and more memorable. On the other hand, 'form first' presentation works best when the words are presented in some kind of context, so that the

learners can work out the meaning for themselves. The next set of choices relates to the *means of presentation* - whether to present the meaning through:

1. Translation

Traditionally, translation has been the most widely used means of presenting the meaning of a word in monolingual classes. Translation has the advantage of being the most direct route towards meaning - assuming that there is a close match between the target word and its equivalent. It is therefore very economical, and especially suitable for dealing with incidental vocabulary that may crop up in a lesson. However, an over-reliance on translation may mean that learners fail to develop an independent lexicon, with the effect that they always access foreign words by means of their mother tongue equivalents, rather than directly. Also, because learners don't have to work very hard to access the meaning, it may mean that the word is less memorable. It is a case of 'no pain, no gain'.

2. Real things (realia)

An alternative to translation - and an obvious choice if presenting a set of concrete objects such as clothes items is to somehow illustrate or demonstrate them. This can be done either by using real objects (*realia*), pictures or mime. The use of realia, pictures and demonstration was a defining technique of the Direct Method. The Direct Method developed as a reaction to such highly intellectual approaches to language learning as Grammar-Translation.

3. Actions / gestures

Such an approach is especially appropriate if teaching beginners, and with mixed nationality classes, where translation is not an option. It is also a technique that has been reclaimed by practitioners of Total Physical Response (TPR), a method that promotes initial immersion in a high quantity of comprehensible input. In making use of the immediate environment of the classroom, and of things that can be brought into the classroom, the intention is to replicate the experience of learning one's mother tongue. A TPR lesson typically involves the teacher demonstrating actions, using real objects, and then getting the learners to perform the same or similar actions in response to commands.

9.5 Vocabulary strategies

There are a variety of language learning strategies that may have the potential to facilitate language learning through the use of different techniques. Teachers can teach vocabulary directly or indirectly. Using a variety of effective methods will increase the student's ability to learn new words.

Showing pictures or using audio-visual aids

To a certain extent, the language teacher should have the mastery over the skill of drawing so as to teach vocabulary. Students should produce some pic-

tures of animals, birds, fruits, vegetables, etc. The teacher can also use some other audio-visual aids to teach vocabulary properly.

Showing real objects or models

The objects which the teacher can easily bring in the classroom should be shown to the students, for example stick, stone, maps, clock, etc.

Miming or performing an action

To teach some words, the teacher can actually perform the action like walking, writing, laughing, etc. in the class.

By framing illustrative sentences:

These sentences should be such that meaning of the words flashes from the context clear as crystal. For example, *The train left the station at 7.55. I could not catch it. I missed the train*. It should be always kept in mind that this type of sentences should be simple in structure.

By associating with other words

The teacher should try to associate a new word with the word that is already known to the students. This can be done by asking and giving examples of synonyms and antonyms. Making references to a Thesaurus is a useful method, too.

Identifying the lexical set

The ability to identify the lexical set is very essential in teaching vocabulary. For example, *accelerator, breaks* are the words of the some lexical set.

Breaking words into component units:

The meaning of words should be explained by breaking words down into their component units and providing the meaning of each unit separately, and then giving the combined root + affix meaning. For instance, words such as 'inject', 'eject', and 'deject' could be explained as follows:

- Inject = in (inside) + ject (throw) = to insert, as in 'inject a syringe';
- Eject = e (away) + ject (throw) = to throw out, as in 'eject oneself from an airplane';
- Deject = de (down) + ject (throw)= to throw down' to make low in spirits.

Despite some limitations, the analytical method will at least give the core meaning from which other meanings have diverged.

Matching tasks

They involve first recognizing words and then pairing them with, for example, a visual representation, a translation, a synonym, an antonym, a definition, or a collocate.

Sorting activities

They require learners to sort words into different categories. The categories can either be given, or guessed, e.g. Put these adjectives into two groups - positive and negative.

Use of production tasks

Tasks that are productive are those in which the learners are required to incorporate the newly studied words into some kind of speaking or writing activity. These can be classified as being of two main types:

1. Completion - of sentences and texts;
2. Creation - of sentences and texts.

Exposure of different contexts

Learners should be exposed to different kinds of contexts in which a word may be used, to ensure its proper usage. One context does not ensure mastery of the word.

To give some importance on word-formation

The teacher should teach the different affixes (prefixes and suffixes) and their functions should be taught in order to give proper interpretation of a new word. Words can be grouped into clusters on the basis of their affixes. Knowing the meaning of a prefix or a suffix will definitely help learners to understand the meaning of a word.

Crossword puzzles

Crossword puzzles help in studying vocabulary. Almost all the English newspapers have crossword puzzles. The teacher should produce adequate crossword puzzles for the sake of teaching vocabulary. This is a useful tool in building one's vocabulary.

Word games

Sometimes the teacher should conduct some word games among the students in the classroom. This will help the students because the process of learning vocabulary becomes an entertaining work.

Giving equivalents in mother-tongue

Most of the students may not be acquainted with all the terms in the target language. But those terms can be taught through the medium of their mother-tongue. The barrier of understanding the meaning of some specific words can be removed in this way.

Encourage the students to use a dictionary

Students should be always encouraged to use a dictionary. It is always benefi-

cial to use a monolingual dictionary. To get a wide exposure to the language, it is an essential act which the students should be advised to perform.

Create Word Map

Word Maps are graphic organizers that help students learn new words by associating it with its antonyms, synonyms, writing their own definition or using the word in their own sentence. Word map activities allows students to think about vocabulary in several ways, and further make connections with each word in relation to other words they already know.

Use music for memorization

Music has always been a great tool to help with memorization. Catchy beats and hooks often make vocabulary retention and recall stickier for students. It allows students to memorize at their own pace.

Personalized lists

Students can be empowered to build their own vocabulary lists. Students will come across new words they don't know every day in readings and discussions across the content areas. When students pick out their own vocabulary words, not only will they be more motivated to learn them, but it allows the vocabulary lists to be personalized to each student, too.

Use context clues

With this instructional approach, the teacher provides reading passages or sentences with new vocabulary words embedded in them. Students then attempt to guess the definitions. Teaching vocabulary through context clues encourages critical thinking skills and helps them make connections to the word, ultimately helping them remember its meaning.

Sentence and text creation tasks

They require learners to create the contexts for given words. Here are some typical task instructions:

- Use each of these words to make a sentence which clearly shows the meaning of the word;
- Choose six words from the list and write a sentence using each one;
- Use each of these words to write a true sentence about yourself or someone you know;
- Write a short narrative (or dialogue) which includes at least five words from the list.

Tasks such as these lead naturally into speaking activities: either reading aloud or performing dialogues to the class, or comparing and explaining sentences in pairs or small groups. These activities involve many of the processes

that serve to promote retention in long-term memory, such as rehearsal, repetition and explanation.

Teaching lexical chunks

There are different types of chunks and different degrees of 'chunkiness'. Of the different types, the following are the most important for teaching purposes:

- *Collocations* - widely travelled; rich and famous; make do with; set the table;
- *Phrasal verbs* - get up; log on; run out of; go on about;
- *Idioms, catchphrases* and *sayings* - hell for leather; get cold feet; as old as the hills; mind your own business; takes one to know one;
- *Sentence frames* - would you mind if... ?; the thing is ...; I'd... if I were you; what really gets me is ... ' social formulae — such as see you later; have a nice day; yours; sincerely;
- *Discourse markers* — such as frankly speaking; on the other hand; I take your point; once upon a time; to cut a long story short...

Summing these up, it means that teaching vocabulary should include: teaching the form/spelling of words; their pronunciation; word meanings(s); changes of meaning; transfer of meaning; enlargement/narrowing of meaning; teaching that form and meaning go together; teaching lexical sets and word fields; the way in which words are used in different situations and context, as well. An important attention should be given to the process of recycling vocabulary from time to time. Through the way they are organized, textbooks help the teacher in this respect.

Teaching vocabulary also involves the teacher offering information and training in decoding meaning. This implies attention given to the *context* (the entire non-verbal environment which is linguistically relevant for communication purposes) and the *co-text (*the linguistic environment proper; the items in the text which play a role in specifying the meaning of a given lexical item) in which word is used; this is why the study of vocabulary cannot be separated from the study of phonetics and grammar. Knowing words also means mastering of their:

a) Denotative meaning

Denotation means" the objective, impersonal meaning of a word". This meaning is the one that has been fixed in the language of the whole people, and it forms part of whole system of the conventional signs that enables people to understand each other; it also appeals to the intellect and represents the cognitive or communicative aspect of meaning. For example, the word *rose* stands for a flower; grammatically, it is a noun. Denotation is neutral, as far as the attitude of the speaker is concerned; it simply conveys the informational load of the respective word.

b) Connotative meaning

Connotation means "the subjective, personal and emotive <extra-meaning> of a word"; it is what the word suggests or implies. Connotations represent the field of associations, suggestions, the emotional overtones the speaker usually

associates with each individual use of words. For example, the word *rose* may denote beauty, delicacy or love.

The abilities to learn vocabulary are closely linked with the students' ability of handling their first language, their previous language experience, as well as the learning strategies that they use.

The teacher's responsibility is to:

- Provide
- Authentic material as basis for learning;
- Frequent repetition of the vocabulary already taught;
- Regular and systematic practice;
- Different contexts in a which a word may be used;
- Help
- Students organize the material when storing it, so that they be successful when they retrieve it;
- Students turn their passive vocabulary into an active one;
- Students expand their vocabulary knowledge as often as possible;
- Develop students' motivation for learning new vocabulary, as basis for the production stage;
- Encourage students' acquisition of vocabulary and its use;
- Use attractive, flexible and various strategies that allow for learning new words;
- Foster guided discovery of new lexical material and even of independent learning;
- Adapt the material to the students' age and power of learning;
- Make sure that vocabulary is acquired through comprehension, association and integration of the new material with already learned one;

9.6 Stages of introducing vocabulary

1. Lead-in stage

Before listening to texts or reading them, students are introduced to the new vocabulary they are going to learn, it happens during pre-reading/listening stage. The new words may be introduced by means of several techniques that can be visual, verbal, non - verbal.

- *Visual* includes: using pictures, photos, drawings, illustrations; using pictograms (the teacher draws on the blackboard and it renders the meaning); flash-cards, handouts, diagrams, word trees, charts, comic strips, using realia (the teacher brings different objects);
- *Verbal techniques* include: explanations, semantically related words (synonyms, antonyms, homonyms), translation, vocabulary games, word-building, matching;

- *Non-verbal techniques* include gesturing and miming.

2. During the work with the text

The technique is the following: students read a text and relate what they have understood. The new ways are introduced in different ways: guessing from the context, offering the definition of the new word, word analysis technique (roots, affixes), use of antonyms/synonyms, substitution, matching words with definitions, writing word lists, making connections, finding out differences, collocation identification, translation.

3. During the students' work with dictionary.

It is important to offer students the possibilities to discover meanings of words by themselves/through independent work. This is why the dictionary becomes a useful tool in the classroom. Students need to be taught some preliminary things related to the way in which a dictionary is organized and to the work with it. Thus, the procedure becomes the following; the students identify the new word; the teacher helps them indentify its root form; the students read the word again and try to establish its grammatical function in the context it is used (Is it a noun/verb/adjective or adverb?); then, they look the word up in the dictionary and find the meaning which is appropriate to the respective context. Students also need to check its pronunciation.

Exercises in teaching vocabulary are of different types. Some of them are based on the students' recognizing words and structures, while others are based on producing/practicing language structures. Students show comprehension of vocabulary when they appropriately:

- Underline required words or word classes;
- Match pictures with words;
- Recognize the structure of words;
- Can offer synonyms, antonyms, homonyms;
- Use prefixes and suffixes to build new words from already given ones;
- Fill in blanks with words;
- Construct oral or written discourse;
- Re-arrange words in correct order;
- Summarize longer texts;
- Paraphrase texts;
- Fill in grids and diagrams;
- Group/classify/list words according to criteria;
- Replace certain words by others and make all the necessary changes.

The strategies that can be done with these exercises help students to enhance their memory. Research into memory has proved that people do not store words in their brain in alphabetical order, words that are somehow related join together in

groups. This means that it is better to teach lexical sets in which words are related in several ways:

- *By topic* – animals, plants, jobs, transport, music;
- *Similarity of meaning* – monkey, ape, gorilla;
- *In pairs* – brave, courageous;
- *Antonyms* – old/new;
- *Scales* – boiling, hot, warm;
- *Activity or process* – e.g. steps in making a cake.

Also, knowledge of vocabulary implies the acquisition of information of different types:

- *Style* - level of formality, e.g. slang, colloquial, formal/informal, neutral, ironic, poetic, etc.;
- *Registers* – varieties of language defined by the topic (language of medicine, engineering, etc.);
- *Dialects* – refer to differences in geographical variation (American English, British, etc.);
- *Collocation* – specific word combinations;
- *Morphology* – knowing the form of a word and its possible derivations;
- *Semantics* – knowing what the word means and its connotations;
- *Polysemy* – knowing the different, meanings associated with a word;

In other words, words should pass from the short-term memory to long-term memory, so the repetition of words and the frequent occurrence of the respective word is a very important strategy.

9.7 What makes a word difficult?

Easiest of all are those that are more or less identical, both in meaning and form, to their equivalents. When this is due to the fact that they derive from a common origin, they are called *cognates*. Thus Catalan *vocabulari,* French *vocabulaire*, Italian *vocabolario* and English *vocabulary* are all cognates and hence relatively easily transferable from one language to the other. The global spread of English has also meant that many English words have been borrowed by other languages. Examples of such loanwords in Japanese are *shanpu* (shampoo), *shoppingu* (shopping), and *sunakku* (snack). Cognates and loan words provide a useful way in to the vocabulary of English, and are worth exploiting. However, there are a number of traps for new players, in the form of *false friends*. Other factors that make some words more difficult than others are:

- Pronunciation

Research shows that words that are difficult to pronounce are more difficult to learn. Potentially difficult words will typically be those that contain sounds that are unfamiliar to some groups of learners - such as regular and lorry for

Japanese speakers. Many learners find that words with clusters of consonants, such as strength or crisps or breakfast, are also problematic.

- Spelling

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, listen, headache, climbing, bored, honest, cupboard, muscle, etc.

- Length and complexity

Long words seem to be no more difficult to learn than short ones. But, as a rule of thumb, high frequency words tend to be short in English, and therefore the learner is likely to meet them more often, a factor favoring their 'learnability'. Also, variable stress in polysyllabic words, such as in word families like necessary, necessity and necessarily - can add to their difficulty.

- Grammar

Also problematic is the grammar associated with the word, especially if this differs from that of its equivalent. Spanish learners of English, for example, tend to assume that explain follows the same pattern as both Spanish *explicar* and English *tell*, and say *He explained me the lesson*. Remembering whether a verb like *enjoy, love*, or *hope* is followed by an infinitive (to swim) or an - *ing* form (swimming) can add to its difficulty. And the grammar of phrasal verbs is particularly troublesome: some phrasal verbs are separable (*she looked the word up*) but others are not (*she looked after the children*).

- Meaning

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 *since* and *still*, can also be troublesome for learners.

REFLECTION

1. Are there any valid measurement tools for assessing ESL students' vocabulary retention skills other than the follow up test?
2. Suggest some vocabulary teaching strategies for the struggling readers.
3. Can digital resources (e.g. apps, software programs) be included in classroom to enhance vocabulary and reading comprehension skills?
4. What are the most useful and effective approaches in teaching vocabulary through stories in order to help learners to enrich their vocabulary?
5. What do you think about "The relationship between L2 Vocabulary Knowledge and L2 Vocabulary?"
6. Which one leads to a better improvement in foreign language speaking skills: speaking more or reading more?

TASKS FOR INDEPENDENT WORK

Project work: Practicing teaching
Topic: Developing vocabulary

- Students prepare teaching activities related to improving vocabulary;
- Students teach a stage of a lesson related to a topic they discuss in advance;
- The group plays the role of children/students;
- The closing activity consists in analysis and evaluation of practical activities.
- Activity evaluation – whole group.

UNIT 10.
TEACHING GRAMMAR

10.1 Introduction

Teaching grammar is an essential part of school education or adult learning. Without good grammar, spoken or written words lose much of their meaning and most of their value. English grammar is very complex, and all its intricacies cannot truly be learned by rote, they must be really understood – and understanding is most easily achieved when students are engaged, interested in a lesson. The problem is not grammar itself, but the ways that grammar has been taught and learned. Early approaches to foreign language instruction, including the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), often taught grammar separate from the larger contexts in which language is used. While these approaches were often effective for developing a receptive (reading) knowledge of a language, they sometimes failed to provide students with the ability to use language communicatively in speaking and writing.

Grammar is often seen as a difficult subject and one popular method of teaching is to just repeat the correct grammar for a certain situation over and over until it is memorized and able to be repeated. This only results in the students being able to repeat what they have learned, rather than resulting in a complete understanding that can be applied to all situations. As a result, a number of approaches to language instruction have focused on developing communicative competence. Communicative competence does not mean an absence of grammar instruction but rather grammar instruction that leads to the ability to communicate effectively. With the Communicative Approach in which language is viewed as an instrument of communication, it has become clear in language teaching that grammar is viewed as a tool or resource to be used in conveying meaning and comprehending other people's messages. Unlike the traditional repetitive grammar exercises of the past which tended to focus only on the structures, the focus of instruction moved beyond the sentence level. At present, more and more teachers pay attention to the spoken language and discourse structure. They are also aware of the significance of teaching grammar within context, using meaningful and purposeful communicative approaches.

Grammar represents rules of a language governing the sounds, words, sentences, and other elements, as well as their combination and interpretation. The word *grammar* also denotes the study of these abstract features or a book presenting these rules. In a restricted sense, the term refers only to the study of sentence and word structure (syntax and morphology), excluding vocabulary

and pronunciation. A common contemporary definition of grammar is the underlying structure of a language that any native speaker of that language knows intuitively. The systematic description of the features of a language is also a grammar. These features are:

- Phonology (sounds);
- Morphology (the system of word formation);
- Syntax (patterns of word arrangement);
- Semantics (meaning);
- Pragmatics (meaning of a sentence in a context).

Depending on the grammarian's approach, a grammar can be:

- *Prescriptive* - it provides rules for correct usage;
- *Descriptive* - it describes how a language is actually used, or
- *Generative* - it provides instructions for the production of an infinite number of sentences in a language.

All these are connected to *pedagogical grammar*. The traditional focus of inquiry has been on morphology and syntax, and for some contemporary linguists (and many traditional grammarians) this is the only proper domain of the subject. It is believed the vast majority of the information in the grammar is – at least in the case of one's native language – acquired not by conscious study or instruction but by hearing other speakers. Much of this work is done during early childhood; learning a language later in life usually involves more explicit instruction. Thus, grammar is the cognitive information underlying language use.

The term "grammar" can also describe the rules which govern the linguistic behavior of a group of speakers. For example, the term "English grammar" may refer to the whole of English grammar; that is, to the grammars of all the speakers of the language, in which case the term encompasses a great deal of variation. Alternatively, it may refer only to what is common to the grammars of all or most English speakers, such as subject–verb–object word-order in simple declarative sentences. It may also refer to the rules of one relatively well-defined form of English, such as Standard English for a region.

In brief, grammar represents one's linguistic competence. It means the whole of all linguistic phenomena, which are structured by certain rules. In a more narrow definition, grammar describes morpho-syntactic relationships, meaning syntactic structures in sentences and word formations.

10.2 How learners learn grammar

Grammar is a key concept in teaching a foreign language in the classroom. It means teaching students how to acquire rules that help them arrange words in a sentence so that it becomes meaningful. Pedagogical grammar primarily deals with

syntax and morphology: sentence-level and word-level rules and order. It includes grammatical analysis and instruction designed for second-language students. It often presents language in a simplified and inauthentic manner in order to facilitate teaching. Here are some *methodological principles* in teaching grammar:

- It is necessary that students should use the language and not talk about it. Theoretical presentation should be very short and strictly to the point, with no excess of theory, the main part of the class time is devoted to practice.
- Teaching techniques are adapted to students' age, level of knowledge and the assumed prior knowledge.
- The presentation of any grammar problem should take into consideration the previously taught topic, it should be a gradual process from simple to complex.
- It is important to treat the grammar problem in relation to other area of study: phonetics, spelling, vocabulary and oral expression, it prevents students from getting bored.
- The atmosphere should be relaxed and supportive; grammar teaching should be done as naturally as possible.
- It is important that the teacher should transform the grammar lessons into interesting and attractive activities through his/her attitude, methods, techniques and procedures he/she chooses, as well as the variety of material and teaching aids that help the teaching process: charts, drawings, pictures, tables, diagrams.
- The teacher encourages students to take risks and use the language, the new structures and particularly the complex ones.
- The lesson should be dynamic and based on various classroom interactions: pair and group work add dynamism to the class and allow students to use the language in a more efficient way.
- Teaching does not cause learning. The right environment, conditions and opportunity for learning do. Grammar teaching should always be contextualized (literally meaning 'with a text/context').
- Grammar lessons should require students to do something authentic, practical or interesting with the learned grammar, using it in a context and experiencing language with a purpose beyond classroom exercises or homework.

Table 10.2.1 Grammar knowledge versus grammar skill

Knowledge	Skill
Grammar is a fixed set of rules to be learned	Grammar describes patterns of language that assist communication (making the meaning clear and accurate)

Learned deductively (rules and formula to be memorized).	Learned inductively (patterns discovered and practiced from experience)
Mastery depends on the ability to recall and apply rules correctly	Mastery depends on using language actively (thinking, practicing and deciding meaning) in tasks and contextualized communicative activities.

10.3 Approaches to teaching grammar. Deductive approach

Broadly speaking, two traditional approaches to grammar teaching have been identified, both being connected to grammar rules: *deductive* and *inductive*.

A deductive approach is derived from the notion that deductive reasoning works from the general to the specific. In this case, rules, principles, concepts, or theories are presented first, and then their applications are treated. The deductive approach can also be called *rule-driven learning*. In such an approach, a grammar rule is explicitly presented to students and followed by practice applying the rule. This approach has been the bread and butter of language teaching around the world and still enjoys a monopoly in many course books and self-study grammar books. The deductive approach maintains that a teacher teaches grammar by presenting grammatical rules, and then examples of sentences are presented. Once learners understand rules, they are told to apply the rules given to various examples of sentences. Giving the grammatical rules means no more than directing learners' attention to the problem discussed.

To sum up, the deductive approach commences with the presentation of a rule taught and then is followed by examples in which the rule is applied. In this regard, learners are expected to engage with it through the study and manipulation of examples. In the case of the application of the deductive approach, therefore, Michael Swan outlines some guidelines for when the rule is presented. Among them are:

1. Rules should be true, clear, and simple;
2. Rules should show clearly what limits are on the use of a given form;
3. Rules need to make use of concepts already familiar to the learners;
4. Rules ought to be relevant [54 p.32].

Most importantly, when the rules are presented in the deductive approach, the presentation should be illustrated with examples, be short, involve students' comprehension and allow learners to have a chance to personalize the rule. Nonetheless, the deductive approach has its own advantages and disadvantages as shown in Table 10.3.1.

Table 10.3.1 Advantages and disadvantages of the deductive approach to teaching grammar

Advantages	1. The deductive approach goes straightforwardly to the point and can, therefore, be time-saving.
	2. A number of rule aspects (for example, form) can be more simply and clearly explained than elicited from examples.
	3. A number of direct practice/application examples are immediately given.
	4. The deductive approach respects the intelligence and maturity of many adult learners in particular and acknowledges the role of cognitive processes in language acquisition.
	5. It confirms many learners' expectations about classroom learning particularly for those who have an analytical style.
Disadvantages	1. Beginning the lesson with a grammar presentation may be off-putting for some learners, especially younger ones.
	2. Younger learners may not able to understand the concepts or encounter grammar terminology given.
	3. Grammar explanation encourages a teacher-fronted, transmission-style classroom, so it will hinder learner involvement and interaction immediately.
	4. The explanation is seldom as memorable as other forms of presentation (for example, demonstration).
	5. The deductive approach encourages the belief that learning a language is simply a case of knowing the rule.

10.4 Approaches to teaching grammar. Inductive approach

An inductive approach comes from inductive reasoning stating that a reasoning progression proceeds from particulars, i.e. observations, measurements, or data to generalities, for example, rules, laws, concepts or theories. In short, when we use induction, we observe a number of specific instances and from them infer a general principle or concept. In the case of pedagogical grammar, most experts argue that the inductive approach can also be called rule-discovery learning. It suggests that a teacher teaches grammar starting with presenting some examples of sentences. In this sense, learners understand grammatical rules from the examples. The presentation of grammatical rules can be spoken or written. This approach involves learners' participating actively in their own instruction. In addition, the approach encourages a learner to develop her/his own mental set of strategies for dealing with tasks. In other words, this approach attempts to highlight grammatical rules implicitly in which the learners are encouraged to conclude the rules given by the teacher. Similar to the deductive approach, the inductive approach offers advantages and disadvantages as seen in the Table 10.3.2.

Table 10.3.2. Advantages and disadvantages of the inductive approach to teaching grammar

Advantages	1. Learners are trained to be familiar with the rule discovery; this could enhance learning autonomy and self-reliance.
	2. Learners' greater degree of cognitive depth is "exploited". Rules learners discover for themselves are more likely to fit their existing mental structures than rules they have been presented with. This in turn will make the rules more meaningful, memorable, and serviceable.
	3. The learners are more active in the learning process, rather than being simply passive recipients. In this activity, they will be motivated. The mental effort involved ensures a greater degree of cognitive depth which, again, ensures greater memorability.
	4. The approach involves learners' pattern-recognition and problem solving abilities in which particular learners are interested in this challenge.
	5. If the problem-solving activity is done collaboratively, learners get an opportunity for extra language practice.
Disadvantages	1. The approach is not necessarily time and energy-consuming as it leads learners to take time in order to have the appropriate concept of the rule.
	2. The concepts given implicitly may lead the learners to have the wrong concepts of the rule taught.
	3. The approach may frustrate the learners with their personal learning style, or their past learning experience (or both) would prefer simply to be told the rule.

Whether grammatical rules are taught inductively or deductively, they relies upon certain structures, since some are more amenable to a deductive approach, while others can be learned very well by an inductive approach. To sum up, both deductive and inductive presentations can successfully be applied depending on the cognitive style of the learner and the language structure presented. Nevertheless, whether a teacher employs a deductive or inductive approach, s/he should consider the notion that language learning, particularly in the context of EFL (for example, grammar) is a largely conscious process that involves formal exposure to rules of syntax and semantics followed by specific applications of the rule, with corrective and encouraging feedback reinforcing correct usage and discouraging incorrect usage.

Noticing that both approaches have advantages and disadvantages, a deductive approach can be used any time a grammar problem is difficult or has no equivalent in the mother tongue. In the case of grammar problem that is based on regularities and students do not face many problems in understanding it, the inductive approach proves its useful character. Having in view all these, *an integrative approach* will probably better respond to problems raised by teaching grammar, because it is a form of combining both form-based and meaning-based teaching.

10.5 Stages of teaching grammar

For most teachers of English, the priority of teaching grammar is to assist learners to internalize the structures/rules of language, taught in such a way that they can be used for communication both written and spoken. It takes time for learners to absorb grammar knowledge, that means to use the patterns naturally and without major problems. According to J.Scrivener the process of learning could be divided into four stages:

1. Notice the structure when learners see it in texts, stories, articles, in conversation, etc. If they recognize the structure as frequently as they can, they will remember it better.
2. Understand verb endings, word building, word order, what part of speech it is, collocations, etc.
3. Try or more precisely, practice the items in a stressed-free environment, i.e. to practice without a hurry, through errors and mistakes - to come naturally to them.
4. Use the acquired language in writing or speaking. But in the same time the acquired language can still remain a part of their passive knowledge only [49, p.113].

Penny Ur uses a similar idea in her work. She splits the process of learning into three similar stages:

1. Verbalization (explanation) - it involves an introduction to the structure; a teacher is a main source for desired information.
2. Automatisation - the stage of practicing and familiarizing with the structure; a teacher still figures here a lot.
3. Autonomy - independent use of any external input, the self-learning stage, the stage of self-control [56, p. 75].

The *traditional method* of teaching grammar is based on three stages, the first of which is called presentation, the second practice and the last one production (PPP).

1. Grammar presentation stage

The teacher presents the structure to students and they perceive it. A good presentation is clear, efficient, lively, interesting, appropriate for the language and productive. Here are some grammar presentation principles:

- Grammar points should be taught in the target language or the students' first language or both, depending on the level of students. The goal is to facilitate understanding.
- The time devoted to grammar explanations is limited to 10-15 minutes, especially for lower level students whose ability to sustain attention can be limited.
- Grammar should be presented in written and oral ways to address the needs of students with different learning styles.

- An important part of grammar instruction is providing examples. Teachers need to plan their examples carefully around two basic principles: 1. Examples are accurate and appropriate. 2. Examples are culturally appropriate for the setting in which they are used, and to the point of the lesson.

The focus is on the grammatical items themselves: meaning, function and the rules that govern them. Students are asked to concentrate on the comparison with their native language. It is generally accepted that isolation and visual demonstration of grammar on the blackboard are useful techniques. The following techniques can be used when presenting grammar material:

- Explaining directly

The teacher writes the structure on the blackboard and explains its forms, then offers some examples to illustrate the grammar problem under discussion by setting problems, tasks and activities that raise relevant points, asking concept and context questions about form and functions, offering appropriate examples, eliciting answers, analyzing sentences.

- Using a song/poem text

The teacher prepares worksheets with a song where some verbs are written in brackets. The topic is learning e.g. present continuous, students listen to the song and complete the verbs.

- Using a picture

The teacher shows a picture representing people doing several things, the teacher writes on the blackboard a statement pointing at one person in the picture. The students do the same things about other people. Pictures from magazines, catalogs, and newspapers can be used as prompts for practicing past simple (stories), simple present and present progressive.

- Using realia

The teacher removes objects from the table and asks students *what have I taken? (Present Perfect), is it yours? (Possessive)*. The answers: you have taken, he has taken etc.

- Personalizing

The teacher asks a student to go to the blackboard and utters a sentence which contains a topic which is to be taught: *look what is he doing?* Students answer the question using the same topic. The procedure is repeated with other actions.

- Modeling

The student is given a clear spoken model of the new language, with normal speed, stress and intonation. Students repeat the model several times in chorus and individually, next it is written on the blackboard and then analyzed.

- Situational context

The context should be one which native speakers use frequently and it should make the meaning of the tense clear for the students. For example, if we want to

teach *used to*, we need to find a context which makes it clear to students that the tense refers to a disconnected past habit.

- Using tables and diagrams

A good way to present information about grammar is using tables and diagrams. There are many ready-made tables for sale, but teachers can make them on their own to present grammar information in a concise visual way.

2. *Grammar practice stage*

The aim of this stage is to give students opportunities to use the structure as much as possible, in known contexts or with different vocabulary. A great variety of exercises can be used during the classroom activity or for students' homework. Research has shown that several principles should be observed in the practice techniques:

- Not too much time should be devoted to written exercises, most exercise should be oral;
- Students should apply the rules in a variety of contexts;
- Many exercises should be from colloquial speech;
- Individual exercises should be chosen for the students with certain deficiencies or with low learning potential.

Exercises can be of different types:

Mechanical (grammar drills)

Grammar drill is a teaching/learning activity, which emphasizes rote learning, memorization and automation of language. There are the following types of drills:

- Formal drills such as *substitution* (a noun instead of another noun), *completion* (find the necessary word and complete the utterance), *transformation* (present-past, active-passive etc.),
- Functional drills such as receiving training in expressing a certain grammar meaning (e.g. futurity, priority of actions, types of modality etc), *expansion* (students expand a sentence by adding additional units), *contraction* (use a simple word that stand for a sentence), *integration* exercises (integrate two or more sentences into one).
- Meaningful drills such as using grammar in a broader situational context.

Communicative activities

This group includes: asking and answering questions, constructing short dialogues, sentence/paragraph/essay writing, ordering a jumbled dialogue. Many of the activities in the practice stage are based on discovery techniques.

Using their power of critical thinking, analysis and synthesis, students find out how language works and discover grammar rules or generalizations. The most used discovery techniques are:

- Text-study

Students are asked to discover new grammar by concentrating on its use in a text that they analyze. If learners are to achieve a functional command of a second language, they will need to be able to understand and produce not just isolated sentences, but whole texts in that language. Language is context-sensitive; which is to say that an utterance becomes fully intelligible only when it is placed in its context. Advantages of using texts are:

- They provide co-textual information, allowing learners to deduce the meaning of unfamiliar grammatical items from the co-text.
- If the texts are authentic they can show how the item is used in real communication.
- As well as grammar input, texts provide vocabulary input, skills practice, and exposure to features of text organization.
- Their use in the classroom is good preparation for independent study.
- If the texts come from the students themselves, they may be more engaging and their language features therefore more memorable.

▪ Rephrasing. Students are asked:

- to make complex transformations by discovering the ways in which language works (discussing a poem, a story, a piece of music, a play, a painting, a film, a TV program, etc.);
- expand ideas suggested by a piece of literature or reading material;
- create rhymes, poetry, stories or plays;
- recombine familiar dialogs or passages creatively suggesting original beginnings or endings to dialogues or stories;
- solve problems or mysteries;
- paraphrase;
- summarize;
- translate;
- explain or asking for explanations of how something works;
- compare or contrast things;
- discuss possibilities, probabilities, or capabilities of doing something;
- request or reporting facts about events or actions;
- evaluate the results of an action or event, etc.

3. Grammar production stage

Grammar production stage is where the learners actively produce the required grammar structure without specific prompts form the teacher. The task should be designed in such a way that using the target grammar should be necessary to complete it, e.g. when asked to talk about the daily routines of their grandparents in their youth, students will hardly be able to do it without using the Past Simple, which is the target grammar structure of the activity.

However, it doesn't mean that learners should be left with the task on their own, without instruction and guidance.

There are numerous activities for this stage and what the teacher chooses will depend on the language and on the level of students. However, information gaps, role plays, interviews, simulations, find someone who, spot the differences between two pictures, picture cues, problem solving, personalization activities and board games are all meaningful activities which give students the opportunity to practice the language more freely.

Presentation of the new material can be done with rules and examples (deductive approach), texts and situations, language observations and rule formulations (inductive approach). *Practice* of the target grammar is done in the drill-like or more creative exercise such as "communication games". The third stage is *production* of grammar-focused learners' utterances in communicative settings.

At every stage of teaching grammar (presentation, practice, production) the work is organized in the micro three-phase framework.

- E.g. if presentation stage is *rule induction*, then the micro three-phase framework can be:

1) *Illustration* of the language in a communicative situation, followed by
2) *Interaction* of the learners in discussing the language examples and, finally,
3) *Induction* of the grammar rule through observation and discussion.

- If presentation stage is *deduction* of examples from the rule, the three phases can be

1) *Explanation* of the rule by the teacher,
2) *Exemplification* of the rule by the learners using their own language illustrations, and
3) *Explication* i.e. "rediscovery" of the grammar rule by the learners based on their own examples.

During the *practice stage* the three-phase framework can include *pre-task* (introduction to the topic and to the task), *task cycle* (doing the task and reporting on the results) and *language focus* (reflections on the language that was used in the task and further practice).

All in all, authors came to the same conclusion and that is, all learners experience almost identical steps in a process of foreign language learning. No matter how they call them, the stages are basically the same or with the very similar definitions.

REFLECTION

1. What is the relation between rules and the reasons behind the rules?
2. Explain the role of similarities in teaching grammar.
3. What kind of grammar exercises help students write not just correct sentences but better, more expressive ones?
4. What would be the most appropriate principle in teaching grammar for beginners, intermediate and advanced students?
5. What is the relation between focusing on form and focusing on meaning in teaching grammar?
6. What are the advantages of teaching grammar in situational contexts?

TASKS FOR INDEPENDENT WORK

Project work: Practicing teaching
Topic: Teaching grammar

- Three students prepare teaching activities related to the stages of teaching grammar;
- Students teach a stage of a lesson related to a topic they discuss in advance;

1. Grammar presentation stage
2. Grammar practice stage
3. Grammar production stage

- The group plays the role of children/students;
- The closing activity consists in analysis and evaluation of practical activities.
- Activity evaluation – whole group.

UNIT 11.
PLANNING A LESSON. Part 1

11.1 Introduction

Planning is a process whereby a direction is set forth and then the ways and means for following that direction are specified. There are many forms of planning with several types of activities involved in this process. *A plan* is the product of the planning process and can be defined as a set of decisions about what to do, why, and how to do it. More and more, education managers are compelled to think and plan strategically, due to some following reasons:

- First, one may wish to plan and carry out all the activities deemed needed, but without achieving the ultimate goals.
- Furthermore, more resources do not necessarily stand for the best results. The way one uses these resources can lead to a different level of benefits.
- Thirdly, it has become more and more difficult to plan everything one would wish to do. One ought to make choices, often tough ones, through a balanced decision-making, trade-offs across the system and consensus-building process.

These lead to espouse strategic planning. A strategic plan in the education sector is the physical product of the strategic planning process and embodies the guiding orientations on how to run an education system within a larger national development perspective, which is evolving by nature and often involves constraints.

In the past, planners usually referred to the term "long-range planning". More recently, they use the term "strategic planning". Although many still use these terms interchangeably, strategic planning and long-range planning differ. Long-range planning is generally considered to mean the development of a plan aimed at achieving a policy or set of policies over a period of several years, with the assumption that the projection of (or extrapolation from) the past and current situation is sufficient to ensure the implementation of the future activities. In other words, long-range planning assumes that the environment is stable, while strategic planning assumes that a system must be responsive to a dynamic and changing environment. The term "strategic planning" is meant to capture strategic (comprehensive, holistic, or fundamental) nature of this type of planning. With regard to operational and strategic planning, a narrow definition would *be that strategic planning is done with involvement of high levels of management, while operational planning is done at lower levels*. However, this document proposes to give it a wider definition as shown in the following table.

Table 11.1.1 Operational planning versus strategic planning

	Operational planning	**Strategic planning**
Focus	Routine activities	Achieving goals
Purpose	Achieving the best use of available resources	Planning the best courses of action
Rewards	Efficiency, stability	Effectiveness, impact
Information	Present situation	Future opportunities
Organization	Bureaucratic, stable	Entrepreneurial, flexible
Problem solving	Relies on past experiences	Finds new ways and alternatives
Risks	Low	High

11.2 Language learning planning

Planning for language learning involves planning at a number of levels and these levels mutually influence and inform each other. At the broadest level of planning there is the level of the entire learning experience of a student over a number of years, from their entry into language learning to their exit from it. Individuals may use different levels of planning, different recording methods, but all teachers and practitioners engage in the planning process. The amount of detail in their plans may vary according to their level of experience and expertise, and any expectations and agreed procedures of the school or setting. Most teachers recognize that planning is one of their professional responsibilities because it enables them to ensure: What different kinds of plan do you produce? What kind of plan do you think you should produce? Does everyone produce the same kinds of plan? Should they? In most schools, planning takes place at three levels, but there may be different practices with regard to what is included in each level.

Long-term plans are for the year, outlining which topics will be covered by each class at what time in the year. They will have been done by the class teacher before the autumn term and are usually based on a whole-school curriculum 'map'. This will usually be based on the national curriculum requirements if you are in a public school. Teachers must familiarize themselves with the national curriculum for their subject or year group. For those schools with mixed-age classes, they involve two-year (or longer) cycles of work.

Within the long-term plan, there are sequenced structures in which a group of lessons are developed and related to each other. For many teachers, this planning takes the form of *a unit of work*, which may span a few weeks or a whole term. The unit gives a focus to a series of lessons through a topic or theme which shapes choices about vocabulary, grammar, content, skills, strategies and communicative activities. Units of work are a way of ensuring that a series of lessons have a common thread and construct connections among lessons in terms of the overall content and focus of attention. Units of work themselves need to be framed in a broader context of teaching and learning. A year-long plan would

provide a structure for planning units of work to ensure that the ways in which they are put together develop learning progressively over the course of the year. Such plans establish a coherent, connected focus of learning, with an emphasis on development of learning over time.

Medium-term plans are for the academic term or, more usually, half term, setting out what specific aspect of the curriculum will be covered in week-by-week format. A medium-term plan is usually a planned sequence of work for a subject (or for more than one subject) or area of learning for a period of several weeks, such as a half-term or term. Medium-term planning focuses on organizing coherent units of work around clustered learning objectives and their outcome(s) and on the learning experiences that will enable these to be achieved.

A short-term plan covers a week, a day or a lesson, and consists of the working notes for the structure and content of a planned activity. These may contain details of key questions to ask, teaching strategies and resources, differentiation and assessment opportunities. Some teachers include some of these items in medium-term plans. The exact balance between the details in medium- and short - term plans is something to be decided at school level. Experienced teachers and practitioners often work directly from a medium-term plan and make brief notes, as and when needed, to support their teaching. Such notes focus on learning (e.g. noting specific questions to ask) rather than merely listing activities.

Lesson planning is a significant element of teaching-learning system. A lesson plan is a step-by-step guide that provides a structure for an essential learning. Thus, an organized teacher will always be able to deliver the lesson within the given time frame (during the limited class timings). With the additional time saved, a teacher can give additional attention and time to students that require additional help. Also, there will be a sense of control and direction while teaching. Even if there is confusion amongst the students, the teacher will be able to guide them effectively as the teacher will be well versed with the subject matter and will be able to cater the questions without any stress. A teachers' most important trait is confidence. Lesson planning can help the teacher to be well prepared and be aware of what he/she intends on teaching the students. It can also help the teacher to focus more on the basic knowledge first then take the students towards the next step. The teacher will never stammer or mumble during the lecture because of the timely preparation of the lesson.

Furthermore, the teacher is one of the first few inspirations of a child. Setting a good example of pre-planning can always assist a teacher to become a good inspiration and the confidence with which the teacher delivers the lesson will make the student realize the importance of planning ahead of time and adopt this habit for other disciplines of life. The ethnic diversity in schools is increasing with the passage of time as the people from rural areas have realized the importance of education. Thus, the learning capacity of each student varies from one another. Lesson planning can minimize this understanding gap if the

teacher plans the lesson effectively. This can be done by taking the first step that is, start teaching from the core so that nobody is left behind and that every student is on the same page and then the teacher moves ahead with the topic.

The function of the lesson plan or project of didactic technology is to plan and organize each individual unit course by suggesting concrete activities, techniques and interaction types for the necessary amount of time. Using the textbook as a basic teaching material, the lesson plan follows the curriculum both in terms of contents and objectives. *Time management* is an important component of the lesson plan: it organizes the content of the language course. However, the suggested time management represents only a guide for the teacher along the course and can be changed and adapted according to the concrete conditions imposed the actual practice. If the teacher notices that the students need some more time to learn the item well, he/she should not rush on to the next lesson. If the students get bored, s/he may cut the lesson shorter.

Modern curriculum lays emphasis on the educational *objectives* the teacher targets and the *skills* the students must develop. Although it is recommended that the language course should cover the entire textbook, quality and improvement are more important than quantity acquisition. The teacher should focus on students' ability to use the language meaningfully, functionally, appropriately and strategically. In many cases, teachers are too dependent on the course books today there is nothing to restrict the teacher from using various kinds of materials. If well-guided, the students can also contribute to the lesson, by being allowed to use materials from different sources.

11.3 Planning models

There are three basic approaches to lesson planning:

1.The *linear model* is the traditional approach, according to which the teacher first decides the aims/objectives of the lesson and then selects the classroom activities, which can help best achieve these aims, which are generally formulated in the form SWBAT (students will be able to…) with reference to the vocabulary/ structures to be taught, the specific skills etc. Then the teacher decides on the best ways to achieve these goals.

Advantages of the linear model are: it is visible, easy to implement; the results are predictable; it manages time and resources effectively; it guarantees classroom order and a smoothly flowing; controlled teaching, knowing the objectives helps to prepare for academic assessment.

Disadvantages are: it is too teacher focused, too rigid, inflexible therefore not in line with current trends in education; the focus is on teaching not on learning; it can inhibit unplanned activities and learning.

Modern education aims at *formation* rather than *information,* at the *process* rather than the *product*. In modern world, the *means* to achieve the aims are viewed as more important than the *ends*. Learners must be taught to learn, to locate new information and use it for real-world purposes.

2. The kaleidoscopic model suggests to base lesson planning on a number of interesting and motivating activities. It allows all kind of interactions, both planned and unplanned, to take place. These interactions naturally lead to the fulfillment of the educational goals. This model is learner-centered: the students are allowed to use/bring their own materials according to their personal likes and needs. Students are invited to organize the classroom activities. The teacher should have certain pre-planned activities.

Advantages are*:* it encourages spontaneity, critical thinking and creativity; students can innovate and develop the topic according to their own personality; it can lead the activity towards unexpected conclusions and depths; it accounts for diversity.

Disadvantages are: class management is rather difficult, the teacher may not be able to control the class; if poorly managed, such activities may become chaotic; it is hard to find appropriate ways to assess results; the materials brought by the students may be of low quality.

3. Mixed model consists of combining the advantages of linear and kaleidoscopic models. It offers organization and logical structure, clear objectives and practicality of assessment, encourages creativity, flexibility, innovation and involves students in the educational act.

A lesson or *class* is a structured period of time where learning is intended to occur. It involves one or more students (also called pupils or learners in some circumstances) being taught by a teacher or instructor. The lesson represents the teacher's fundamental unit, the basic opportunity to meet and teach students, to convey information, practice it and assess the results of the activity. The aim of the lesson plan is to organize the entire language course according to the requirements of the curriculum, in terms of contents, functions, skills and activities, and to match the contents with the teaching aims and the material resources available.

A lesson may be either one section of a textbook (which, apart from the printed page, can also include multimedia) or, more frequently, a short period of time during which learners are taught about a particular subject or taught how to perform a particular activity. Lessons are generally taught in a classroom but may instead take place in a situated learning environment. This may be supplemented with gestures and tools. A lesson may range from a lecture to a demonstration, a discussion or a blend of some of these common presentation methods.

At intermediate or advanced stages especially, teachers may periodically decide to have a special *grammar lesson, a reading* or *writing lesson; lessons of*

revision. If the teacher decides to have a reading lesson, speaking or writing cannot be excluded, the main focus is on reading, the students being invited to use various reading techniques. If the teacher considers that students' writing skill needs improvement, the teacher may dedicate a whole lesson to guided writing or academic writing. Special lessons can be dedicated to speaking skills. Lessons of revision aim to give learners a general image of the items studied more or less recently, so revisions are generally introduced at the end of a unit or before a test. While learning a new item, students focus on details and ignore the whole. With revision, they are taught to insert the new info into the overall picture. For example, when Present Perfect is introduced, it should be presented in the context with other tenses, so that the students can compare the tenses and differentiate among them. Such lessons include *a theoretical stage* in which the problem is presented and introduced; *a practical stage* in which the students practice and exercise.

However, the most modern lessons are *combined/mixed*. They include a wide range of activities that target at the development of several language skills within the same lesson. Each type has got constant elements, changing elements and common features, depending on the material to be taught, the aim to be achieved and the methods used. Some lessons may involve work by the student. Traditionally this might include reading and writing or creating something, perhaps when the instructor is not present. The student may work independently or collaborate with others.

More recent technologies have expanded the way a lesson can be delivered. For example, film strips, pre-recorded audio and video tapes, television programs and podcasts are some ways to deliver or add dynamism to a lesson. Distance education techniques such as video conferencing, or electronic learning in a virtual learning environment have allowed interactive lessons to be presented to students who may not be in the same physical location. These tools offer new synchronous, asynchronous and blended ways to deliver lessons. In other words, teachers are "directing" the instructional process or instruction is being "directed" at students. In general usage, the term *direct instruction* refers to (1) instructional approaches that are structured, sequenced, and led by teachers, and/or (2) the presentation of academic content to students by teachers, such as in a lecture or demonstration. The term encompasses a wide variety of fundamental teaching techniques and potential instructional scenarios. For example, presenting a video or film to students could be considered a form of direct instruction.

Generally speaking, direct instruction may be the most common teaching approach in public schools. That said it is important to note that direct instruction may be integrated with any number of other instructional approaches in a given course or lesson. For example, teachers may use direct instruction to prepare students for an activity in which students work collaboratively on a group

project with guidance and coaching from the teacher as needed (the group activity would not be considered a form of direct instruction). In addition, the basic techniques of direct instruction not only extend beyond lecturing, presenting, or demonstrating, but many are considered to be foundational to effective teaching. For example:

- Establishing learning objectives for lessons, activities, and projects, and then making sure that students have understood the goals;
- Purposefully organizing and sequencing a series of lessons, projects, and assignments that move students toward stronger understanding and the achievement of specific academic goals;
- Reviewing instructions for an activity or modeling a process—such as a scientific experiment—so that students know what they are expected to do;
- Providing students with clear explanations, descriptions, and illustrations of the knowledge and skills being taught;
- Asking questions to make sure that students have understood what has been taught.

In recent decades, the concept of direct instruction has taken on negative associations among some educators. Because direct instruction is often associated with traditional lecture-style teaching to classrooms full of passive students obediently sitting in desks and taking notes, it may be considered outdated, pedantic, or insufficiently considerate of student learning needs by some educators and reformers. Many of direct instruction's negative connotations likely result from either a limited definition of the concept or a misunderstanding of its techniques. For example, all teachers, by necessity, use some form of direct instruction in their teaching, for example, preparing courses and lessons, presenting and demonstrating information, and providing clear explanations and illustrations of concepts are all essential, and to some degree unavoidable, teaching activities. Negative perceptions of the practice tend to arise when teachers rely too heavily upon direct instruction, or when they fail to use alternative techniques that may be better suited to the lesson at hand or that may improve student interest, engagement, and comprehension.

11.4 Differentiated instruction and learning

Differentiated instruction and *assessment*, also known as *differentiated learning* or, in education, simply, differentiation, is a framework or philosophy for effective teaching that involves providing all students within their diverse classroom community of learners a range of different avenues for understanding new information (often in the same classroom) in terms of: acquiring content; processing, constructing, or making sense of ideas; developing teaching materials and assessment measures so that all students within a classroom can learn

effectively, regardless of differences in their ability. Students vary in culture, socioeconomic status, language, gender, motivation, ability/ disability, learning styles, personal interests and more, and teachers must be aware of these varieties as they plan in accordance with the curricula.

By considering varied learning needs, teachers can develop personalized instruction so that all children in the classroom can learn effectively. Differentiated classrooms have also been described as ones that respond to student variety in readiness levels, interests, and learning profiles. It is a classroom that includes and allows all students to be successful. To do this, a teacher sets different expectations for task completion for students, specifically based upon their individual needs. Schools, guidance counselors, and other educational specialists may employ a wide variety of educational methods, from intentionally cultivating strong and trusting student-adult relationships to modifying assignments and instructional strategies in the classroom to entirely redesigning the ways in which students are grouped and taught in a school.

At its most basic level, differentiation consists of the efforts of teachers to respond to variance among learners in the classroom. Whenever a teacher reaches out to an individual or small group to vary his/her teaching in order to create the best learning experience possible, that teacher is differentiating instruction. Teachers can differentiate at least four classroom elements based on student readiness, interest, or learning profile:

- *Content* – what the student needs to learn or how the student will get access to the information. Examples of differentiating content at the elementary level include the following:

1. Using reading materials at varying readability levels;
2. Putting text materials on tape;
3. Using spelling or vocabulary lists at readiness levels of students;
4. Presenting ideas through both auditory and visual means;
5. Using reading buddies;
6. Meeting with small groups to re-teach an idea or skill for struggling learners, or to extend the thinking or skills of advanced learners.

- *Process* – activities in which the student engages in order to make sense of or master the content. Examples of differentiating process or activities at the elementary level include the following:

1. Using tiered activities through which all learners work with the same important understandings and skills, but proceed with different levels of support, challenge, or complexity;
2. Providing interest centers that encourage students to explore subsets of the class topic of particular interest to them;
3. Developing personal agendas (task lists written by the teacher and containing both in-common work for the whole class and work that addresses

individual needs of learners) to be completed either during specified agenda time or as students complete other work early;
4. Offering manipulatives or other hands-on supports for students who need them;
5. Varying the length of time a student may take to complete a task in order to provide additional support for a struggling learner or to encourage an advanced learner to pursue a topic in greater depth.

➢ *Products* – culminating projects that ask the student to rehearse, apply, and extend what he or she has learned in a unit. Examples of differentiating products at the elementary level include the following:

1. Giving students options of how to express required learning (e.g. create a puppet show, write a letter, or develop a mural with labels);
2. Using rubrics that match and extend students' varied skills levels;
3. Allowing students to work alone or in small groups on their products;
4. Encouraging students to create their own product assignments as long as the assignments contain required elements.

➢ *Learning environment* – the way the classroom works and feels. Examples of differentiating learning environment at the elementary level include:

1. Making sure there are places in the room to work quietly and without distraction, as well as places that invite student collaboration;
2. Providing materials that reflect a variety of cultures and home settings;
3. Setting out clear guidelines for independent work that matches individual needs;
4. Developing routines that allow students to get help when teachers are busy with other students and cannot help them immediately; and
5. Helping students understand that some learners need to move around to learn, while others do better sitting quietly.

The following representative examples will help illustrate the concept. Schools and educators might personalize learning for students by:

- Reconfiguring the operational and educational structure of a large school so that students are organized into smaller groups and paired with a consistent team of teachers who get to know the students and their learning needs well. This strategy takes a wide variety, the most common approaches are "smaller learning communities," teaming, themed-based academies, or "schools-within-a-school"—an approach that involves the creation of distinct academic programmes, or "schools," within the operational structure of larger school.
- Schools may create or offer students a variety of learning pathways, i.e. a wider and more diverse selection of learning experiences. Common examples include career-related internships that allow students to satisfy school graduation requirements or meet state-required learning standards; or

independent-study projects, which allow students to self-design learning experiences in collaboration with a teacher, mentor, or advisor.

- Students may create and maintain personal learning plans, which describe their academic, collegiate, and career goals, while mapping out the educational decisions they need to make to achieve their goals, or portfolios, which are a cumulative record of a student's academic work and accomplishments. Teachers, advisors, and educational specialists may use these plans and portfolios to guide how they teach and support specific students.
- Replacing more traditional homeroom periods or study halls with advisories—time in the school day for educators to meet with small groups of students and advise them on academic, social, and postsecondary-planning issues. Students may also be paired with advisors, adult mentors, or peer mentors who meet regularly with students over the course of several months, a year, or multiple years to help them acclimate to a school, navigate educational options, or plan for higher education and careers after graduation.
- Using alternative educational approaches and instructional methods—such as authentic learning, blended learning, community-based learning, or project-based learning that may give students more personal choice in their education and more opportunities pursue learning experiences that reflect their personal interests, career aspirations, or cultural heritage. Increasingly, a variety of digital and online learning options are being used to personalize learning for students.
- Increasing the level of choice and personal responsibility students have in the instructional process. The concept of "student voice" refers to the values, opinions, beliefs, perspectives, and cultural backgrounds of individual students and groups of students in a school, and to instructional approaches and techniques that are based on student choices, interests, passions, and ambitions. As an alternative to more traditional forms of instruction in which teachers may make unilateral decisions with little or no input from students, introducing more student voice into the learning process in one way to personalize learning.

11.5 Project-based learning (PBL)

Project-based learning refers to any programmatic or instructional approach that utilizes multifaceted projects as a central organizing strategy for educating students. When engaged in project-based learning, students will typically be assigned a project or series of projects that require them to use diverse skills such as researching, writing, interviewing, collaborating, or public speaking—

to produce various work products, such as research papers, scientific studies, public-policy proposals, multimedia presentations, video documentaries, art installations, or musical and theatrical performances, for example. Unlike many tests, homework assignments, and other more traditional forms of academic coursework, the execution and completion of a project may take several weeks or months, or it may even unfold over the course of a semester or year.

Closely related to the concept of authentic learning, project-based learning experiences are often designed to address real-world problems and issues, which require students to investigate and analyze their complexities, interconnections, and ambiguities (i.e. There may be no "right" or "wrong" answers in a project-based learning assignment). For this reason, project-based learning may be called *inquiry - based learning* or *learning by doing*, since the learning process is integral to the knowledge and skills students acquire.

In project-based learning, students are usually given a general question to answer, a concrete problem to solve, or an in-depth issue to explore. Teachers may then encourage students to choose specific topics that interest or inspire them, such as projects related to their personal interests or career aspirations. For example, a student interested in farming may explore the creation of a school garden that produces food as a learning opportunity for students, while another student may choose to research health concerns related to specific food items served in the cafeteria, and then create posters or a video to raise awareness among students and staff in the school.

Students also typically learn about topics or produce work that integrates multiple academic subjects and skill areas. For example, students may be assigned to complete a project on a local natural ecosystem and produce work that investigates its history, species diversity, and social, economic, and environmental implications for the community. In this case, even if the project is assigned in a science course, students may be required to read and write extensively (English); research local history using texts, news stories, archival photos, and public records (history and social studies); conduct and record first-hand scientific observations, including the analysis and tabulation of data (science and math); and develop a public-policy proposal for the conservation of the ecosystem (civics and government) that will be presented to the city council utilizing multimedia technologies and software applications (technology).

In public schools, the projects, including the work products created by students and the assessments they complete, will be based on the same state learning standards that apply to other methods of instruction, i.e. the projects will be specifically designed to ensure that students meet expected learning standards. While students work on a project, teachers typically assess student learning progress, including the achievement of specific learning standards using a variety of methods, such as portfolios, demonstrations of learn-

ing, or rubrics. While the learning process may be more student-directed than some traditional learning experiences, such as lectures or quizzes, teachers still provide ongoing instruction, guidance, and academic support to students. In many cases, adult mentors, advisers, or experts from the local community—such as scientists, elected officials, or business leaders may be involved in the design of project-based experiences, mentor students throughout the process, or participate on panels that review and evaluate the final projects in collaboration with teachers.

As a reform strategy, project-based learning may become an object of debate. Schools that decide to adopt project-based learning as an additional method of instruction are more likely to encounter difficulties or resistance. The instructional nuances of project-based learning can also become a source of confusion and misunderstanding, given that the approach represents a fairly significant departure from more familiar conceptions of schooling. The following are a few representative examples of the kinds of arguments typically made by advocates of project-based learning:

- Project-based learning gives students a more "integrated" understanding of the concepts and knowledge they learn, while also equipping them with practical skills they can apply throughout their lives. The interdisciplinary nature of project-based learning helps students make connections across different subjects, rather than perceiving, for example, math and science as discrete subjects with little in common.
- Because project-based learning mirrors the real-world situations students will encounter after they leave school, it can provide stronger and more relevant preparation for college and work. Student not only acquire important knowledge and skills, they also learn how to research complex issues, solve problems, develop plans, manage time, organize their work, collaborate with others, and persevere and overcome challenges, for example.
- Project-based learning reflects the ways in which today's students learn. It can improve student engagement in school, increase their interest in what is being taught, strengthen their motivation to learn, and make learning experiences more relevant and meaningful.
- Since project-based learning represents a more flexible approach to instruction, it allows teachers to tailor assignments and projects for students with a diverse variety of interests, career aspirations, learning styles, abilities, and personal backgrounds.
- Project-based learning allows teachers and students to address multiple learning standards simultaneously. Rather than only meeting math standards in math classes and science standards in science classes, students can work progressively toward demonstrating proficiency in a variety of standards while working on a single project or series of projects.

The following are few representative examples of the kinds of arguments that may be made by critics of project-based learning:

- Project-based learning may not ensure that students learn all the required material and standards they are expected to learn in a course, subject area, or grade level. When a variety of subjects are lumped together, it's more difficult for teachers to monitor and assess what students have learned in specific academic subjects.
- Many teachers will not have the time or specialized training required to use project-based learning effectively. The approach places greater demands on teachers from course preparation and instructional methods to the evaluation of learning progress and schools may not have the funding, resources, and capacity they need to adopt a project-based-learning model.
- The projects that students select and design may vary widely in academic rigor and quality. Project-based learning could open the door to watered-down learning expectations and low-quality coursework.
- Project-based learning is not well suited to students who lack self-motivation or who struggle in less-structured learning environments.
- Project-based learning raises a variety of logistical concerns, since students are more likely to learn outside of school or in unsupervised settings, or to work with adults who are not trained educators.

A solution might be to start doing projects in a course, then making connections with other subjects in order to meet requisite instructional criteria of interdisciplinarity and integration.

REFLECTION

1. What should be the relation between academic, social and linguistic demands of a lesson?
2. State 3 reasons why planning is important for a successful lesson.
3. How does a differentiated classroom look?
4. How can a teacher gather evidence of student readiness, interest, or learning profile?
5. Why is PBL considered more difficult to deal with?
6. How can be effectively assessed not only the final result of a project, but also soft skills along the way?

TASKS FOR INDEPENDENT WORK

Project work - PBL

1. Students work on a sample of educational project over an extended period

of time – from a week up to a month – that engages them in solving a real-world problem or answering a complex question related to issues of intercultural education.
2. They demonstrate their knowledge and skills by creating a public product or presentation for a real audience.
3. Students can use https://bookcreator.com/ or https://padlet.com/ to present their final product.

UNIT 12.
PLANNING A LESSON. PART 2

12.1 Preparing a lesson plan

A *lesson plan* is a teacher's detailed description of the course of instruction or "learning trajectory" for a lesson. A daily lesson plan is developed by a teacher to guide class learning. Details will vary depending on the preference of the teacher, subject being covered, and the needs of the students. There may be requirements mandated by the school system regarding the plan.

A lesson plan is the teacher's guide for running a particular lesson, and it includes the goal (what the students are supposed to learn), how the goal will be reached (the method, procedure) and a way of measuring how well the goal was reached (test, worksheet, homework etc.).

The lesson plan must be viewed as an outline describing briefly the basic contents and techniques the teacher intends to use within the class so as to achieve the educational aims. It also describes the practiced functions, the main types of interaction, the audio-visual resources, evaluation techniques etc. There is no unique, generally accepted format of the lesson plan. It is usually recommended that the teacher borrow a model plan and adapt it to his/her needs. No lesson plan can be used twice, in exactly the same way: if the teacher allows spontaneity and innovation, then s/he can't possibly predict where an activity might take the lesson. A successful lesson plan addresses and integrates three key components:

1. Learning objectives;
2. Learning activities;
3. Assessment to check for student understanding.

Before the actual delivery of a lesson, teachers engage in a planning process. During this process, they determine *the lesson topic* (the topic should derive from national standards). From the topic derive the *lesson objectives* or desired results–the concepts and ideas that learners are expected to develop and the specific knowledge and skills that learners are expected to acquire and use at the end of the lesson.

1. Identify the learning objectives (units of competence)

Before planning a lesson, teachers first need to identify the learning objectives for the lesson. A *learning objective (units of competence)* describes what the learner will know or be able to do after the learning experience rather than what the learner will be exposed to during the instruction (i.e. topics). Typically, it is written in a language that is easily understood by students and clearly relat-

ed to the program learning outcomes. Objectives are critical to effective instruction, because they help instructors plan the instructional strategies and activities they will use, including the materials and resources to support learning. For each objective, it is important to start with an action that relates to what students should be able to do after the lesson. The table below contains the characteristics of clear learning objectives:

Table 12.1.1 Characteristics of learning objectives

Characteristic	**Question**	**Description**
Clearly stated tasks	Is the objective specific?	Free from jargon and complex vocabulary; describe specific and achievable tasks (such as 'describe', 'analyze' or 'evaluate') NOT vague tasks (like 'appreciate', 'understand' or 'explore').
Important learning goals	Is the goal really important	Describe the essential (rather than trivial) learning in the course which a student must achieve.
Achievable	Is the objective attainable by all students?	Can be achieved within the given period and sufficient resources are available.
Demonstrable and measurable	Is the objective measurable?	Can be demonstrated in a tangible way; are assessable; achievement and quality of achievement can be observed.
Fair and equitable	Is the objective relevant to your class and students?	All students, including those with disabilities or constraints, have a fair chance of achieving them.
Linked to course and programme objectives	Is the objective time-based to align with your curriculum?	Consider the broader goals - i.e. course, programme and institutional goals.

2. Plan the specific learning activities

When planning learning activities teachers should consider the types of activities students will need to engage in, in order to develop the skills and knowledge required to demonstrate effective learning in the course. Learning activities should be directly related to the learning objectives of the course, and provide experiences that will enable students to engage in, practice, and gain feedback on specific progress towards those objectives. As teachers plan their learning activities, they estimate how much time they will spend on each. Teachers build in time for extended explanation or discussion, but also should be prepared to move on quickly to different applications or problems, and to identify strategies

that check for understanding. Some questions to think about as they design the learning activities they will use are:

- What will I do to explain the topic?
- What will I do to illustrate the topic in a different way?
- How can I engage students in the topic?
- What are some relevant real-life examples, analogies, or situations that can help students understand the topic?
- What will students need to do to help them understand the topic better?

Since the lesson reflects the needs of the students, the objectives of the curriculum and syllabus, the teacher must think first of all what s/he wants to achieve with that specific lesson. While the aims describe the teacher`s general goal (e.g. to develop students skimming skill), the objectives are more specific and describe in detail what the teacher wants to achieve within a certain lesson. The teacher should formulate the lesson objectives specifically and separately.

3. Plan the lesson materials

Instructional materials, also known as *teaching/learning materials*, are any collection of materials including animate and inanimate objects and human and non-human resources that a teacher may use in teaching and learning situations to help achieve desired learning objectives. Instructional materials may aid a student in concretizing a learning experience so as to make learning more exciting, interesting and interactive. They are tools used in instructional activities, which include active learning and assessment. The term encompasses all the materials and physical means an instructor might use to implement instruction and facilitate students' achievement of instructional objectives. Instructional materials can be classified by type, including print, visual, and audiovisual, among others:

Table 12.1.2 Types of instructional materials

Print	textbooks, pamphlets, handouts, study guides, manuals
Audio	cassettes, microphone, podcast
Visual	charts, real objects, photographs, transparencies
Audiovisual	slides, tapes, films, filmstrips, television, video, multimedia
Electronic Interactive	computers, graphing calculators, tablets

Studies suggest that textbooks and similar materials (workbooks, exercise books) can increase student learning. The two most consistent characteristics in improving student performance are the availability of LTM, and well trained, prepared, supervised and motivated teachers. Since providing textbooks is cheaper than training and motivating teachers, textbooks are the most cost ef-

fective of all education inputs on student achievement. However, many conditions need to be met for LTM to enhance learning. For textbooks to be effective, they must be regularly used in class, be in a language that is widely understood by both students and teachers and improve teacher–learner interaction. Here are some definitions and practical considerations:

- *Textbooks* are the most visible aspects of a curriculum and are often considered the main script that shapes the teaching and learning processes (UNESCO, 2017). Quality textbook development and provision involves four main steps: development (based on curricular frameworks); procurement systems (state or private sector, approved textbooks list); distribution and access (arrival in schools, issuance to students); and storage and conservation.
- *Teachers' guides* support teachers in their teaching practices. Effective teachers' guides should: contain explicit communication of conceptual goals with links to proposed activities, provide knowledge and support to help understand and implement teaching plans, reinforce pedagogical content knowledge, give guidance on the practice and understanding of relevant pedagogical activities, present alternatives and freedom of choice, and engage teachers in ongoing reflection.
- *Supplementary materials* include books, newspapers, informational pamphlets, and other materials printed in mother tongue and instructional languages reflecting local customs and concerns. They enrich teaching, engage students in multi-dimensional learning, build students' abilities to apply their knowledge, and are thus critical for literacy outcomes (Read, 2015). Studies show that investments in reading books and school libraries have an even greater correlation with increases in student achievement in lower grades than investments in textbook provision.
- *Multimedia and digital resources* are a growing source of knowledge for teachers and learners. Several studies show that greater access to information and communication technologies in schools can help reduce the digital divide between low- and high-income groups (UNESCO, 2014a; Jacob, 2016). The digital era has challenged conventional textbook practices. Textbooks need updating more frequently and need to support collaborative and interactive pedagogical methods (Smart and Jagannathan, 2018).

4. Create a realistic timeline

A list of ten learning objectives is not realistic, so teachers should narrow down their list to the two or three key concepts, ideas, or skills they want students to learn in the lesson. The list of prioritized learning objectives will help make decisions on the spot and adjust the lesson plan as needed. Here are some strategies for creating a realistic timeline:

- Estimate how much time each of the activities will take, then plan some extra time for each.
- When you prepare your lesson plan, next to each activity indicate how much time you expect it will take.
- Plan a few minutes at the end of class to answer any remaining questions and to sum up key points.
- Plan an extra activity or discussion question in case you have time left.
- Be flexible – be ready to adjust your lesson plan to students' needs and focus on what seems to be more productive rather than sticking to your original plan.

5. Plan to assess students' understanding

Assessments (e.g., tests, papers, problem sets, performances) provide opportunities for students to demonstrate and practice the knowledge and skills articulated in the learning objectives, and for instructors to offer targeted feedback that can guide further learning. Planning for assessment allows teachers to find out whether their students are learning. It involves making decisions about:

- The number and type of assessment tasks that will best enable students to demonstrate learning objectives for the lesson: examples of different assessments, formative and/or summative;
- The criteria and standards that will be used to make assessment judgements: grades/points;
- Students' roles in the assessment process: self-assessment/peer assessment;
- The weighting of individual assessment tasks and the method by which individual task judgements will be combined into a final grade for the course: the information about how various tasks are to be weighted and combined into an overall grade must be provided to students
- Provision of feedback: giving feedback to students on how to improve their learning, as well as giving feedback to instructors how to refine their teaching.

6. Plan for a lesson closure

Lesson closure provides an opportunity to solidify student learning. Lesson closure is useful for both instructors and students. Closure can be use to:

- Check for student understanding and inform subsequent instruction (adjust their teaching accordingly);
- Emphasize key information;
- Tie up loose ends;
- Correct students' misunderstandings;
- Preview upcoming topics.

Students will find closure helpful for:

- Summarizing, reviewing, and demonstrating their understanding of major points;
- Consolidating and internalizing key information;
- Linking lesson ideas to a conceptual framework and/or previously-learned knowledge;
- Transferring ideas to new situations.

There are several ways of a closure of the lesson:

1. To state the main points ("Today we talked about…");
2. To ask a student to help summarize them;
3. To ask all students to write down on a piece of paper what they think were the main points of the lesson.

12.2 Lesson plan formats

Creating a reliable lesson plan is an important part of classroom management. Doing so requires the ability to incorporate effective strategies into the classroom, the students and overall environment. There are many different types of lesson plans and ways of creating them. Teachers can encourage critical thinking in a group setting by creating plans that include the students participating collectively. Teachers need to realize the wide range of strategies that can be used to maintain classroom management and students. They should find the best strategies to incorporate in their lesson planning for their specific grade, student type, teaching style, etc. and utilize them to their advantage. The classroom tends to flow better when the teacher has a proper lesson planned, as it provides structure for the students. While there are many formats for a lesson plan, most lesson plans contain some or all of these elements, typically in this order:

- Title of the lesson;
- *Grade/Level;*
- *Time* required to complete the lesson;
- List of required *materials;*
- List of *objectives*, which may be *behavioral objectives* (what the student can *do* at lesson completion) or *knowledge objectives* (what the student *knows* at lesson completion);
- The *set* (or lead-in, or bridge-in) that focuses students on the lesson's skills or concepts—these include showing pictures or models, asking leading questions, or reviewing previous lessons;
- An *instructional component* that describes the sequence of events that make up the lesson, including the teacher's instructional input and, where appropriate, guided practice by students to consolidate new skills and ideas;

- *Independent practice* that allows students to extend skills or knowledge on their own;
- A *summary*, where the teacher wraps up the discussion and answers questions;
- An *evaluation* component, a test for mastery of the instructed skills or concepts—such as a set of questions to answer or a set of instructions to follow;
- A *risk assessment* where the lesson's risks and the steps taken to minimize them are documented;
- An *analysis* component the teacher uses to reflect on the lesson itself—such as what worked and what needs improving;
- A *continuity* component reviews and reflects on content from the previous lesson.

Table 12.2.1 Project sample 1

Didactic project of a lesson unit
Lesson unit: _____
Nr. of hours: _____

Units of competence	Content	Time	LTM	Assessment	Notes

Table 12.2.2 Project sample 2

Date	Content	Type of the lesson	Units of competence	Stages of the lesson	Content and resources	Techniques	Assessment
				Warm-up			
				Presentation of the new content			
				Practice			
				Reflection			

12.3 Stages of a lesson

To understand the best ways to help English language learners, and to differentiate instruction based on their language acquisition needs, it is important to understand that not all students learning English need the same scaffolds, the same types of instruction, or the same performance tasks. What they need depends on which stage of language acquisition they are in. While people don't fit

into boxes, and language learning is a fluid process, it truly helps to understand the stages of language acquisition and assess where the students are to tailor instruction based on their language needs.

1. Warm-up/ Review/Pre-activity

Purpose:

- To gain attention;
- Raising students' motivation and interest in the topic;
- To focus on the language items that might be useful in the activity;
- To assess/review prior knowledge by reviewing previous materials relevant to the current lesson.

Recommended activities:

- Presentation of a story or a problem to be solved;
- Use of ice breaker activities, current news and events, case studies, YouTube videos; the objective is to quickly grab student attention and interest in the topic;
- Use of technologies such as clickers, and surveys to ask leading questions prior to lecture, survey opinion, or gain a response to a controversial question;
- Recall of events from previous lecture, integrate results of activities into the current topic, and/or relate previous information to the current topic.

2. Introduction

Purpose:

- To provide a broad overview of the content and concepts to be taught and focuses the learners' attention on the new lesson;
- To allow students to organize their thoughts regarding what they are about to see, hear or do;
- To develop a creative introduction to the topic to stimulate interest and encourage thinking.

Recommended activities:

- Including learning objectives in lecture slides and in instructions for activities, projects and papers;
- Describe the required performance;
- Describe the criteria for standard performance;
- Set a purpose and describe the overarching reason for this lesson;
- Introduction of the key concepts, topic, main idea. Get students on the right track. This step may be a note on the board, a diagram, or a probing question of the day's lesson focus;
- Pulling students into the excitement of learning. Seize students' attention with items like an amazing fact, a funny quirk, a challenge, or other mind tickler;

- Make the learning relevant. Explain how this lesson extends past learning and leads to future learning—that is, the significance of the concepts, skills, and focus of the lesson.

3. Presentation of the new content/ Learn and practice

Purpose:
- To provide teacher input;
- To teach new concepts and the new lesson content;

Recommended activities:
- Presenting the body of the new lesson;
- Create an activity to introduce the concept or skill (e.g., introduce new vocabulary by asking learners to work in groups to identify words related to taking medications);
- Introduce information through a variety of modalities using visuals, realia, description, explanation, and written text;
- Sequence and chunk the information to avoid cognitive overload;
- Blend the information to aid in information recall;
- Model varied learning strategies – mnemonics, concept mapping, role playing, visualizing;
- Use examples and non-examples;
- Bloom's revised taxonomy can be used to help sequence the lesson by helping you chunk them into levels of difficulty;
- Check for understanding with sample problems, situations, questions.

4. Practice/Reinforce

Purpose:
- To model the skills and provide opportunities for guided practice;
- To allow students to apply knowledge and skills learned;
- To supervise students' independent practice.

Recommended activities:
- Allow students to apply knowledge in group or individual activities;
- Ask deep-learning questions, make reference to what students already know or have students collaborate with their peers;
- Ask students to recite, revisit, or reiterate information they have learned;
- Facilitate student elaborations – ask students to elaborate or explain details and provide more complexity to their responses;
- Provide time for practice and review;
- Select additional strategies for small groups of students who still do not "get it";
- Integrate technology into activities as available.

5. Provide feedback/Reflection/Post activity

Purpose:

- To provide immediate feedback of students' performance to assess and facilitate learning.

Recommended activities:

- To consider using group / class level feedback (highlighting common errors, give examples or models of target performance, show students what you do not want);
- To consider implementing peer feedback;
- To require students to specify how they used feedback in subsequent works.

6. Assess performance

Purpose:

- To evaluate the effectiveness of the instructional events, test to see if the expected learning outcomes have been achieved. Performance should be based on previously stated objectives.

Recommended activities:

- Use a variety of assessment methods including exams/quizzes, written assignments, projects, quizzes. hands-on activities, Group presentations, exit slips, class journal entries;
- Assessment method may be an in-class assignment or homework for students to complete prior to the next class;
- Formative assessment forms don't always need to be graded.

7. Closure

Purpose:

- To bring the lesson to closure.

Recommended activities:

- Link the lesson phases and information together.
- Summarize the learning of the day, and discuss how it fits into the big vision for learning.
- Have students demonstrate what they know and can do by writing a brief note to hand in as they leave; the note may include questions, problems, or ideas on the learning.

8. After the class

Purpose:

- Reflection on lesson plan.

Recommended activities:

- Take a few minutes after each class to reflect on what worked well and why, and what could have been done differently;

- Identifying successful and less successful organization of class time and activities would make it easier to adjust to the contingencies of the classroom;
- If needed, revise the lesson plan;
- Record ideas for improvement or adjustments.

Lesson plans are linked day to day, week to week, throughout the year. Teaching and lesson plans are a continuing process that when placed together create a larger product—a unit of integrated study.

12.4 Classroom interaction and organization

Interaction plays an important role in second language learning. Interaction among learners and interaction between learners and teachers both are equally important. It is true that in a language class interaction has a great influence on learning. Time and effort are also needed to develop interaction. When students are observing, doing, communicating, and reflecting, they are actively working with concepts and people. These activities are described as interactions. Interaction is at the center of the teaching and learning process.

Languages classrooms are fundamentally interactive. Studies of classroom interaction have tended to focus on the organization of talk in the classroom and on identifying structures, such as the initiation-response-feedback structure of teacher-student. Much work in Communicative Language Teaching has also focused on the idea that classroom interactions should be 'natural', by which it is assumed that they will resemble conversations in a number of ways: unequal participation, the negotiation of meaning, topic nomination and negotiation by more than one speaker, and the right of interlocutors to decide whether to contribute to an interaction or not. Such studies assume that language instruction is enhanced by certain ways of talking designed to provide students with opportunities for original utterances in the target language, clarifying the meaning of units of language, and modelling grammatically correct versions of learners' talk.

More recent understandings of interaction, and its roles and purpose in teaching and learning, see it as more than just the exchange of target language talk. Interaction is fundamentally a social process of meaning-making and interpreting, and the educational value of interaction grows out of developing and elaborating interaction as a social process. It is through interaction that learners engage with ideas and concepts and the diverse interpretations and understandings of these held by their interlocutors. In interaction, the participant is both performer and analyzer of what is happening. Educationally purposeful interaction must engage the learner in both roles. Understanding communication as a social process does not simply mean that language is used for 'socializing', it

means that there is a social purpose for the interaction. In classrooms, the social purpose of interaction is related to learning, through the discussion of ideas, insights and interpretations. Classroom interaction is more than a simulation of everyday interaction: it is interaction with learning as its central concern.

A social view of interaction also means considering the participants in interaction in different ways. It involves interactions between teachers and students and between students and teachers, between students, between students and others (including the voices of others as they are encountered through texts, video, digital technologies, etc). Interactions need to bring opportunities to students to explore their ideas, interpretations and reactions as they encounter the ideas, interpretations and reactions of others. Such learning involves:

- Using language as a starting point for interaction to generate ideas, interpretations and responses;
- Seeking opinions and the reasoning behind these;
- Probing responses to elaborate deeper and more complex understandings;
- Drawing out, analyzing and building on personal experiences;
- Eliciting variability in contributions, and engaging with the diversity found as a resource;
- Engaging in open dialogues between participants in which all have opportunities to explore their own perceptions and understanding;
- Developing language abilities to meet interactional needs rather than limiting interactional opportunities to current language capabilities.

In the language classroom, language provides the starting point for learning and interactional language contributes directly to the nature and quality of the learning. This effectiveness is not simply a product of the amount of talk, but is influenced fundamentally by the quality of the talk. Talk needs to be *about* something and the substance of the talk needs to have value in its own right. In planning for interaction, teachers plan the sorts of things that students will be able to say, whether in speaking or in writing. More important is what sorts of ideas teachers will be able to explore.

Teacher Explaining

Explanations are a typical element of teacher talk in which teachers introduce new concepts or information for students to assimilate into their own knowledge. In providing an explanation, a teacher is the sole source of the information being delivered and the teacher's authority is the sole validation of the information. Explanations are mostly monologues and may occupy an extensive period of class time. During an explanation, students are often expected to be passive receivers of the information being provided by the teachers, although they may be encouraged to seek clarification if they do not understand aspects of the ex-

planation. As a part of any instructional approach, explanations need to be interactive to promote active forms of engagement with the material by students. Concepts can be introduced in other ways which allow learners the possibility of constructing, exploring and expressing their own interpretations of the material to which they are exposed. Where learners are given experiences of meaningful communication in the target language in which ideas, attitudes or perspectives of others are present, these can be used as a starting point for exploration in which learners actively construct their own knowledge about the concept. The process is interactive in multiple senses. It involves interactions between students and the originator of the text in which they make interpretations of the language and its meaning for themselves. It needs to be guided interactively by teachers as they scaffold the processes of assembling and interpretation through questions, hints, reminders and modelling. Ideally, it should also involve opportunities for students to interact in developing and refining their interpretations, in communicating their interpretations to others and in commenting on and reflecting on the interpretations of others. While an explanation delivers information which needs to be remembered, the interactive investigation of information provides opportunities and processes for developing learners' understandings of the material.

Scaffolding learning

Scaffolding is the process by which teachers use particular conceptual, material and linguistic tools and technologies to support student learning. Scaffolding can be used at any point of interaction between teachers and students – at the point of providing inputs and explanations, through to modelling, interacting and assessing. Scaffolding might include:

- Explaining a new concept through a concept map;
- Making deliberate comparisons with the first language and culture;
- Focusing on particular words to develop a meta-language;
- Providing and explicating fruitful examples; asking students to notice particular aspects/features;
- Highlighting patterns, choices;
- Elaborating on an initial explanation;
- Using questions to probe students' conceptions and prompt them to describe their interpretations and challenge their opinions;
- Using various ways of representing ideas and concepts (eg visuals, diagrams, organizers, highlighting, various media and technologies);
- Feedback that relates to improvement.

Through interactive talk, ongoing dialogue, rich, formative questioning, and careful listening and reading, teachers constantly judge what kinds of scaffolds are appropriate and how much scaffolding is appropriate for individual learners.

Teachers monitor student responses and find ways to ensure that students *make personal meaning* of their experiences and develop a fuller understanding. This dialogue and questioning not only involves teacher-to-students and students-to-teacher interaction, but also peer-discussion. The teacher's role is to encourage students to try to answer questions, ask more of their own and *listen* carefully to and build upon the responses of peers. Scaffolding involves using a range of conceptual, material and linguistic tools and technologies to lead students towards understanding. These are the most common interaction patterns in an ESL classroom:

- *T–Ss*. Teacher talking to the whole class, such as in presenting a text, explaining grammar, giving instructions for an activity;
- *T–S*. Questions and answers (dialogues) between the teacher and a student, such as in demonstration, checking comprehension;
- *T-S–S*. Teacher initiates dialogues with more than one student, such as in role-playing demonstration and warm-up activities;
- *S–T*. Student initiates conversation between a student and the teacher, such as in asking questions about a rule or an assignment;
- *S-Ss*. One student talking to the whole class, such as in telling a story, reciting a poem;
- *Ss/Ss*. Students working in small groups, such as practicing conversation, role-playing;
- *S-S*. Two students work in pairs such as practicing a dialogue, carrying out an information gap activity;
- *SS*. Students doing their work individually such as reading, completing an exercise.

There are several interaction types so the instructor must decide about whole-class, small groups, workshops, independent work, peer learning, or contractual:

- *Whole-class*. The teacher lectures to the class as a whole and has the class collectively to participate in classroom discussions.
- *Small groups*. Students work on assignments in groups of three or four on tasks that entail interaction; conveying information, for example, or group decision-making. The teacher walks around listening, intervenes little if at all.
- *Workshops*. Students perform various tasks simultaneously. Workshop activities must be tailored to the lesson plan.
- *Independent/individual work*. Students complete assignments individually. The teacher walks around monitoring and assisting where necessary.
- *Peer learning*. Students work together, face to face, so they can learn from one another.
- *Contractual work*. The teacher and student establish an agreement that the student must perform a certain amount of work by a deadline.

- *Full-class interaction*. The students debate a topic or perform a language task as a class; the teacher may intervene occasionally, to stimulate participation or to monitor.

Many activities can be used to engage learners. The activity types (i.e. what the student is doing) and their examples provided below are by no means an exhaustive list, but will help you in thinking through how best to design and deliver high impact learning experiences for your students in a typical lesson.

Table 12.4.1 Types of activities and related techniques' description

Activity type	Learning activity/ Technique	Description
1. Interaction with content It includes students' concrete interactions with the course materials and their more abstract interactions with the concepts and ideas they present. Students are more likely to retain information presented in these ways if they are asked to interact with the material in some way.	**Drill and practice**	Problem/task is presented to students where they are asked to provide the answer; may be timed or untimed
	Lecture	Convey concepts verbally, often with visual aids (e.g. presentation slides)
	Quiz	Exercise to assess the level of student understanding and questions can take many forms, e.g. multiple-choice, short-structured, essay, etc.
	Student presentation	Oral report where students share their research on a topic and take on a position and/or role
2. Interaction with digital content Students experiment with decision making, and visualize the effects and/or consequences in virtual environments.	**Game**	Goal-oriented exercise that encourages collaboration and/or competition within a controlled virtual environment
	Simulation	Replica or representation of a real-world phenomenon that enables relationships, contexts, and concepts to be studied
3.Interaction with others Peer relationships, informal support structures, and teacher-student interactions/relationships	**Debate**	Verbal activity in which two or more differing viewpoints on a subject are presented and argued
	Discussion	Formal/informal conversation on a given topic/question where the instructor facilitates student sharing of responses to the questions, and building upon those responses
	Feedback	Information provided by the instructor and/or peer(s) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding
	Guest speaker	Feelings, thoughts, ideas and experiences specific to a given topic are shared by an invited presenter

4.Problem solving and critical thinking Presenting students with a problem, scenario, case, challenge or design issue, which they are then asked to address or deal with provides students with opportunities to think about or use knowledge and information in new and different ways.	**Case study**	Detailed story (true or fictional) that students analyze in detail to identify the underlying principles, practices, or lessons it contains
	Concept mapping	Graphical representation of related information in which common or shared concepts are linked together
	Real-world projects	Planned set of interrelated tasks to be executed over a fixed period and within certain cost and other limitations, either individually or collaboratively
5.Reflection The process of reflection starts with the student thinking about what they already know and have experienced in relation to the topic being explored/learnt. This is followed by analysis of why the student thinks about the topic in the way they do, and what assumptions, attitudes and beliefs they have about, and bring to learning about the topic.	**Reflection journal**	Written records of students' intellectual and emotional reactions to a given topic on a regular basis (e.g. weekly after each lesson).

12.5 Assignments and tasks

Assignments are either in-class or take-home tasks to be completed for the next class period. These tasks are important because they help ensure that the instruction provides the students with a goal, the power to get there, and the interest to be engaged in rigorous academic contexts as they acquire content and skills necessary to be able to participate in academic coursework.

There has been an extensive debate on what constitutes a 'task' for the purposes of languages teaching and learning. Some distinctions have been drawn between 'exercises' (focused on noticing and developing aspects of the form of language) and 'tasks' (focused on integrated use of language) or between 'pedagogic' tasks (tasks accomplished for the purposes of classroom learning) and 'real-life' tasks (tasks involving the use of language in the real-world). More recently, emphasis in general education has been placed on developing 'higher order thinking tasks' or 'rich tasks'. Teachers developing these rich tasks build deep, elaborated thinking into the tasks they ask students to do. As languages educators, teachers consider not only the need to develop accuracy (through a focus on form) and fluency (through active use of the target language in tasks) but also, the need to develop complexity in interpreting and using language and in reflecting upon language and culture in the context of use. Thus, in

developing tasks teachers also need to consider how each task builds on or extends previous learning and how it contributes to continuous and cumulative learning. Some of these distinctions are worth considering in developing the range of learning experiences that comprise a teaching and learning program for our students. Tasks might be described as purposeful and contextualized instances of language use. They include:

Table 12.4.1 Structure of assignments and tasks

Purpose	An underlying reason for undertaking the task (beyond the mere display of subject knowledge);
Context	Thematic, situational, and interactive circumstances in which the task is undertaken. The context may be real, simulated or imaginary. Considering context includes knowing where the task is taking place, when, who are involved, what previous experiences they share and what relationships they have;
Process	Mode or process of inquiry, thinking, problem-solving, performing, creating;
Product	Result of completing a task.

Task-types

The value of tasks resides in the fact that they represent a worthwhile, integrative, purposeful, contextualized piece of work. Building on this value, tasks may be grouped in different ways to ensure a comprehensive range and variety of experiences for learners. These groupings are called *task-types*. The most frequently used way of categorizing tasks is according to the four macro-skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Another system of task-types focuses on higher order thinking skills: enquiring, interpreting; presenting; problem-solving; performing; creating, designing, composing; judging, evaluating, responding. The task-type categories provide a means for ensuring that students engage with a range of learning experiences, participate in a range of language use in different contexts and, through this, learn increasingly to manage the variability of context. In this perspective, a task is the activity in which students work purposefully towards an objective. A typical task sequence may include:

- *Pre-task phase:* these are activities which prepare learners to complete a task, for example, by guiding learners through an example of the task they will have to do. There can be a number of pre-tasks in one lesson.
- *Doing of the task:* these form the main body of the lesson and can involve a number of steps. For example, learners working in pairs or groups may first complete the task, then prepare a report on the task, and finally present the report to the class.

- *Post-task phase:* these move away from activities designed to promote fluency to those designed to promote accuracy.

Taken together they form a *task cycle*. The major role of the teacher changes from phase to phase. In order to be effective and achieve objectives, the development of tasks must take into consideration the perceptions of the students because they are different from those of the teacher's. This challenge can be addressed by providing examples instead of abstract concepts or instructions. Another strategy involves the development of tasks that are specifically related to the learners' needs, interests, and age ranges. There are also experts who cite the importance of teaching learners about assignment planning. This is said to facilitate the students' engagement and interest in their assignment. Some strategies include brainstorming about the assignment process and the creation of a learning environment wherein students feel engaged and willing to reflect on their prior learning and to discuss specific or new topics. There are additional questions an instructor can consider when choosing which type of assignment would provide the most benefit to students. These include:

- What level of learning do the students need to attain before choosing assignments with varying difficulty levels?
- What is the amount of time the instructor wants the students to use to complete the assignment?
- How much time and effort does the instructor have to provide student grading and feedback?
- What is the purpose of the assignment? (e.g. to track student learning; to provide students with time to practice concepts; to practice incidental skills such as group process or independent research);
- How does the assignment fit with the rest of the lesson plan? Does the assignment test content knowledge or does it require application in a new context?
- Does the lesson plan fit a particular framework? For example, a Common Lesson Plan.

The teacher brings his/her personality into the classroom. The way he/she handles the lesson depends on the personality type and teaching style, on the attitudes and relationship with the students. The teacher's intellectual status and professional skills have a great bearing on the quality of the lesson. A well-read, well-trained teacher can offer a lot to students: apart from the personal knowledge, the teacher can enrich the class with a wide selection of material, the teacher personally enjoys, thus making the class more attractive. For example, the teacher who likes poems, will often bring poems into the classroom; one who is more practically oriented will rely on mass-media and latest news. Every teacher has a special affinity for certain types of activities. Some are good at brainstorming, others like role-play, still others prefer debates. However, it is essential to

vary classroom techniques and interactions to make classes active and dynamic. Each lesson plan needs to have in view two principles: variety and flexibility. *Variety* means involving students in a number of different types of activities and introducing them to a wide selection of materials. It also means planning so that learning is interesting and not monotonous. This means following a strict order of exercises and to offer students some interesting pattern of lesson for every class. *Flexibility* relates to the ability of the teacher to be able to change the plan in different situations, to adapt his/her strategy and techniques to the particular moment, class or time of the day. For a number of reasons what the teacher has planned for a particular class may not be appropriate for it on a particular day.

REFLECTION

1. How can objectives be linked to the desired outcomes/learning goals/ competences?
2. What might be the value or impact of what we are learning?
3. What is the role of follow-up questions?
4. How does the instructional stage provide students the opportunity to explore, investigate, and explain the phenomenon or identify the design solution to a problem?
5. How does the learning sequence help students demonstrate their understanding of the learning goals and outcomes?
6. Interaction is fundamentally a social process. Explain how you understand the idea.

TASKS FOR INDEPENDENT WORK
Didactic project sample of a lesson unit

1. Students analyze English textbooks from school and select a lesson unit;
2. Students create a detailed lesson plan using the model structure recommended by the MECR of the Republic of Moldova.
3. Students can use https://bookcreator.com/ or https://padlet.com/ to present their final product.

UNIT 13.
ENGLISH LANGUAGE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

13.1 Introduction

In education, a *curriculum* (plural *curricula* or *curriculums*) is broadly defined as the sum of student experiences that occur in the educational process. The term often refers specifically to a planned sequence of instruction, or to a view of the student's experiences in terms of the educator's or schools' instructional goals. Curriculum is a standards-based sequence of planned experiences where students practice and achieve proficiency in content and applied learning skills. The curriculum is the central guide for all educators as to what is essential for teaching and learning, so that every student has access to rigorous academic experiences. The structure, organization, and considerations in a curriculum are created in order to enhance student learning and facilitate instruction. The curriculum must include the necessary goals, methods, materials and assessments to effectively support instruction and learning. There are multiple definitions for curriculum:

- What is taught in schools;
- A set of subjects;
- Content;
- A program of studies;
- A set of materials;
- A sequence of courses;
- A set of performance objectives;
- A course of study;
- Is everything that goes on within the school, including extra-class activities, guidance, and interpersonal relationships;
- Everything that is planned by school personnel;
- A series of experiences undergone by learners in a school;
- That which an individual learner experiences as a result of schooling.

The curriculum may incorporate the planned interaction of pupils with instructional content, materials, resources, and processes for evaluating the attainment of educational objectives. Curricula may be tightly standardized, or may include a high level of instructor or learner autonomy. Many countries have national curricula in primary and secondary education, such as the Republic of Moldova's *National Curriculum*. In our country, the national curriculum, which applies to primary, middle and high - schools is the most influential foundation for the educational practice. The Ministry of Education, Culture and Research (MECR) is responsible for the development of the national curriculum across all subject areas. The national curriculum has seen some major changes along with the country's social,

political, and economic developments in the past 20 years. Changes in the English curriculum have also had a deep influence on the methodological approaches to English language teaching (ELT) in Moldovan schools.

13.2 Types of curricula

"Curriculum" is a difficult concept to pin down, and a common agreed definition of it is still a long way off. The *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFRL) stresses that the school curriculum is part of a wider curriculum, a "path travelled by a learner through a sequence of educational experiences, whether under the control of an institution or not" [68, 8.4]. It accordingly sees the "educational" curriculum as part of an "experiential" and "existential" curriculum, which starts before schooling, develops alongside it, and continues after it. It encompasses all the learning experiences acquired by the individual as a social player in establishing relations with other individuals and groups; these experiences will enable the each individual to develop their personality and identity and, to some extent, their linguistic and cultural repertoire [68, 1.1]. While curriculum planners have tried for decades to define curriculum—often with very little guidance—two approaches can resolve the debate. The first is to use a simple definition that reflects how most educational leaders use the term: *Curriculum is the skills and knowledge that students are to learn*. A more complex approach is to analyze the several sources of curriculum; from this perspective there are different kinds:

Table 13.2.1 Types of curriculum and definitions

Types of curriculum	Definition
Recommended curriculum	It derives from experts in the field. Almost every discipline-based professional group has promulgated curriculum standards for its field.
Overt or written curriculum	It may refer to a curriculum document, texts, films, and supportive teaching materials that are overtly chosen to support the intentional instructional agenda of a school. Thus, the overt curriculum is usually confined to those written understandings and directions formally designated and reviewed by administrators, curriculum directors and teachers, often collectively.
Supported curriculum	The supported curriculum is the one for which there are complimentary instructional materials available, such as textbooks, software, and multimedia resources.
Societal curriculum (or social curricula)	Massive, ongoing, informal curriculum of family, peer groups, neighborhoods, churches, organizations, occupations, mass media, and other socializing forces that "educate" all of us throughout our lives. This type of curricula can now be expanded to include the powerful effects of social media (YouTube; Facebook; Twitter; Pinterest, etc.) and how it actively helps create new perspectives, and can help shape both individual and public opinion.

Tested curriculum	The tested curriculum is the one embodied in tests developed by the state, school system, and teachers. The term "test" is used broadly here to include standardized tests, competency tests, and performance assessments.
Hidden or covert curriculum	That which is implied by the very structure and nature of schools, much of what revolves around daily or established routines. Examples of the hidden curriculum might include the messages and lessons derived from the mere organization of schools -- the emphasis on: sequential room arrangements; the cellular, timed segments of formal instruction; an annual schedule that is still arranged to accommodate an agrarian age; disciplined messages where concentration equates to student behaviors were they are sitting up straight and are continually quiet; students getting in and standing in line silently; students quietly raising their hands to be called on; the endless competition for grades, and so on.
Excluded curriculum (Null curriculum)	That which we do not teach, thus, giving students the message that these elements are not important in their educational experiences or in our society. The null curriculum is simply that which is not taught in schools. Somehow, somewhere, some people are empowered to make conscious decisions as to what is to be included and what is to be excluded from the overt (written) curriculum. Since it is physically impossible to teach everything in schools, many topics and subject areas must be intentionally excluded from the written curriculum. When certain subjects or topics are left out of the overt curriculum, school personnel are sending messages to students that certain content and processes are not important enough to study. Unfortunately, without some level of awareness that there is also a well-defined implicit agenda in schools, school personnel send this same type of message via the hidden curriculum. These are important to consider when making choices. We teach about wars but not peace, we teach about certain selected cultures and histories but not about others. Both our choices and our omissions send messages to students.
Phantom curriculum	The messages prevalent in and through exposure to any type of media. These components and messages play a major part in the enculturation of students into the predominant meta-culture, or in acculturating students into narrower or generational subcultures.
Curriculum in-use	The formal curriculum (written or overt) comprises those things in textbooks, and content and concepts in the district curriculum guides. However, those "formal" elements are frequently not taught. The curriculum-in-use is the actual curriculum that is delivered and presented by each teacher.
Received curriculum	Those things that students actually take out of classroom; those concepts and content that are truly learned and remembered.
Internal curriculum	Processes, content, knowledge combined with the experiences and realities of the learner to create new knowledge. While educators should be aware of this curriculum, they have little control over the internal curriculum since it is unique to each student. Educators can explore this curricula by using instructional assessments like "exit slips," reflective exercises, or debriefing discussions to see what students really remember from a lesson. It is often very enlightening.

Electronic curriculum	Those lessons learned through searching the Internet for information, or through using e-forms of communication. (Wilson, 2004) This type of curriculum may be either formal or informal, and inherent lessons may be overt or covert, good or bad, correct or incorrect depending on ones' views. Students who use the Internet on a regular basis, both for recreational purposes (as in blogs, wikis, chat rooms, list serves, through instant messenger, on-line conversations, or through personal e-mails and sites like Twitter, Facebook, Youtube) and for personal online research and information gathering are bombarded with all types of media and messages. Much of this information may be factually correct, informative, or even entertaining or inspirational. But there is also a great deal of other information that may be very incorrect, dated, passé, biased, perverse, or even manipulative. The implications of the electronic curriculum for educational practices are that part of the overt curriculum needs to include lessons on how to be wise consumers of information, how to critically appraise the accuracy and correctness of e-information, as well as how to determine the reliability of electronic sources. Also, students need to learn how to be artfully discerning about the usefulness and appropriateness of certain types of information. Like other forms of social interaction, students need to know that there are inherent lessons to be learned about appropriate and acceptable "netiquette" and online behaviors, to include the differences between "fair and legal usage," vs. plagiarism and information piracy.

Table 13.2.2 Curricula on different levels of the education system

- INTERNATIONAL, comparative (SUPRA)
  - International reference instruments, such as the *CEFRL;*
  - International evaluation studies like the PISA survey or the European Indicator of Language;
  - Competence, analyses carried out by international experts (Language Education Policy Profiles);
  - Study visits to other countries.
- NATIONAL/EDUCATION SYSTEM, state, region (MACRO)
  - Study plan, syllabus, strategic specific aims, common core, training standards;

SCHOOL, institution (MESO)
- Adjustment of the school curriculum or study plan to match the specific profile of a school, developments in partnership with businesses;

CLASS, group, teaching sequence, teacher (MICRO)
- Course, textbook used, resources;

INDIVIDUAL (NANO)
- Individual experience of learning, lifelong (autonomous) personal development

Careful scrutiny of the various components in curriculum planning and consideration of the relevance of each to the various organizational levels listed above (from "nano" to "supra") may help to provide the clarity needed to improve teaching – learning processes. The 10 components listed below reflect a learner - centred approach.

Table 13.2.3 Components of curriculum planning

COMPONENTS			LEVEL
1	General aims	What is/are the learner's/s' aim/s in learning?	MACRO (nation, state, region)
2	Specific aims/ competencies	What aims are they pursuing/are assigned to them?	
3	Content	What are they required to learn?	
4	Approaches and activities	How are they required to learn?	MICRO (class) and MESO (school)
5	Grouping and location	Where and with whom do they learn?	
6	Time	When do they learn? How much time do they have?	
7	Aids and resources	What do they learn with?	
8	Role of teachers	How do teachers promote, organize and facilitate learning processes?	
9	Co-operation	What types of co-operation, particularly between teachers are needed to facilitate learning?	
10	Evaluation	How are progress and acquired competences evaluated?	From NANO (individual) to SUPRA (international)

Responsibilities may be differently divided in different school systems. Thus, teaching aids (component 7) may also be considered at "macro" level, for example when a particular aid is used throughout a region. Similarly, the "macro" level may be less involved in determining curriculum content and activities (components 3 and 4), and schools ("meso") or even teachers ("micro") may be given more freedom of choice. Some of these components play a central role, and may extend beyond the one level indicated. For example, general aims (component 1) are the central dimension on which all the others must be focused. Another example: evaluation of competences acquired (component 10) may be a major factor for curriculum change since it serves to link the specific aims/competences at issue on all levels, from the individual's learning process (self-evaluation) to curricula designed by national authorities (for example, national standards) or based on international standards (for example, language diplomas). With a view to efficient curriculum management, co-operation (component 9), especially between teachers of various language and "non-language" subjects, is particularly important at "meso" level in schools. Of course, all the issues which arise in curriculum planning are closely interlinked, and any attempt to take decisions on one component without taking full account of the other parameters listed in this table is certain to fail.

Finally, planning decisions in this area must always be taken in a specific societal context, and that context must itself be carefully analyzed. When language curricula are being designed ("first", "second", "foreign", "classical" languages, etc.), the status of all the languages present or spoken on a given territory (state, region, city), and the needs generated by specific situations (neighborhood, economic partners, cultural or language policies, border area) are among the factors which must be considered. Analysis of these factors will decisively influence specific aims, including choice of languages and levels of competence aimed at, and the curriculum measures needed to achieve them.

13.3 Interactions of curriculum types

How do these curriculum types interact? The research literature and experience working with education leaders and school systems on curriculum development suggest the following:

- *The recommended curriculum* in general has impact on the written curriculum and perhaps less of an effect on the classroom teacher. The recommendations of subject matter experts and policymakers regarding curriculum content usually have some influence on schools.
- *The written curriculum* has only a moderate influence on the taught curriculum. Most experienced teachers review the curriculum guide at the start of the year and then put it aside as they weigh other factors in deciding what to teach. They tend to give greater attention to such factors as students' interests, their own assessment of what has worked in the past, and what will be on the state and district tests.
- *The tested curriculum* seems to have the strongest influence on the curriculum actually taught. In an era of accountability, teachers are understandably concerned about how their students perform on tests. Much classroom time is spent on developing test-wiseness and on practicing questions similar to those that will appear on district, state, and national tests. And in almost every class, students ask the perennial question: "Will this be on the test?" There is a positive side to this emphasis on tests, when they take the form of performance assessments. Gooding (1994) determined that teachers using performance assessments incorporated the use of research-based teaching behaviors more frequently than those relying on traditional forms of evaluation. Note, however, that a recent study concluded that students in states with mandatory high school graduation tests achieved less on a test of academic performance than students in states with lower-stakes test programs.
- *The supported curriculum* continues to have a strong influence on the taught curriculum, especially for elementary teachers, who teach four or

five subjects. The textbook is often their major source of content knowledge.

- There is a significant gap between *the taught curriculum* and *the learned curriculum*; students do not always learn what they are taught. Several factors account for the gap: the teacher's failure to make the curriculum meaningful and challenging or to monitor student learning; and the students' low level of motivation, cognitive abilities, and short attention spans.
- As mentioned previously, *the hidden* and *excluded curricula* have a powerful influence on students' perceptions. Every day, students are exposed to the hidden and excluded curriculum and internalize their messages. Thus, if the school system's leaders speak about the importance of physical education but allocate only 45 minutes per week to that subject in the elementary grades, the message that delivers is that physical education does not matter, relatively speaking.

Although all these types of curricula are important, curriculum leaders should focus on the learned curriculum, emphasizing the importance of implementing the written curriculum and helping teachers close the gap between the taught and the learned curricula.

13.4 Conceptual framework of the English curriculum in the Republic of Moldova

The foreign languages curriculum is a component of the National Curriculum and represents a system of concepts, processes, products and purposes that ensure the functionality and development of the discipline at the level of primary, secondary and high education by prioritizing the educational goals and integrating teaching-learning-assessment. The basis of this curriculum are the latest provisions from the complementary volume of the CEFRL published in 2018, both at the level of competence units and content units, as well as at the recommended school activities and products. The teaching process will focus on the communicative aspect and action approach to the language in order to expand communication skills in a foreign language and cultivating the respective attitudes to the formation of the adolescent's personality. There were included activities and thematic suggestions related to new mandatory disciplines included in the National Framework Plan, such as personal development, society education and digital education. They have the role of developing not only the linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic and (multi/inter) cultural skills, but also students' self-knowledge in becoming informed, active and honest citizens, who are able to communicate freely, demonstrating responsibility in making career decisions and personal development throughout the life.

The linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic and (inter/plural) cultural skills will be valued through action-thematic approaches that will contribute to students' personality development in order to be able to take initiative, to be capable of self-development and to demonstrate independence of opinion and action, responsibility, openness to intercultural dialogue in the context of national and international values.

The new conceptual vision for the gymnasium cycle is determined by the definition of competence promoted by the *Education Code* and the Reference Framework of the National Curriculum, namely: "*School competence* is an integrated system of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values, acquired, formed and developed through learning, the mobilization of which allows the identification and solving of different problems in various contexts and situations" [148]. The key component in the foreign language curriculum is the system of outcomes focused on the system of skills/ competences consisting of:

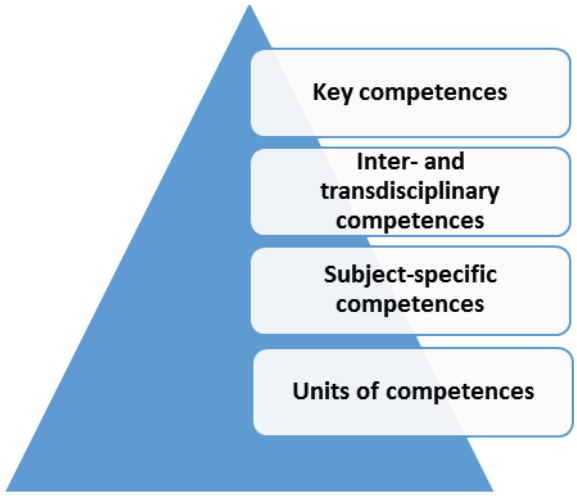
- *Key/transversal competences*, an important curricular category with a high degree of abstraction and generalization, which mark society's expectations regarding the school policy regarding the most general performances that can be achieved by students at the end of schooling. They reflect both the trends in national educational policies, reflected in the Education Code (2014), and the recommendations stipulated in the European Commission Recommendations (2018). Key competences cross different spheres of social life, have a *multi/inter/transdisciplinary* character that can be defined within the subject-specific competences, competence units, content units, learning activities and recommended school products. Its character is formed and progressively developed on levels and cycles of education.
- *Subject-specific competences*, resulting from transdisciplinary competences and key/transversal competences and represent integrated systems of knowledge, skills, and attitudes values, which aim to develop the subject Foreign Language by the end of a level of secondary education/ high education. Here are the specific competences of the foreign language subject for the gymnasium level:

- *Linguistic competence*: distinguishing linguistic elements and producing simple and correct messages;
- *Sociolinguistic competence*: use of language resources, demonstrating language functionality in a social context;
- *Pragmatic competence*: organizing language resources in oral/written/online messages, demonstrating consistency and fluency in communication;
- *Multi/inter cultural competence*: accepting the specific elements of a foreign culture by expressing sensitivity/openness to the values of another culture and acceptance of cultural diversity.

- *Units of competence*, as components of competences that facilitate the gaining of specific competences and represent the stages in their construction. The units of competences are structured, developed and stated for the foreign language subject for each grade and unit/school year. The foreign language curriculum is focused on content units/modules as a means of achieving these purposes. Content units include the means for the achievement of the competence units designed for the given learning unit. Similar, they aim to achieve the competences specific to a subject and the transversal/transdisciplinary competences as well.

The foreign language curriculum is based on the constructivist approach, on active and interactive learning, transdisciplinarity, on students' experiences and creative learning environments. The curriculum includes in its structure the following products: *curriculum as a program school; the manual; the methodological guide; evaluation tests; other curricular related materials.*

Figure 13.4.1 Competence acquisition



In fact, this curriculum is a kind of curriculum that builds competences. Competence-based curricula are usually designed around a set of key competences that can be cross-curricular and/or subject-bound. This must be a curriculum that emphasizes the complex outcomes /competences of a learning process (i.e. knowledge, skills and attitudes to be applied by learners) rather than mainly focusing on what learners are expected to learn about in terms of traditionally-defined subject content. The curriculum is learner-centred and adaptive to the changing needs of students, teachers and society. It implies that learning activities and environments are chosen so that learners can acquire and apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes to situations they encounter in everyday life.

English has a pre-eminent place in education and in society. A high-quality education in English will teach pupils to speak and write fluently so that they can communicate their ideas and emotions to others and through their reading and listening, others can communicate with them. Through reading in particular, pupils have a chance to develop culturally, emotionally, intellectually, socially and spiritually. Literature, especially, plays a key role in such development. Reading also enables pupils both to acquire knowledge and to build on what they already know. All the skills of language are essential to participating fully as a member of society. The aim for English in the national curriculum is to promote high standards of language and literacy by equipping pupils with a strong command of the spoken and written word, and to develop their love of literature through widespread reading for enjoyment. The national curriculum for English aims to ensure that all pupils:

- Read easily, fluently and with good understanding;
- Develop the habit of reading widely and often, for both pleasure and information;
- Acquire a wide vocabulary, an understanding of grammar and knowledge of linguistic conventions for reading, writing and spoken language;
- Appreciate our rich and varied literary heritage;
- Write clearly, accurately and coherently, adapting their language and style in and for a range of contexts, purposes and audiences;
- Use discussion in order to learn; they should be able to elaborate and explain clearly their understanding and ideas;
- Are competent in the arts of speaking and listening, making formal presentations, demonstrating to others and participating in debate.

Spoken language

The national curriculum for English reflects the importance of spoken language in pupils' development across the whole curriculum – cognitively, socially and linguistically. Spoken language underpins the development of reading and writing. The quality and variety of language that pupils hear and speak are vital for developing their vocabulary and grammar and their understanding for reading and writing. Teachers should therefore ensure the English continual development of pupils' confidence and competence in spoken language and listening skills. Pupils should develop a capacity to explain their understanding of books and other reading, and to prepare their ideas before they write. They must be assisted in making their thinking clear to themselves as well as to others and teachers should ensure that pupils build secure foundations by using discussion to probe and remedy their misconceptions.

Pupils should also be taught to understand and use the conventions for discussion and debate. All pupils should be enabled to participate in and gain

knowledge, skills and understanding associated with the artistic practice of drama. Pupils should be able to adopt, create and sustain a range of roles, responding appropriately to others in role. They should have opportunities to improvise, devise and script drama for one another and a range of audiences, as well as to rehearse, refine, share and respond thoughtfully to drama and theatre performances.

Reading

The programmes of study for reading consist of two dimensions: word reading and comprehension (both listening and reading). It is essential that teaching focuses on developing pupils' competence in both dimensions; different kinds of teaching are needed for each. Skilled word reading involves both the speedy working out of the pronunciation of unfamiliar printed words (decoding) and the speedy recognition of familiar printed words. Underpinning both is the understanding that the letters on the page represent the sounds in spoken words. This is why phonics should be emphasized in the early teaching of reading to beginners (i.e. unskilled readers) when they start school.

Good comprehension draws from linguistic knowledge (in particular of vocabulary and grammar) and on knowledge of the world. Comprehension skills develop through pupils' experience of high-quality discussion with the teacher, as well as from reading and discussing a range of stories, poems and non-fiction. All pupils must be encouraged to read widely across both fiction and non-fiction to develop their knowledge of themselves and the world in which they live, to establish an appreciation and love of reading, and to gain knowledge across the curriculum. Reading widely and often increases pupils' vocabulary because they encounter words they would rarely hear or use in everyday speech. Reading also feeds pupils' imagination and opens up a treasure-house of wonder and joy for curious young minds. It is essential that, by the end of their primary education, all pupils are able to read fluently, and with confidence, in any subject in their forthcoming secondary education.

Writing

The programmes of study for writing are constructed similarly to those for reading: transcription (spelling and handwriting) and composition (articulating ideas and structuring them in speech and writing). It is essential that teaching develops pupils' competence in these two dimensions. In addition, pupils should be taught how to plan, revise and evaluate their writing. These aspects of writing have been incorporated into the programmes of study for composition. Writing down ideas fluently depends on effective transcription: that is, on spelling quickly and accurately through knowing the relationship between sounds and letters (phonics) and understanding the morphology (word structure) and or-

thography (spelling structure) of words. Effective composition involves forming, articulating and communicating ideas, and then organizing them coherently for a reader. This requires clarity, awareness of the audience, purpose and context, and an increasingly wide knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Writing also depends on fluent, legible and, eventually, speedy handwriting.

13.5 Culturally responsive curriculum

This is a curriculum that respects learners' cultures and prior experiences. It acknowledges and values the legitimacy of different cultures, not just the dominant culture of a society, and encourages intercultural understanding. It incorporates cultural aspects into the curriculum, rather than adding them on as an extra or separate module or course. In a culturally responsive curriculum, students develop intercultural understanding as they learn to value their own cultures, languages and beliefs, and those of others. They come to understand how personal, group and national identities are shaped, and the variable and changing nature of culture. Intercultural understanding involves students learning about and engaging with diverse cultures in ways that recognize commonalities and differences, create connections with others and cultivate mutual respect.

An intercultural curriculum assists young people to become responsible local and global citizens, equipped through their education for living and working together in an interconnected world. It should combine personal, interpersonal and social knowledge and skills. It involves students' learning to value and view critically their own cultural perspectives and practices and those of others through their interactions with people, texts and contexts across the curriculum. The elements of this curriculum develop students' abilities to communicate and empathize with others and to analyze intercultural experiences critically. It offers opportunities for them to consider their own beliefs and attitudes in a new light, and so gain insight into themselves and others. It cultivates values and dispositions such as curiosity, care, empathy, reciprocity, respect and responsibility, open-mindedness and critical awareness, and supports new and positive intercultural behaviors. Though all are significant in learning to live together, three dispositions – *expressing empathy, demonstrating respect* and *taking responsibility* – have been identified as critical to the development of intercultural understanding.

Students move from their known worlds to explore new ideas and experiences related to specific cultural groups through opportunities provided in the learning areas. They compare their own knowledge and experiences with those of others, learning to recognize commonalities, acknowledging differences between their lives and recognizing the need to engage in critical reflection about such differences, seeking to understand them. Students recognize and appreci-

ate differences between people and respect another person's point of view and their human rights. In developing and acting with intercultural understanding, students:

- Investigate culture and cultural identity;
- Explore and compare cultural knowledge, beliefs and practices;
- Develop respect for cultural diversity;
- Communicate across cultures;
- Consider and develop multiple perspectives;
- Empathise with others;
- Reflect on intercultural experiences;
- Challenge stereotypes and prejudices;
- Mediate cultural difference.

The development of intercultural understanding is a central aim of learning in the foreign languages curriculum. It is integral to communicating in the context of diversity, the development of global citizenship and lifelong learning. Students bring to their learning various preconceptions, assumptions and orientations shaped by their existing language(s), culture(s) that can be challenged by the new language experience. Learning to move between the existing and new languages and cultures is integral to language learning and is the key to the development of students' intercultural understanding. By learning a new language, or learning to use an existing language in new domains and contexts, students are able to notice, compare and reflect on things previously taken for granted; to explore their own linguistic, social and cultural practices as well as those associated with the target language. They begin to see the complexity, variability and sometimes the contradictions involved in using language. In this way, students come to realize that interactions between different people through the use of different languages also involves interactions between the different kinds of knowledge, understanding and values that are articulated through language(s) and culture(s). They realize that successful intercultural communication is not only determined by what they do or say, but also by what members of the other language and culture understand from what they say or do.

By engaging with literature from a wide range of cultures, students explore the role of myth, symbolism and life matters in perspectives on people and ideas, from the past and present. Through interpreting and analyzing authors' ideas and positions represented in traditional and contemporary texts in a range of media, in English or translated forms, students learn to question stated and unstated cultural beliefs and assumptions, and appreciate issues of intercultural meaning and sensitivity. In this way, students use intercultural understanding to comprehend and create a range of texts that present diverse cultural perspectives, and to empathize with a variety of people and characters in various cultural settings.

All the intercultural elements are explored by the *multi/inter cultural competence,* units of content, units of competences, the suggested activities and final products for each grade stipulated in the National Curriculum.

REFLECTION

1. Explain the role of the CEFR for the development of the English language curriculum in the Republic of Moldova.
2. Identify the key components of the Moldovan foreign language curriculum and explain how they are correlated.
3. Explain how curricula are generally designed.
4. Discover the role of hidden or excluded curricula.
5. What are the characteristics of a culturally responsive curriculum?

TASKS FOR INDEPENDENT WORK

Project work: students analyze the National Curriculum and give examples of competences and contents that help acquire the multi/intercultural competence. Students can use https://bookcreator.com/ or https://padlet.com/ to present their final product.

UNIT 14.
ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION OF STUDENTS ACHIEVEMENTS

14.1 Introduction. Assessment and evaluation

Assessment and evaluation of students achievements are a very important part of the teaching process and a logical consequence of testing: they aim to give both testers and students a concrete measure for their results. Assessment is an integral part of language teaching and learning, not merely a final step in the process nor just a judgment about an activity accomplished. Evaluation is a complex task for the responsible teacher. Instead of just grading the students, teachers try to find answers to questions such as: when to rest students, what to focus on in each test, the kinds of items to include, how to formulate them, what should be the duration of a test, how to continue the teaching activity in the light of the obtained results.

Educational assessment is the systematic process of documenting and using empirical data on the knowledge, skill, attitudes, and beliefs to refine programmes 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 it is 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 programme, the institution, or the educational system as a whole. Assessment is the systematic collection of data to monitor the success of a program or course in achieving intended learning outcomes for students. It is used to determine:

- What students have learned (outcome);
- The way they learned the material (process);
- Their approach to learning before, during, or after the program or course.

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.

Evaluation is a systematic determination of a subject's merit, worth and significance, using criteria governed by a set of standards. It can assist an organization, programme, design, project or any other intervention or initiative to assess any aim, realizable concept/proposal, or any alternative, to help in decision-making; or to ascertain the degree of achievement or value in regard to the aim and objectives and results of any such action that has been completed. The primary purpose of evaluation, in addition to gaining insight into prior or existing initiatives, is to enable reflection and assist in the identification of future change. Evaluation is also a judgment by the instructor or educational researcher about whether the programme or instruction has met its intended learning outcomes. Evaluation can also be defined as a kind of systematic gathering of information for the purpose of making decisions; a collection of reliable and relevant information. It involves the interpretation of testing results used to make decisions. 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. It is long term and done at the end of a period of time. Evaluation is inherently a theoretically informed approach (whether explicitly or not), and consequently any particular definition of evaluation would have been tailored to its context – the theory, needs, purpose, and methodology of the evaluation process itself. The main purpose of a programme/ course/unit/ topic evaluation can be to determine the quality by formulating a judgment.

In conclusion, assessment refers only to analyses about the level of learners' proficiency evident in their performance, whereas evaluation can also refer, for instance, to the quality of a course, the effectiveness of teaching, or the appropriateness of pedagogical materials.

Table 14.1.1. Assessment versus evaluation

Assessment	**Evaluation**
- Is ongoing	- Provides closure
- Improves learning quality	- Judges learning level
- Individualized	- Applied against standards
- Provides feedback	- Shows shortfalls
- Process-oriented	- Product-oriented

Teachers have *two main purposes for assessing* the learners in their classes. One purpose is to improve learning by checking that learners are progressing. They do this so that they can decide whether to give additional help, to try a different explanation or use different materials when learners find things difficult, or whether to provide more challenging activities when learners are ready for these. The other purpose is to judge how successful learners have been in mastering the content of a course in order to report this to parents, school management or educational authorities. This usually involves deciding on grades or

scores. All types of language tests are a form of assessment, but tests are not the only possible means for assessment.

Assessing also implies informal checking or verification, which can be done in various ways, one of which is testing. All assessments involve collecting data for the purposes of making effective decisions, ranging from tests to checklists in continuous assessment as well as informal observations by a teacher.

14.2 Principles of effective classroom assessment

1. *Assessment reflects intended outcomes from the curriculum*.

General and specific outcomes identify expectations for student achievement. Well-designed lesson plans incorporate a series of learning experiences that: identify units of competence around a goal/competence, describe what students should understand, know and do to meet the outcomes, use instructional approaches or strategies to attain the goals.

2. *Assessment criteria are clearly communicated*.

Criteria describe what students are expected to be able to do to meet the intended outcomes. They should be communicated to students prior to beginning an assessment activity.

3. *Assessment employs a variety of strategies*.

When teachers use a variety of assessment strategies consistently, they are able to accurately communicate on student achievement in relation to the programme of studies.

4. *Assessment is ongoing*.

This process has no beginning or end. It is a continuous process that enhances teaching and learning and provides ongoing feedback to teachers, students and parents about learning. Teachers gather information about student learning and consider it as they plan further instruction. They make decisions on how to best support student learning while students work toward achieving the outcomes.

5. *Assessment involves students in the process*.

Whenever possible, students should be involved in determining the criteria used to evaluate their work. It leads students to a deeper understanding of what they are expected to know and do.

6. *Assessment demonstrates sensitivity to individual differences and needs*.

Assessment impacts students' motivation and self-esteem and therefore needs to be sensitive to how students learn. The decisions teachers take are made with regard to the next steps in student learning. This includes accommodations for individual student learning needs, especially for the students with special education needs, which ensure the most positive impact on students learning and an accurate understanding of student performance.

7. *Effective test validity*

A test is considered valid when it reflects the test-takers' ability in a particular area and the test does not measure anything else. Validity is a complex concept in testing, so, in order to achieve validity a test should:

- Measure only what it claims to measure;
- Rely as much as possible on empirical evidence;
- Involve performance that samples the test criterion;
- Offer meaningful and useful information about a test-taker's ability;
- Be supported by a theoretical rationale.

8. *Effective test reliability*

A test is considered reliable if it is administered on different occasions and similar results are obtained. Brown and Abeywickrama suggested the following ways to ensure that a test is reliable:

- It is consistent in its conditions across two or more administrations;
- It gives clear directions for scoring or evaluation;
- It has uniform rubrics for scoring or evaluation;
- It lends itself to consistent application of those rubrics by the rater;
- It contains items or tasks that are unambiguous to the test-takers [7 p. 27].

14.3 Assessing reading, writing, speaking and listening

Assessing reading skills

Research has highlighted the factors that strongly impact reading abilities and account for individual differences in reading comprehension performance:

- Efficient word recognition processes (phonological, orthographic, morphological, and semantic processing);
- Large recognition vocabulary (vocabulary knowledge);
- Efficient grammatical parsing skills (grammar knowledge under time constraints);
- Ability to formulate the main ideas of a text;
- Ability to engage in a range of strategic processes while reading more challenging texts (including goal setting, academic inferencing, monitoring);
- Ability to recognize discourse structuring and genre patterns, and use this knowledge to support comprehension;
- Ability to use background knowledge appropriately;
- Ability to interpret text meaning critically in line with reading purposes;
- Efficient use of working memory abilities;
- Efficient use of reading fluency skills;
- Ability to engage in reading, to expend effort, to persist in reading without

distraction, and achieve some level of success with reading (reading motivation).

When assessing learners' reading skills, the level of achievement we want to measure is typically related to one of the performance levels of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR).

Assessing writing skills

The ability to write continues to be a key characteristic of any educated person. Learning to write in one's own language is difficult; learning to write in a second language is even more difficult. Now that so much interaction between people takes place in a 'mixed' language that is partly oral and partly written (email, Twitter, Facebook, etc.), and as more and more schools bring computer-based teaching into the classroom, ways of assessing what learners have written are also becoming more complex. This offers many opportunities, both for more creative ways of formally assessing writing products, and for using assessment formatively to support learners' writing processes.

A *Writing Assessment Scale* which was developed with explicit reference to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). It covers all the levels of the English exams and is divided into four subscales:

- *Content*. This focuses on how well the candidate has fulfilled the task, in other words, if they have done what they were asked to do.
- *Communicative Achievement*. This focuses on how appropriate the writing is for the task, and whether the candidate has used the appropriate register.
- *Organization*. This focuses on the way the candidate puts together the piece of writing, in other words, if it is logical and ordered.
- *Language*. This focuses on vocabulary and grammar. It includes the range of language as well as how accurate it is.

Assessing speaking and listening skills

Speaking skill has acquired a very important place in the communication skills. Like listening skills, a number of sub-skills of speaking need to be consciously developed amongst students. Some of the sub-skills are given below which can be assessed.

- Speaking intelligibly using appropriate word stress, sentence stress and intonation patterns;
- Narrating incidents and events, real or imaginary in a logical sequence;
- Presenting oral reports or summaries; making announcements clearly and confidently;
- Expressing and arguing a point of view clearly and effectively;
- Taking active part in group discussions, showing ability to express agreement or disagreement; summarizing ideas, eliciting the views of others, and presenting own ideas;

- Expressing and responding to personal feelings, opinions and attitudes;
- Participating in spontaneous spoken discourse in familiar social situations.

The CEFR describes what learners CAN DO in terms of reading, writing, speaking, listening and typically what text types they are expected to deal with at a given level. A good understanding the CEFR level descriptors thus will help teachers to locate both the learners and the materials teachers use in the classes in relation to the CEFR.

14.4 Types of assessment

There are different types of assessment in education. All assessment methods have different purposes during and after instruction. Assessment can be divided for the sake of convenience using the following categorizations:

1. *Placement, formative, summative and diagnostic assessment*

- *Placement evaluation* is used to place students according to prior achievement or personal characteristics, at the most appropriate point in an instructional sequence, in a unique instructional strategy, or with a suitable teacher conducted through placement testing, i.e. the tests that colleges and universities use to assess college readiness and place students into their initial classes. Placement evaluation, also referred to as *pre-assessment* or *initial assessment*, is conducted prior to instruction or intervention to establish a baseline from which individual student growth can be measured. This type of an assessment is used to know what the student's skill level is about the subject. It helps the teacher to explain the material more efficiently. These assessments are not graded.
- *Formative assessment* is generally carried out throughout a course or project. Formative assessment, also referred to as "educative assessment," is used to aid learning. In an educational setting, formative assessment might be a teacher (or peer) or the learner, providing feedback on a student's work and would not necessarily be used for grading purposes. Formative assessments can take the form of diagnostic, standardized tests, quizzes, oral question, or draft work. Formative assessments are carried out concurrently with instructions. The result may count because it informs future planning, teaching and learning. The aim of this assessment is to promote effective further learning by pupils. This is achieved in a variety of ways including: identifying pupil's current understanding, their future learning needs, giving pupils constructive oral and written feedback. The main focus of this form is to identify strengths and shortcomings, such as errors and difficulties. It also informs the teacher of the nature of advice and information needed to improve pupils learning outcomes. Finally, formative assessments aim to see if the students understand the instruction before doing a summative assessment. Used effectively, they allow teachers to adjust instruc-

tion as needed to improve learning. Students can also use formative assessments to make decisions about their own needs for further study and practice to improve their performance.

- *Summative assessment* is generally carried out at the end of a course or project. In an educational setting, summative assessments are typically used to assign students a course grade. Summative assessments are evaluative and are made to summarize what the students have learned, to determine whether they understand the subject matter well. This type of assessment is typically graded (e.g. pass/fail, 0-100) and can take the form of tests, exams or projects. Summative assessments are often used to determine whether a student has passed or failed a class. A criticism of summative assessments is that they are reductive, and learners discover how well they have acquired knowledge too late for it to be of use. Summative assessment is aimed at assessing the extent to which the most important outcomes at the end of the instruction have been reached. But it measures more: the effectiveness of learning, reactions on the instruction and the benefits on a long-term base. The long-term benefits can be determined by following students who attend a course, or test to see how they use the learned knowledge, skills and attitudes. Depending on the time frame, this process can also be called *confirmatory evaluation*. This is an extensive form of summative evaluation.

Table 14.4.1 Types of formative and summative assessment

	Formative assessment	**Summative assessment**
Informal	Questioning Feedback Peer assessment Self-assessment	Essays in uncontrolled conditions Portfolios Course work Teacher assessment
Formal	Tests Exams Essays	Tests Exams Essays in controlled conditions

- *Diagnostic assessment* is a form of pre-assessment where teachers can evaluate students' strengths, weaknesses, knowledge and skills before or after their instruction. A diagnostic assessment refers to an assignment written at the beginning and end of a course. Post-course assessments can be compared with pre-course assessments and can show students' potential improvement in certain areas. These assessments allow the instructor to adjust the curriculum to meet the needs of current and future students. In some respects diagnostic assessment is similar to formative assessment in that it examines the knowledge and skills that a pupil has already learnt. The difference between the two assessment types lies in how gained understanding is used by the teacher. Formative

assessment is usually carried out within a topic to understand current learning and address any areas in which the pupil has difficulties or gaps in knowledge and understanding. Diagnostic assessment, on the other hand, is usually carried out at the start of a new topic to identify what pupils already know and can do, enabling the teaching content of the new topic to be planned.

2. Objective and subjective

Assessment (either summative or formative) is often categorized as either *objective* or *subjective*. Objective assessment is a form of questioning which has a single correct answer. Subjective assessment is a form of questioning which may have more than one correct answer (or more than one way of expressing the correct answer). There are various types of objective and subjective questions. Objective question types include true/false answers, multiple choice, multiple response and matching questions. Subjective questions include extended-response questions and essays. Objective assessment is well suited to the increasingly popular computerized or online assessment format.

Some have argued that the distinction between objective and subjective assessments is neither useful nor accurate because, in reality, there is no such thing as "objective" assessment. In fact, all assessments are created with inherent biases built into decisions about relevant subject matter and content, as well as cultural (class, ethnic, and gender) biases.

3. Referencing (criterion-referenced, norm-referenced) and ipsative (forced-choice)

Test results can be compared against an established criterion, or against the performance of other students, or against previous performance:

- *Criterion-referenced assessment*, typically using a criterion-referenced test, as the name implies, occurs when candidates are measured against defined (and objective) criteria. Criterion-referenced assessment is often, but not always, used to establish a person's competence (whether s/he can do something). 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 a skill set, it's a test to evaluate the curriculum taught in a course.
- *Norm-referenced assessment* (colloquially known as "grading on the curve"), typically using a norm-referenced test, is not measured against defined criteria. This type of assessment is relative to the student body undertaking the assessment. It is effectively a way of comparing students. The IQ test is the best known example of norm-referenced assessment. This compares a student's performance against an average norm. This could be the average national norm for the subject History, for example. Other example is when the teacher compares the average grade of his/her students against the average grade of the entire school. Many entrance tests (to prestigious schools or universities) are norm-referenced, permitting a fixed proportion of students to pass ("passing" in this

context means being accepted into the school or university rather than an explicit level of ability). This means that standards may vary from year to year, depending on the quality of the cohort; criterion-referenced assessment does not vary from year to year (unless the criteria change).

- *Ipsative assessment* is self comparison either in the same domain over time, or comparative to other domains within the same student. The term 'ipsative' derives from the Latin word *ipse* meaning 'of the self'. Ipsative assessment was originally used in psychology for intelligence testing of children in the 1940s as an alternative to norm-referencing but has since been used in other psychological tests when a child's score in a particular attribute is compared to that child's average score or to a previous score, rather than to the norm. Put simply, an ipsative assessment is a comparison with a previous performance; it is a self-comparison. Phrases such as assessment against oneself, self-referential assessment and progress reports all capture the essence of ipsative assessment.

4. Formal and Informal

Formal assessments are the systematic, data-based tests that measure what and how well the students have learned. Formal assessments determine students' proficiency or mastery of the content, and can be used for comparisons against certain standards. A formal assessment usually implies a written document, such as a test, quiz, or paper. A formal assessment is given a numerical score or grade based on student performance. It usually includes:

- Standardized tests;
- Criterion referenced tests;
- Norm referenced test;
- Achievement tests;
- Aptitude tests.

Informal assessments are those spontaneous forms of assessment that can easily be incorporated in the day-to-day classroom activities and that measure the students' performance and progress. Informal assessments are content and performance driven. An informal assessment usually occurs in a more casual manner and may include:

- Checklist;
- Observation;
- Portfolio;
- Rating scale;
- Time sampling;
- Event sampling;
- Peer and self-evaluation;
- Anecdotal record.

Informal assessment cannot completely replace the formal assessment. Either types can be used (depending on the intended purpose) to improve teaching

and learning. The type of assessment to be used should match the intended purpose of the assessment. For example, in order to assess the students' academic achievement and compare it with other students, the formal assessment can be used. If teachers want to use assessment to monitor students' progress and help them maximize their own learning, or use assessment to improve instruction, then they can use the informal assessment.

5. Internal and external assessment

Another important distinction has traditionally been made between *internal* (school-based) assessment and *external* (standardized) assessment. It is important to note that both internal and external assessments may be used in a summative or formative way. *Internal assessment*, or school-based assessment, is designed and marked by the students' own teachers, often in collaboration with the students themselves, and implemented as part of regular classroom instruction, within lessons or at the end of a teaching unit, year level or educational cycle. *External assessment*, or standardized assessment, is designed and marked outside individual schools so as to ensure that the questions, conditions for administering, scoring procedures, and interpretations are consistent and comparable among students. External assessments may be applied to a full student cohort or only in some schools and classrooms (for example, on-demand assessments that schools can use to measure their own progress and benchmark themselves against national averages).

In practice, however, the distinctions between internal and external assessments are not always so clear-cut. For example, there are also hybrid forms of assessment that are developed externally but implemented and marked internally by the students' own teachers. How to best design assessment frameworks drawing on a mix of internal and external approaches in order to achieve stated summative and formative purposes will be another guiding question throughout this chapter.

14.5 Types of language tests

The needs of assessing the outcome of learning have led to the development and elaboration of different test formats. The three basic stages in the learning process - before, during and after teaching have given rise to five basic types of test: *placement tests, progress test, diagnostic test, achievement test, proficiency tests*. These types of tests coincide with the teacher's educational aims at certain moments. Each test type has its own characteristics and specific requirements, so the teacher must make sure that the test items are well-chosen and organized, comprehensive for the material covered, relevant for the educational aims.

The teacher who meets a group of students for the first time must assess the overall language proficiency of the class. The students' relative language level

will help the teacher implement an efficient classroom management. *Placement tests* can take the form of an oral interview and perhaps a longer piece of writing. The purpose of the test is to find out not only what students know, but also what they don't know. According to the results, the teacher can organize the students into groups and devise the proper strategies. Placement tests should not result in marks given to students. They can be 20 min. long up to the entire duration of the lesson. They can include grammar, vocabulary, reading and writing. Each section is assigned a certain number of points, so that counting of results is easy.

While-learning tests are closely linked to the curriculum and to classroom learning. At various stages during a term or semester, we may give the students' progress tests or diagnostic tests to see how well students have learnt everything. *Progress tests* are efficient for the continuous assessment of students' knowledge. These are small-scale tests meant to check on recent, short-term learning (no more than last week). They cover a narrow range of language and information; show the teacher whether the students understand the new material, if s/he can go on to the next lesson, or must go back and insist on certain aspects. These tests can aim at different set of items and are usually unannounced. They last from 10 to 20 minutes at the beginning of the new class.

Diagnostic tests are similar to progress tests, but they are large-scale tests. They look back over a longer period of time. So, they usually take up the entire duration of the class. Since diagnostic tests are complex tests, they must target more skills. DT look backwards over the material taught more or less recently. They must also look forward and assess students' ability to cope with the requirements of the next stage. Since they are large-scale tests, diagnostic tests must focus on formation, rather than on information. They must give information on the students' actual language skills, on their ability to use the language effectively, outside the classroom. The teacher must remember that diagnostic tests:

- must be comprehensive – they cover the entire material;
- must follow the textbook and the curriculum, i.e. they assess what was taught and the way it was taught;
- they assess a wide range of skills;
- must be complex.

After evaluating the tests results, the teacher will be able to:

- determine how appropriate the methods are for the students. A high-fail result must tell the teacher that s/he must change attitudes and teaching strategies.
- find remedies for the problems.

Achievement tests are set at the end of an important phase in language teaching – a school year, a teaching cycle. They are comprehensive tests that aim to

evaluate students' general proficiency and assess whether they have attained the final course objectives. They are large-scale tests that look back over a very long period of time, so they assess more skills. They are summative, cover the whole curriculum. They are organized at higher levels, or even national levels. For example, *English First Certificate* is organized in the following way:

1. Reading comprehension- 3 texts – 1 hour;
2. Composition – 2 compositions (120-180 words) 90 min.;
3. Use of English – 2 hours;
4. Listening comprehension - 4 parts, 30 min.;
5. Interview – picture discussion, passages for comment, communication – 15 min.

Moldovan final exam, Bacalaurate, comprises 3 tasks only. The test may be difficult to cope with, especially with a 300-word essay, for many students. That is why the test should contain a larger number of short tasks, to ensure the minimal passing for low achievers.

Proficiency tests have a diagnostic function and can be held at any moment. It is four-part assessment, because the four skills are assessed. The test is taken by different job applicants and students who apply at universities. The notion of proficiency is strictly linked to the specific field of use. The content of the proficiency tests are specific to the domain of use: banking, medicine, law etc. The purpose is to show in case of several applicants for the same position, who is the most likely candidate to succeed in it.

14.6 Error correction

Error correction is seen as a form of feedback given to learners on their language use. No teacher can deny the fact that correcting the errors made by students when they speak or write is one of the most difficult tasks in language acquisition. Thus, every language practitioner or teacher should consider some of the following issues about error correction: the difference between a mistake and an error, how much correction should be made, at what phases the teacher should correct the error and how the teacher can correct the learner without demotivating him/her.

It is considered important to distinguish *errors* from *mistakes*. They are synonyms. But the difference between these two words is in the context that they are used in. *Error* is defined as resulting from a learner's lack of proper grammatical knowledge. Errors are systematic as they occur repeatedly and are not recognizable by the learner. They are a part of the learner's inter-language and the learner does not generally consider them as errors. They are *errors* only from the perspective of teachers' and others who are aware that the learner has deviated from a grammatical norm. A *mistake* is considered as a failure to utilize a

known system correctly. Mistakes are frequently made by both native speakers and second language learners. However, native speakers are generally able to correct themselves quickly. Such mistakes include slips of the tongue and ungrammatical formations. In other words, mistakes are performance based, and can be self-corrected; they are less formal than errors.

The ability to correct sensitively, efficiently and effectively is a skill that takes time to perfect. Correction seems threatening if it is done badly. The basic principle is that students learn more effectively if they are guided in such a way that they eventually correct themselves rather than if they are given the correct version of something straight away. The struggle to get it right also helps them understand why they were wrong. The main stages in the process are:

1. The student must know something is not accurate. The teacher lets the student finish the utterance. Then s/he makes a gesture or give some not-too-discouraging comments. Teachers shouldn't give black looks or shouts.
2. The student must know where the error is.

E.g. MY wife *come* yesterday. Teachers need to say *the second word* or *not come but…*

By indicating where the error is to help the student correct it. Teachers may also appeal to other students to help correct the error.

3. The student must know what kind of error it is: a grammatical problem, a syntactical, or phonological. Teachers can say: Verb? Tense? Word stress? Wrong word? They can also use:

- Appropriate gestures;
- Facial expressions (surprise, raised eyebrows);
- Repeat the sentence up to error;
- Repeat the sentence but change the intonation when it comes to the error;
- Ask a one-word question (tense? past?);
- Write the sentence on the board for discussion.

Types of corrections

1. Self-correction

Teachers should always give students the chance to correct themselves. They must learn to monitor themselves. If they make a slip, they will welcome the opportunity to correct themselves. Sometimes they need some assistance from teachers knowing where the mistake is and what kind of mistake it is, before they can self-correct.

2. Student-student correction

If the student can`t get it right, it is probably because s/he doesn`t know how to. So, with a gesture, teachers hold the attention and get another student to help out. This has the advantage of:

- Involving all the students in the correction process;

- Making the learning more co-operative generally;
- Reducing student dependence on the teacher;
- Increasing the amount the students listen to each other;
- Giving better students something to do.

Student-student correction must be done carefully, in order not to offence the students with intonation or some annoying words. Teachers should try to choose a student who looks eager to help and return to the first student and let him/her say the correct version.

3. Teacher correction

If neither self-correction nor student correction is effective, teachers must assume that either the student has not understood the topic or doesn`t know what the correct version should be. If it is an important point and others don`t know it either, teachers need to stop and teach it to the whole class. No matter how the correction has been done, the student who made the error should say the correct version in its original context. This is a vital part of any correction process. This can be done by saying *"OK, again or the whole thing please"*. It is important to show awareness of errors: if the teachers are not correcting the errors, it is important to be explicit about *why* they are not correcting errors. This might relate to the focus of the lesson phase (i.e. they might be focusing on fluency development and so may be less worried about accuracy at that point) or the plan (i.e. they might plan to do a delayed error correction feedback phase after an activity rather than correct during the activity). However, it is also very important to respond to *what* learners say, not only focus on *how* they are saying it.

There are other factors to take into account when deciding if a correction should be made: immediately, after a few minutes, at the end of the activity, later in the lesson, at the end of the lesson, later in the course or never. In general it depends on the aim of the activity. The distinction between *accuracy* and *fluency* aims is important here. If the objective is accuracy, then immediate correction is likely to be useful; if the aim is fluency, immediate correction that interrupts the flow of speaking is less appropriate. The feedback given after an activity can be done in a number of ways:

1. Make a note of errors and focus on common ones after the activity. Teachers don`t need to say which student made which error.

2. Record the activity and go through the cassette with the group to examine for mistakes.

3. Give individual students note of errors they have made with instructions how to correct them;

Learners may lose motivation if teachers correct every mistake they make. They need to make sure their corrections are appropriate. Obviously, students are less likely to make errors if the language has been presented with adequate highlighting, clarifying and checking of understanding. They are also likely to

make less mistakes with the form if they have been given sufficient controlled practice in saying and writing the language. One way of helping is to try to anticipate any that might come up. The teacher should familiarize with the typical grammar, lexical and pronunciation problems associated with the mother tongue. By noticing the errors that the students make, teachers can see what needs focusing on in the future lessons. The extent to which students make errors in practical activities can tell us how much new language has been absorbed and how much more practice is needed.

After the test is over

The assessment process shouldn't stop after the final paper has been scored and the last oral presentation has been evaluated. It is important for instructors to evaluate each assessment after it has been administered. Doing so can help instructors interpret the assessment results more accurately and use those results more effectively in their instruction. An analysis of instructor-made assessments can also help screen out items or tasks that did not perform as intended. Rather than assuming that all the questions in an assessment are completely valid or fair, analyze the assessment to determine how good the items really are. When teachers begin to analyze assessment results, they should do two things:

1. Acknowledge that tests can have flaws.

When assessments give unexpected results — for example, the entire class does poorly on an assessment, or the students' responses are not consistent with the type of work the teacher was looking for — it is important to take a close look at the assessment to determine whether it is flawed in some way.

- Did all the students do poorly on the same question or set of questions?
- Did students who are more able, based on other evidence, do well on the assessment?
- Did students answer the assessment appropriately but fail to give the answers teachers were looking for?
- Was the task well defined and clearly written?

If the entire class failed the test, it might indicate that the material was not taught adequately, or the assessment was so poorly written that the students were unable to apply their knowledge appropriately. Having students explain why they answered a question in a certain way can help the teacher determine whether the problem is in the question (or task), or in the students' understanding of the concept being assessed.

2. Identify each student's strengths and weaknesses.

Teachers should take a look at each student's strengths and weaknesses, based on his/her patterns of performance. This information can help arrange for the next set of instructions to either remedy problems or build on strengths. For example, if a particular group of students has difficulty with one set of items that measures a similar set of skills, then these students might need extra instruction

or a different kind of instruction. Or, if everybody in the class had difficulty with a particular issue that teachers thought was emphasized in class, then they need to determine if there was a problem with the instruction, the material, or both.

REFLECTION

1. How is successful learning identified and assessed?
2. In what way is self-assessment and assessment by others applied?
3. Can the students control and assess their learning behavior and their results themselves?
4. Can the students identify the learning behavior of other colleagues through peer evaluation?
5. In marking the students' work, are the marks defined by unbiased criteria?
6. Do the standards of performance in the test correspond to those of the curriculum?

TASKS FOR INDEPENDENT WORK

Group work:

- Students discuss and describe what is most important in student work in relation to identified learning goals.
- The teacher proposes four general categories of criteria that can be used to evaluate student work depending on the targeted standards or outcomes and the purpose of the performance task. The four criteria types focus on evaluating *content*, *process*, *quality,* and *impact*.
- Students assess a common group activity from this perspective.

E- Learning tools for distance educoation

With the growing concerns over COVID-19, many educational institutions have moved classroom instructiononline for the foreseeable future. This change presents challenges on many levels for educators, administrators, students, and families. The following recommended tools maybe helpful in making the transition to digital learning during this difficult time.

These resources include general e-learning tools for educators, subject-based tools for students, and extensions to assist students with learning differences. Almost all of these resources are free.

FREE GENERAL E-LEARNING TOOLS / SITES FOR EDUCATORS

Tool Name	Description	Link(s)
Age of Learning	Offering free access to ABCMouse, ReadingIQ,etc. to those affected by COVID-19 closures.	https://www.ageoflearning.com/
Biteable	Simple video creation/editing tool.	https://biteable.com/
Canva	Tool to design graphics, infographics, etc.	https://www.canva.com/
EdModo	Tool for communicating and sharing classroom content.	https://go.edmodo.com/teachers/
Factile	Tool to create review games, like Jeopardy.	https://www.playfactile.com/
FlipGrid	Video-based tool for interactive discussions.	https://info.flipgrid.com/
Kahoot	Game-based site for educators to createinteractive quizzes.	https://kahoot.com/
Khan Academy	Online lessons and resources for K-12 educators to use, as well as AP/SAT prep.	https://www.khanacademy.org/
Nearpod	Tool for creating simple, interactive presentations that can easily be shared.	https://nearpod.com/how-it-works/

Padlet	Tool for educators to create digital bulletin boards or webpages.	https://padlet.com/
Quizlet	Tool that allows educators to create digitalflashcards and study games.	https://quizlet.com/teachers
Screen-cast-O-Matic	Simple-to-use screen-recording tool.	https://screencast-o-matic.com/
Seesaw	Offering free resources for administrators and educators affected by COVID-19 closures.	https://bit.ly/2TOdAd8
TesTeach	Tool for educators to create interactive presentations, lessons, or projects.	https://bit.ly/3cWw7ev
Socrative	Tools for real-time quizzing, generating results, and visualizing progress.	https://www.socrative.com/
Duolingo	Language-learning app for students, including interactive adaptive games.	https://www.duolingo.com/
GoNoodle	Engaging videos for students, focused on supporting physical wellness/social- emotional health	https://www.gonoodle.com/
VisuWords	Graphic dictionary for students tovisualize words/associations.	https://visuwords.com/page/about
Colorblind	Google Chrome browser extension that supports students who may be colorblind.	https://bit.ly/2wOuiA3
Google classroom	Help classes connect remotely, communicate and stay – organized.	https://classroom.google.com
Dyslexie Font	A font designed to make reading easier forstudents with dyslexia (30-day free trial available).	https://www.dyslexiefont.com/
Grammarly	Google Chrome browser extension tocheck grammar/spelling.	https://bit.ly/33eJP86

Hemmingway App	Free desktop app to highlight lengthy sentences and provide grammar guidance.	http://www.hemingwayapp.com/
MindMeister	Free mind-mapping software.	https://bit.ly/2xAfZiP
Edpuzzle	A variety of websites, including YouTube can be used with commentary and comprehension questions to personalize it for students.	https://edpuzzle.com/content
A Web Whiteboard	The perfect tool for class brainstorming sessions. This is an online whiteboard app for computer, tablet, or smartphone.	https://awwapp.com/
Formative	Teachers can create an assignment, get live results from students. and present them with real-time feedback in an instant, too.	https://goformative.com/
Teaching Channel	This is a video resource for professional development. It covers the core subjects and all grades.	https://www.teachingchannel.com/
Canvas	A learning management platform, an open-source option, with several different built-in tools that handle the needs of remote students, teachers, and parents.	https://www.instructure.com/canvas/try-canvas
Learning Apps	An excellent language-learning application for teachers and students, including interactive adaptive games.	https://learningapps.org/index.php?overview&s=&category=0&tool=
Thinglink	Thinglink allows educators to create interactive images with music, sounds, texts, and photographs.	https://www.thinglink.com/
TED-Ed	TED-Ed is an educational platform that allows creating educational lessons with the collaboration of teachers, students, animators—generally people who want to expand knowledge and good ideas.	https://ed.ted.com/

ClassDojo	A tool to improve student behavior: teachers provide their students with instant feedback so that good disposition in class is 'rewarded' with points and students have a more receptive attitude towards the learning process.	https://www.classdojo.com/el-gr/
Storybird	Aims to promote writing and reading skills through storytelling.	https://storybird.com/
Talking-Points	Multilingual texting tool that enhances school-to-home communication.	https://www.commonsense.org/education/app/talkingpoints
Common Curriculum	Flexible and collaborative lesson planning, calendar design, and classroom site creator save teachers precious time.	https://www.commonsense.org/education/website/common-curriculum
Future learn	Online courses to help learners study, build professional skills and conncet with experts.	https://www.futurelearn.com/
Spiral	Engaging, easy-to-use tool that supports both formative and summative assessment while allowing for student collaboration.	https://www.commonsense.org/education/website/spiral

More educational apps suggested by UNESCO can be found on the link below. The list of educational applications, platforms and resources below aim to help parents, teachers, schools and school administrators facilitate student learning and provide social care and interaction during periods of school closure. Most of the solutions curated are free and many cater to multiple languages. While these solutions do not carry UNESCO's explicit endorsement, they tend to have a wide reach, a strong user-base and evidence of impact. They are categorized based on distance learning needs, but most of them offer functionalities across multiple categories.

https://en.unesco.org/covid19/educationresponse/solutions

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