

Language Teaching Methodology and Educational Technologies

60111800- Foreign language and literature (English)

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*Language Teaching
Methodology and
Educational Technologies*

TASHKENT 2025

ANNOTATION

This textbook, titled "Language Teaching Methodology and Educational Technologies" serves as a comprehensive guide for students pursuing studies in language teaching and educational technology fields. It explores a variety of instructional strategies and the effective integration of tech tools in language education. The guide is structured to enhance both theoretical understanding and practical application, offering detailed insights into modern teaching methodologies. It includes case studies, interactive activities, and examples that align with current pedagogical standards and address the evolving needs of language educators in a digital age. This textbook is an essential resource for students aiming to develop their expertise in creating engaging and effective language learning environments using cutting-edge educational technologies.

ANNOTATSIYA

“Til o'qitish metodikasi va ta'lim texnologiyalari” nomli o'quv qo'llanma til o'qitish va ta'lim texnologiyalari sohasida ta'lim oluvchi talabalar uchun mo'ljallangan atroflicha qo'llanma hisoblanadi. Bu qo'llanma turli o'qitish strategiyalari va til ta'limida texnologik vositalarni samarali integratsiyalashni o'rganadi. Nazariy bilimlarni chuqurlashtirish va amaliy qo'llanilishini rivojlantirishga mo'ljallangan bo'lib, zamonaviy o'qitish metodikalariga doir batafsil ma'lumotlarni taqdim etadi. Bu yerda amaliy misollar, interfaol mashg'ulotlar va hozirgi pedagogik standartlarga mos keladigan holatlarni o'rganish kiritilgan. Ushbu o'quv qo'llanma zamonaviy ta'lim texnologiyalaridan foydalangan holda jalb qiluvchi va samarali til o'rganish muhitini yaratishda malakasini oshirishni maqsad qilgan talabalar uchun zarur resurs hisoblanadi.

АННОТАЦИЯ

Учебное пособие “Методика преподавания языков и образовательные технологии” предназначено для студентов, изучающих методики преподавания языков и образовательные технологии. Оно охватывает различные стратегии обучения и эффективное внедрение технологических инструментов в преподавание языков. Пособие разработано для углубления теоретических знаний и практического применения, предлагая подробные сведения о современных методиках обучения. Включает в себя кейс-стади, интерактивные активности и примеры, соответствующие современным педагогическим стандартам и адресующие эволюционирующие потребности преподавателей языков в цифровую эпоху. Это учебное пособие является необходимым ресурсом для студентов, стремящихся развить свои навыки создания привлекательной и эффективной среды для изучения языков с использованием передовых образовательных технологий.

CONTENTS:

PREFACE	5
UNIT 1 INTRODUCTION TO THE SUBJECT MATTER OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES	6
§ 1.1 Historical overview of language teaching methods and approaches... ..	9
§ 1.2 The use of modern educational technologies and interactive methods in teaching English as a foreign languages.....	19
§ 1.3 A procedure (Presentation, Practice and Production)	26
UNIT 2 TEACHING PRONUNCIATION. MODERN TECHNOLOGIES OF TEACHING PRONUNCIATION.....	32
§ 2.1 Self-study and blended teaching and learning	40
§ 2.2 Technology in teaching	45
§ 2.3 The teacher's meta-language	54
UNIT 3 ERROR CORRECTION TECHNIQUES FOR EFL LEARNERS	59
§ 3.1 Teaching speaking skills. Modern technologies of teaching speaking.....	62
§ 3.2 Teaching reading skills. Modern technologies of teaching reading...	69
§ 3.3 Teaching writing skills. Modern technologies of teaching writing....	77
§ 3.4 Teaching listening skills. Modern technologies of teaching listening	88
§ 3.5 Teaching vocabulary skills. Modern technologies of teaching vocabulary.....	98
UNIT 4 MATERIAL DESIGN AND EVALUATION	108
§ 4.1 Material design and observation. Selecting & analyzing course books	112
§ 4.2 The relation between syllabus, course book, and materials	119
§ 4.3 Role of digital tools, apps and platforms.....	124
§ 4.4 The problem of evaluation and adaptation teaching materials.	128
§ 4.5 Planning classroom assessment. Test methods.....	134
Answers	141
Glossary	142
References	149

PREFACE

Welcome to "Language Teaching Methodology and Educational Technologies," a textbook designed to equip students with the essential skills and knowledge necessary to thrive in the fields of language education and educational technology. This textbook aims to bridge the gap between traditional language teaching methods and modern technological advancements, providing a comprehensive overview of both areas.

As we delve into the complexities of teaching languages, this book offers detailed explanations of various teaching methodologies, from classical approaches to the latest in communicative and interactive strategies. Each chapter is structured to introduce you to key concepts, followed by practical applications and examples that demonstrate how these methods can be integrated into real-world teaching scenarios.

Furthermore, the integration of educational technologies is emphasized throughout the text, showcasing how digital tools and resources can enhance language learning. You will learn about the latest tech tools that are reshaping how languages are taught and learned, including multimedia resources, virtual classrooms, and language learning apps. This textbook also includes discussions on curriculum development, assessment methods, and the psychological aspects of language learning, providing a well-rounded foundation for aspiring language educators.

Whether you are a novice teacher or a student specializing in language education, "Language Teaching Methodology and Educational Technologies" will serve as a valuable resource, guiding you through the intricacies of effective language teaching and the use of technology in education. Embrace this journey of learning and discovery, and equip yourself to make a significant impact in the field of language education.

Introduction to the subject matter of teaching foreign languages

Keywords: *methods, diagnosing, treating, assessing, A Principled Approach, tinkering, dynamic teaching, TESOL, theory-philosophy conceptions, art- craft conceptions*



“Methods” as we historically understand the term in the profession, are not a relevant issue in the sophisticated process of diagnosing, treating, and assessing learners of foreign languages. We have emerged well beyond the dark ages of language teaching when a handful of prepackaged elixirs filled up a small shelf of options. Although traces of the principal ingredients of the old methods still effectively find their way into our array of pedagogical options for treatment, our profession has emerged into an era of understanding a vast number of language teaching contexts and purposes, and an even larger number of student needs, learning styles, and affective traits. As teachers and teacher trainees develop and carry out classroom techniques, they can benefit by grounding everything they do in well-established principles of language learning and teaching. In so doing, they will be less likely to bring a prepackaged – and possibly ineffective – method to bear, and more likely to be directly responsive to their students’ purposes and goals.

A Principled Approach

An approach to language pedagogy is not just a set of static principles “set in stone”. It is, in fact, a dynamic composite of energies within a teacher that changes (or should change, if one is a growing teacher) with continued experience in learning and teaching. There is far too much that we do not know collectively about this process, and there are far too many new research findings pouring in, to assume that a teacher can confidently assert that he or she knows everything that needs to be known about language and language learning.

One teacher's approach may, differ on various issues from that of a colleague, or even of "experts" in the field, who differ among themselves. There are two reasons for variation at the approach level: an approach is by definition dynamic and therefore subject to some "tinkering" as a result of one's observation and experience; and research in second language acquisition and pedagogy almost always yields findings that are subject to interpretation rather than giving conclusive evidence.

The interaction between one's approach and classroom practice is the key to dynamic teaching. The best teachers are able to take calculated risks in the classroom: as new student needs are perceived, innovative pedagogical techniques are attempted, and the follow-up assessment yields an observed judgment on their effectiveness. Initial inspiration for such innovation comes from the approach level, but the feedback that teachers gather from actual implementation then reshapes and modifies their overall understanding of what learning and teaching are – which, in turn, may give rise to a new insight and more innovative possibilities, and the cycle continues.

Aims and Principles of Foreign Language

Teaching Aims are the first and most important consideration in any teaching. Hence the teacher should know exactly what his pupils are expected to achieve in learning his subject, what changes he can bring about in his pupils at the end of the course, at the end of the year, term, month, week, and each particular lesson, he should know the aims and objectives of foreign language teaching. The changes the teacher must bring about in his pupils may be threefold: practical —pupils acquire habits and skills in using a foreign language; educational — they develop their mental abilities and intelligence in the process of learning the foreign language; cultural — pupils extend their knowledge of the world in which they live. Therefore, there are three aims, at least, which should be achieved in foreign language teaching: practical, educational, and cultural. Theories of Teaching in Language Teaching The field of TESOL is shaped in substantial ways by how the nature of language teaching is conceptualized. As with teaching in general, language Teaching foreign language methodology 10 teaching can be conceived in many different ways – for example,

as a science, a technology, a craft, or an art. Different views of language teaching lead to different views as to what the essential skills of teaching are, and to different approaches to the preparation of teachers. The purpose of this paper is to examine conceptualizations of teaching, which are found in TESOL, and to consider the implications of different views of teaching for second language teacher education. In an important paper on the relationship between theories of teaching and teaching skills, Zahorik (1986) classifies conceptions of teaching into three main categories: science- research conceptions, theory-philosophy conceptions, and art-craft conceptions. I will take this classification as my starting point, illustrating it with examples from the field of language teaching. I will then examine how each conception of teaching leads to differences in our understanding of what the essential skills of teaching are.



Questions:

1. What is it "set in stone"?
2. What are the two reasons for variation of the approach level?
3. What is the key to dynamic teaching?
4. What is the most important consideration in any teaching?
5. How many aims are there which should be achieved in foreign language teaching?
6. What are those aims, which should be achieved in foreign language teaching?



1 What do teachers and teacher trainees develop and carry out?

- a) classroom techniques
- b) b motivational speech
- c) c handouts

2 *What is it in fact an approach to language pedagogy?*

- a) set in stone
- b) dynamic composite of energies
- c) grounding everything

3 *How many reasons are there for variation at the approach level?*

- a) Two
- b) Three
- c) One

4 *The interaction between one's approach and classroom practice is the key to what?*

- a) dynamic teaching
- b) Progress
- c) Findings

5 *Initial inspiration for such Innovation comes from the...?*

- a) approach level
- b) important consideration
- c) Habits

6 *What is the first and important consideration in any teaching?*

- a) strict rules
- b) teaching aims
- c) important materials

Historical overview of language teaching methods and approaches

Keywords: *Audiolingualism, methods, designer methods, curriculum development, CLT, needs analysis, syllabus, materials development, grammar-translation method*



Method A method is the practical classroom realization of an approach. The originators of a method have arrived at decisions, which will bring the approach they believe in to life. Methods include various procedures and techniques (see below) as part of their standard fare. When methods have fixed procedures, informed by a clearly articulated approach, they are easy to describe. However, if a method takes procedures and techniques from a wide range of sources (some of which are used in other methods or are informed by other beliefs), it is more difficult to continue describing it as a ‘method’.

Methodology If we have strong beliefs about language learning, it will be easy to see if the materials we are looking at match our beliefs. We need to have an idea of what kind of teaching and learning the material provokes – the methods, techniques and procedures it suggests (see above). For this reason, it is worth going through the material in detail and noting down the different procedures that are on offer to see if we agree with them and whether there is, for example, enough variety. methodology is just one factor in language learning. Other factors may be important, and other methods and approaches may be equally valid. His solution is for teachers to do some kind of ‘context analysis’ before they start teaching so that they can develop their own procedures from the range of methodological knowledge and techniques they have available to them. They then reflect on and evaluate what has happened in order to decide how to proceed This is important as it can counteract the tendency of teachers to impose their own methodological views and practices onto any class, even when, sometimes, they do not know they are doing this. But even where we don’t teach “a method”, a post-method “wish list” may reflect a set of cultural values which can be inappropriate in the context we are teaching in.

Common acronyms in teaching methodology:

Acronym	Meaning	Definition
EFL	English as a Foreign Language	English taught outside English speaking regions
ESL	English as a Second Language	English taught inside English speaking regions to non-native learners
EYL	English for Young Learners	English taught as an additional language to very young to young learners up to, normally, primary level
ESP	English for Specific Purposes	English taught for specific occupational purposes such as English for medicine and for business
EAP	English for Academic Purposes	English taught to those who wish to study at institutes of higher education
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning	English taught in cross-curricular programmes in which content subjects and language are taught at the same time.
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching	based on the target of language teaching and learning for effective and real life communication
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference	an international standard for describing language ability
TL	Target Language	the language being learnt
EL	English learner	
ELF	English as a lingua franca	English when it is used between two or more people who do not have the same first language
ELL	English language learner	Often used to refer to a student in an ESL or EFL program
TEFL	Teaching English as a foreign language	Often used to refer to teacher education programs in EFL
TESL	Teaching English as a second language.	Often used to refer to teacher education programs in ESL

TESOL	Teaching English to speakers of other languages	It refers to teaching English to non native English speakers either abroad or in English-speaking countries, though it is most often used to refer to language instruction that occurs in English-speaking countries.
CELTA	Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults	It is the most widely recognised English teaching qualification in the world and the most often requested by employers; three out of four English language teaching jobs require a CELTA Qualification
(T)YLE	(Teaching) Young Learners English	It presents foundational concepts, best practices and practical suggestions on how to develop lessons and activities for the energetic
BE	Business English	It is the type of English used in business contexts, such as international trade, commerce, finance, insurance, banking, and many office settings.

The notion of teaching methods has had a long history in language teaching, as is witnessed by the rise and fall of a variety of methods throughout the recent history of language teaching. Some, such as Audiolingualism, became the orthodox teaching methods of the 1970s in many parts of the world. Other guru-led methods such as the Silent Way attracted small but devoted followers in the 1980s and beyond, but attract little attention today. Many teachers have found the notion of methods attractive over the last one hundred or so years, since they offer apparently fool proof systems for classroom instruction and are hence sometimes embraced enthusiastically as a panacea for the “language teaching problem.” The 1970s and 1980s were perhaps the years of greatest enthusiasm for methods. In what has been called the “post-methods era,” attention has shifted to teaching and learning processes and the contributions of the individual teacher to language teaching pedagogy. Brown discusses a number of reasons for the decline of the methods syndrome in contemporary discussions of language teaching. As he and others have

commented, the notion of all-purpose “designer methods” that will work anywhere and for everyone raises a number of problems. Methods are typically top-down impositions of experts’ views of teaching. The role of the individual teacher is minimized. His or her role is to apply the method and adapt his or her teaching style to make it conform to the method. Methods are hence prescriptive. Methods fail to address the broader contexts of teaching and learning and focus on only one small part of a more complex set of elements.

Brown describes what may be called a “curriculum development” approach to teaching, which begins with diagnosis (i.e., needs analysis, syllabus, and materials development), then moves to treatment (i.e., instruction and pedagogy), and involves issues of assessment (i.e., testing and evaluation). For Brown, the term method is best replaced by the term pedagogy. The former implies a static set of procedures, whereas the latter suggests the dynamic interplay between teachers, learners, and instructional materials during the process of teaching and learning. Brown characterizes the basis of language teaching pedagogy in terms of twelve principles that reflect current research and theory about second language acquisition.

Richards seeks to show how three different conceptions of teaching in the recent history of language teaching have led to different understandings of the essential skills of teachers and to different approaches to teacher training and teacher development. Science research conceptions of teaching seek to develop teaching methods from applications of research, and see improvements in teaching as dependent on research into learning, motivation, memory, and related factors. Good teaching is a question of applying the findings of research. Task-Based Language Teaching and attempts to apply brain research to teaching are current examples of this approach. Theory-philosophy conceptions of teaching derive from rational “commonsense” understandings of teaching or from one’s ideology or value system, rather than from research. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is a good example of this approach, since it is based on an ideology rather than a research agenda, as are such movements as Critical Theory and Critical Pedagogy. Advocates of these movements see their mission as to convince teachers of the correctness of

the theory, to review their teaching to see to what extent it matches their values, and to seek to incorporate the relevant principles or values into their teaching. Art-craft conceptions of teaching, by comparison, see good teaching as something unique and personal to teachers. A teaching theory is viewed as something that is constructed by individual teachers. From this perspective, teaching is viewed as driven by teachers' attempts to integrate theory and practice. Teacher-education programs give teachers a grounding in academic theory and research, which they test out against the practical realities of teaching. In so doing, they create their own new understandings of teaching. Many of the issues highlighted in this section will reappear throughout this collection of papers. In many of the papers, the writers describe approaches to teaching which are informed by educational theory and practice and exemplify many of the issues Brown touches on in his paper, as well as one or another of the conceptions of teaching described by Richards. At the same time, many of the papers illustrate the personal and unique solutions to problems and issues that individual teachers or groups of teachers often find in their teaching, demonstrating that for many teachers the day-to-day process of teaching is a kind of ongoing research and experimentation.

Language education is the teaching and learning of a foreign or second language. **Language education is a branch of applied linguistics.**

Need for language education. Increasing globalization has created a large need for people in the workforce who can communicate in multiple languages. The uses of common languages are in areas such as trade, tourism, international relations, technology, media, and science. Many countries such as Korea (Kim Yeong-seo, 2009), Japan (Kubota, 1998) and China (Kirkpatrick & Zhichang, 2002) frame education policies to teach at least one foreign language at the primary and secondary school levels. However, some countries such as India, Singapore, Malaysia, Pakistan, and the Philippines use a second official language in their governments. According to GAO (2010), China has recently been putting enormous importance on foreign language learning, especially the English language.

Ancient to medieval period. Although the need to learn foreign languages is almost as old as human history itself, the origins of modern language education are in the study and teaching of Latin in the 17th century. Latin had centuries been the dominant language of education, commerce, religion, and French, Italian, and English displaced government in much of the Western world, but it by the end of the 16th century. John Amos Comenius was one of many people who tried to reverse this trend. He composed a complete course for learning Latin, covering the entire school curriculum, culminating in his *Opera Didactica Omnia*, 1657. In this work, Comenius also outlined his theory of language acquisition. He is one of the first theorists to write systematically about how languages are learned and about pedagogical methodology for language acquisition. He held that language acquisition must be allied with sensation and experience. Teaching must be oral. The schoolroom should have models of things, and failing that, pictures of them. As a result, he also published the world's first illustrated children's book, *Orbis Sensualium Pictus*. The study of Latin diminished from the study of a living language to be used in the real world to a subject in the school curriculum. Such decline brought about a new justification for its study. It was then claimed that its study developed intellectual abilities, and the study of Latin grammar became an end in and of itself. "Grammar schools" from the 16th to 18th centuries focused on teaching the grammatical aspects of Classical Latin. Advanced students continued grammar study with the addition of rhetoric.

18th century. The study of modern languages did not become part of the curriculum of European schools until the 18th century. Based on the purely academic study of Latin, students of modern languages did much of the same exercises, studying grammatical rules and translating abstract sentences. Oral work was minimal, and students were instead required to memorize grammatical rules and apply these to decode written texts in the target language. This tradition-inspired method became known as the grammar-translation method.

19th–20th century. Innovation in foreign language teaching began in the 19th century and became very rapid in the 20th century. It led to a number of different

and sometimes conflicting methods, each trying to be a major improvement over the previous or contemporary methods. The earliest applied linguists included Jean Manesca, Heinrich Gottfried Ollendorff (1803–1865), Henry Sweet (1845–1912), Otto Jespersen (1860–1943), and Harold Palmer (1877–1949). Henry Sweet was a key figure in establishing the applied linguistics tradition in language teaching. They worked on setting language teaching principles and approaches based on linguistic and psychological theories. They left many of the specific practical details for others to devise. Those looking at the history of foreign-language education in the 20th century and the methods of teaching (such as those related below) might be tempted to think that it is a history of failure. Very few students in U.S. universities who have a foreign language as a major manage to reach something called “minimum professional pro-efficiency”. Even the “reading knowledge” required for a PhD degree is comparable only to what second-year language students read and only very few researchers who are native English speakers can read and assess information written in languages other than English. Even a number of famous linguists are monolingual. However, anecdotal evidence for successful second or foreign language learning is easy to find, leading to a discrepancy between these cases and the failure of most language programs, which helps make the research of second language acquisition emotionally charged. Older methods and approaches such as the grammar translation method or the direct method are dismissed and even ridiculed as newer methods, approaches are invented and promoted as the only, and complete solution to the problem of the high failure rates of foreign language students. Most books on language teaching list the various methods that have been used in the past, often ending with the author’s new method. These new methods are usually presented as coming only from the author’s mind, as the authors generally give no credence to what was done before and do not explain how it relates to the new method. For example, descriptive linguists seem to claim unhesitatingly that there were no scientifically based language teaching methods before their work (which led to the audio-lingual method developed for the U.S. Army in World War II). However, there is significant evidence to the contrary. It is also often inferred or

even stated that older methods were completely ineffective or have died out completely when even the oldest methods are still used. One reason for this situation is that proponents of new methods have been so sure that their ideas are so new and so correct that they could not conceive that the older ones have enough validity to cause controversy. This was in turn caused by emphasis on new scientific advances, which has tended to blind researchers to precedents in older work.

It is a common knowledge that there are many languages in the world, and some of them fall into the category of international languages or languages of wider communication groups, such as English, French, German, Spanish, Russian, Italian and Arabic. All these languages are the official languages of the UN. English language is very important nowadays. More and more people need English to attend universities and colleges, because now we have an opportunity to get higher education abroad. New ideas in science and medicine happen so quickly that it is impossible to translate everything into different languages. Most articles are published in English. English is the language of international communication in many areas of life: trade, air and sea transport, tourism and sport. Uzbekistan is establishing closer economic, political, scientific, and cultural relations with various peoples of the world. International relations are extended and strengthened through the exchange of scientific, technical, and cultural information. In this situation, foreign language teaching is a matter of state significance. In modern society, language is used in two ways: directly or orally, and indirectly or in written form. Thus, we distinguish oral language and written language. Direct communication implies a speaker and a hearer, indirect communication implies a writer and a reader. Hence, the practical aims in teaching a foreign language are four in number: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Aims are the first and most important consideration in any teaching. Hence the teacher should know exactly what his pupils are expected to achieve in learning his subject, what changes he can bring about in his pupils at the end of the course, at the end of the year, term, month, week, and each particular lesson, he should know the aims and objectives of foreign language teaching. The changes the teacher must bring about in his pupils may be

practical—pupils acquire habits and skills in using a foreign language; educational — they develop their mental abilities and intelligence in the process of learning the foreign language; cultural — pupils extend their knowledge of the world in which they live. Therefore, there are three aims, at least, which should be achieved in foreign language teaching: practical, educational, and cultural.



Questions:

1. When was the greatest enthusiasm for methods?
2. What does Brown claim about decline of the methods in language teaching?
3. What does "curriculum development" involve in?
4. Who showed three different conceptions of teaching and what was the meaning of it?
5. There are some countries, which use a second official language in their governments. What are they?
6. By the end of the 16th century Latin was displaced by what languages?



1 Who describes a “curriculum development” approach?

- a) Richards
- b) Brown
- c) Comenius

2 What does CLT mean?

- a) Communicative Language Teaching
- b) Critical Language Test
- c) Communicative Laws Teaching

3 *What languages had been dominant languages for many years in Western world?*

- a) English
- b) French
- c) Latin

4 *Whose work is “Opera Didaclica Omnia”?*

- a) Richards
- b) Brown
- c) Comenius

5 *When was “Opera Didaclica Omnia” written?*

- a) 1567
- b) 1657
- c) 1756

6 *Until when the study of modern languages didn't become part of the curriculum of European schools?*

- a) 18th century
- b) 19th century
- c) 20 the century

The use of modern educational technologies and interactive methods in teaching English as a foreign languages

Keywords: *approach, methodology, CLT, Communicative Approach, CLIL, DOGME, Grammar Translation, Lexical Approach, SLT*



An *approach* describes the theory or philosophy underlying how a language should be taught; a *method* or *methodology* describes, in general terms, a

way of implementing the approach (syllabus, progression, kinds of materials); *techniques* describe specific practical classroom tasks and activities. For example:

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is an approach with a theoretical underpinning that a language is for communication.

A CLT methodology may be based on a notional-functional syllabus, or a structural one, but the learner will be placed at the center, with the main aim being developing their Communicative Competence. Classroom activities will be chosen that will engage learners in communicating with each other.

CLT techniques might include role-plays, discussions, text ordering, speaking games, and problem-solving activities.

SOME DIFFERENT APPROACHES, METHODS, AND TECHNIQUES

The Audio-lingual Approach. The Audio-lingual Approach is based on a structuralism view of language and draws on the psychology of behaviorism as the basis of its learning theory, employing stimulus and response. Audio-lingual teaching uses a fairly mechanistic method that exposes learners to increasingly complex language grammatical structures by getting them to listen to the language and respond. It often involves memorizing dialogues and there is no explicit teaching of grammar. Techniques include listening and repeating, oral drilling to achieve a high level of accuracy of language forms and patterns. At a later stage, teachers may use communicative activities.

CLIL - Content and Language Integrated Learning. CLIL is an approach that combines the learning of a specific subject matter with learning the target language. It becomes necessary for learners to engage with the language in order to fulfil the learning objectives. On a philosophical level, its proponents argue that it fosters intercultural understanding, meaningful language use, and the development of transferrable skills for use in the real world. The method employs immersion in the target language, with the content and activities dictated by the subject being taught. Activities tend to integrate all four skills, with a mixture of task types that appeal to different learning styles. Techniques involve reading subject-specific texts, listening to subject-based audio or audio-visual resources, discussions, and subject-related tasks.

CLT - Communicative Language Teaching (The Communicative Approach). CLT emphasizes that the main purpose of language is communication, and that meaning is paramount. The goal of the Communicative Approach is to develop learners' communicative competence across all four skills. It has been the dominant approach in mainstream language education for many decades. Most methodologies use an amalgamation of a structural and a functional syllabus, with a relatively common consensus having emerged concerning the order in which language elements should be taught. Language is generally contextualized, and communication is encouraged from the start. Native speaker input is seen as highly desirable, though not essential. Much teaching is learner-centred. Techniques are an eclectic mix - with techniques often borrowed from a range of other approaches. Because of this, it is often criticised for a lack of robust theoretical underpinning. Specific activities and games are chosen for their perceived effectiveness in relation to the knowledge or skills being taught. Typical activities include physical games such as board races and running dictations, information exchange activities, role-plays – and any tasks and games that involve communication between learners.

DOGME. DOGME is a humanistic communicative approach that focuses on conversational interactions where learners and the teacher work together on the development of knowledge and skills. In terms of method, it generally eschews the use of textbooks and published materials in favor of real communication and the development of discourse-level skills. Language may be scaffolded by the teacher, with attention paid to emergent forms. Topics are chosen based on their relevance to the learners. Techniques include conversational activities and exposure to the language through real-life texts, audio, and video materials.

Grammar Translation. An approach to language study is generally used to prepare students for reading classical texts, notably Latin, in their original. It is thought that students benefit from learning about the ideas of classical thinkers, and from the rigor of rote learning and the application of grammatical rules. The method commonly involves students learning grammar rules plus vocabulary lists based on the content of chosen texts. These are then applied to the written translation of texts from and into the target language. The teaching is usually done in the students'

native language. There is little emphasis on speaking, other than to recite sections of text. Techniques include rote learning and drilling, translation activities, and recitation. This approach is not really used in teaching Modern Foreign Languages but is still sometimes the basis for the teaching of classical languages such as Latin or Greek.

The Lexical Approach. An approach based on the notion that language comprises lexical units (chunks, collocations, and fixed phrases). Grammar is secondary and is acquired through learning these chunks. The method focuses on learning sets of phrase-level, multi-word vocabulary and linguistic frames that can be manipulated by the learner using substitutions and adaptations. This can be done through adapting many standard EFL activities. Techniques could include searching texts for lexical units, collocation matching games, lexical drills and chants, storytelling, role plays using fixed and semi-fixed expressions, activities with de-lexical verbs and examining concordances.

The Natural Approach. An approach to language learning that seeks to mirror how we learn our first language. Methods focus on the possibility of ‘acquiring’ a second language rather than having to learn it artificially. Teaching is by a native-speaker teacher; the syllabus mirrors the order in which we acquire our first language; there is an initial ‘silent phase’ when the learner assimilates aspects of the language, before moving onto producing it. Errors are seen as important attempts to form and use appropriate rules. Techniques focus on meaningful interactions and may include listening and following instructions; ordering activities; memory games; miming activities; describing and guessing games.

The Silent Way. The Silent way sees the process of learning a second language as a cognitive task, with learners as intelligent autonomous individuals, who can infer language use from well-structured input. The methodology employs a graded structural syllabus, with the elements of language presented in a deliberately artificial way, using teaching aids such as charts and Cuisenaire rods. Techniques involve, for example, mapping individual sounds and sequences onto the colors or physical characteristics of the teaching aids, then having students infer rules based on recognizing the systematic similarities and differences in the input material.

Situational Language Teaching (SLT). This approach views language as a purposeful means of achieving goals in real-life situations. The method employs oral practice of sentence patterns and structures related to these specific situations. It often uses props and regalia in practice activities.

Methodology. We did manage to get away from a traditional PPP approach in terms of unit structure since we started each unit with a skills activity rather than a language presentation, but our original ambition to draw target language out of authentic texts failed at the intermediate level, partly because of the difficulty of finding texts which contained clear examples of the focus language together with interesting content. We got nearer to our ambition at the upper-intermediate level. As for our approach to grammar, we found the analytic exercises were not very popular in some parts of the world – they were seen to be too serious and to expect too much from students – and perhaps we should have compromised more by having fewer such exercises. The same feeling applies to our treatment of learner training activities.

Methods vs Techniques. Method and technique are two English words that have nearly same meaning and used almost interchangeably. You do not notice any difference if the user mentions baking method or baking technique of a recipe or when you read about management methods and management techniques. It seems that we have accepted the two words as interchangeable and use them according to our own personal choice or whim. But there are differences in usage of these two terms that will be clear after reading this article. There are a few of us who feel that the word technique is a loaded one and must be used for gadgets and appliances that work on scientific principles though to an extent this is correct as the word technique is etymologically linked with the word technical and technology, the word has come to acquire many meanings and is being used in even every day situations. If we go by dictionary meanings, technique means a systematic procedure, formula, or a routine by which a task is accomplished. On the other hand, method is defined as a habitual, logical, or prescribed practice or systematic process of achieving certain end results with accuracy and efficiency, usually in a preordained sequence of steps.

However, when the method is systematic and based upon logic, it is sometimes referred to as a scientific method which comes even closer to technique. It is thus clear that the words methods and techniques, are very close in meaning but it is better to use technique when we are talking about scientific gadgets and appliances and methods when we are using about abstract and everyday life situations.

Method	Technique
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A habitual, logical, or prescribed practice. • A systematic process of achieving results. • Usually follows a preordained sequence of steps. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A systematic procedure, formula, or routine. • A specific way to carry out a task. • Often associated with skills or technical execution.
<p>Example: Teaching methods, management methods, scientific methods.</p>	<p>Example: Cooking techniques, problem-solving techniques, study techniques.</p>



Questions:

1. Why grammatical exercises were not accepted well by some parts of the world?
2. According to the techniques of DOGME, which skills might it help to improve?
3. Why our original ambition to draw target language out of authentic texts did fail at the intermediate level?
4. In the Lexical Approach, how do students learn the grammar?
5. Why does Communicative language teaching approach have less information about its theories?
6. Although the Grammar Translation method is not used in teaching Modern Foreign Languages, in which cases is it still being used?



1 What is method?

- a) The way of a language teaching

- b) Put into practice the way of a language teaching
- c) Activities and exercises in practice

2 Which method does teach learners difficult and complicated grammar by hearing it with attention and answering?

- a) The Communicative Approach
- b) The Natural Approach
- c) The Audiolingual Approach

3 Which of the following description does the Natural Approach include?

- a) This method teaches the language in artificial way.
- b) This method teaches the language like in the way which we learnt our mother Tongue
- c) This method teaches the language according to the learner's aims and helps to reach them

4 Which method is based on improving reading skills and student learn the opinion of other writers?

- a) The Grammar Translation
- b) The Lexical Approach
- c) Situational Language Teaching

5 DOGME is an approach which gives attention to individual learning.

- a) True
- b) False
- c) Not given

6 Which method did considered to be the best in the last few decades?

- a) The Audiolingual Approach
- b) The Silent Way
- c) The Communicative Approach

A procedure (Presentation, practice and production)

Keywords: *Procedure, PPP, CELTA, Audio-lingualism, teaching language, content-based instruction, CBI, practice, production*



Procedure A procedure is an ordered sequence of techniques. For example, a popular dictation procedure starts when the students are put in small groups. Each group then sends one representative to the front of the class to read (and remember) the first line of a poem which has been placed on a desk there. These representatives then go back to their respective groups and dictate that line. Each group then sends a second student up to read the second line.

The procedure continues until one group has written the whole poem.

A procedure is a sequence which can be described in terms such as *First you do this, then you do that*. Smaller than a method, it is bigger than a technique.

PPP - An approach to teaching language items which follows a sequence of presentation of the item, practice of the item and then production of an item. This is the approach still currently followed by most commercially produced course books. Some applied linguists prefer, however, an experiential PPP approach in which production comes before presentation and practice.

Presentation, practice, production (PPP) is a lesson structure, a way to order activities in your lessons. Although quite old and heavily criticized over the years, PPP is probably the most commonly used lesson structure in teaching English to foreign learners today. It's also still widely taught to new teachers and seen on initial teacher training courses like the CELTA and Cert TESOL. Most course books that you are likely to use will structure their chapters in ways similar or the same as PPP, Meaning that you will get a lot of exposure to this method. As the name suggests, there are three stages of this lesson structure, which we will look at now.

Many traditional approaches to language teaching are based on a focus on grammatical form and a cycle of activities that involves presentation of a new language item, practice of the item under controlled conditions, and a production phase in which the learners try out the form in a more communicative context. This has been referred to as the P-P-P approach and it forms the basis of such traditional methods of teaching as Audio-lingualism and the Structural-Situational Approach. This approach was gradually replaced in the 1980s by teaching methods, which focus on communication (rather than grammar) as the key dimension of learning and teaching. Early models of Communicative Language Teaching used functional units of organization and practice to replace grammatical ones; more recently, however, the unit of “task” has been proposed as an alternative to other units of presentation or practice.

A task is an activity, which learners carry out using their available language resources and leading to a real outcome. Examples of tasks are playing a game, solving a problem, or sharing and comparing experiences. In carrying out tasks, learners are said to take part in such processes as negotiation of meaning, paraphrase, and experimentation, which are thought to lead to successful language development. In the first article in this section, Beglar and Hunt propose how tasks can be used as a basis for teaching and give a detailed account of a 12-week-long task-based learning project. The project involves students working in small groups, choosing a topic of interest, and designing a questionnaire to investigate the topic. Students then administer the questionnaire, analyze and interpret the data, and finally present their findings in class. In carrying out the task, students experience many opportunities for meaningful language use in a realistic context.

Stoller’s paper is written from the perspective of content-based instruction (CBI). CBI seeks to use content (rather than tasks) as the vehicle for developing language skills. A focus on content not only provides valuable real-world knowledge, but also provides the basis for a meaning-based pedagogy that goes beyond a focus on studying language divorced from the context of its use. Stoller

gives a useful overview of the assumptions of content-based instruction and then focuses on project work as a valuable vehicle for integrating language and content learning across a variety of educational settings. Project work shares many features with task work, though it is often more extensive and linked more specifically to the demands of content subjects in the mainstream curriculum. Stoller gives a step-by-step description of how project work can be integrated into the ESL classroom, how a language focus can be incorporated into project work, and the positive benefits that can result from project-based activities.

Before we go any further, we need to talk about a procedure which has close ties to audio-lingual methodology and the oral-situational approach, and which is still, whatever method a teacher follows, widely used for teaching certain kinds of language at lower levels. In this procedure, the teacher introduces a situation, which contextualizes the language to be taught. The language is then presented. The students practice the language, using accurate reproduction techniques such as choral repetition (where they repeat a word, phrase or sentence all together with the teacher ‘conducting’) and individual repetition. Later, in a production phase, the students use the new language to make sentences of their own.

Presentation We show the students the following pictures, one by one, to build up the daily routine of Meera, a doctor at a hospital.

Having established what her job is (*She’s a doctor*), we ask *What time does Meera get up?* and then draw or point to a clock face which shows 6.00. Hopefully, a student will say something like *She gets up at six o’clock*. We then model the sentence (*She gets up at six o’clock*) before isolating the grammar we want to focus on (*gets*), explaining it (*I get, you get, we get, but she gets, he gets*), distorting it (*getS ... sss ... gets*), possibly writing it on the board, putting it back together again (*she gets*) and then giving the model in a natural way once more (*Listen ... She gets up at six o’clock*)

Practice We get the students to repeat the sentence (*She gets up at six o’clock*) in chorus. We may then nominate certain students to repeat it individually, and we correct any mistakes we hear. Now we go back and model more sentences from the

picture (*She works at a hospital, She travels to work by car, She has lunch at one o'clock, etc.*) getting choral and individual repetition where we think this is necessary. Now we are in a position to conduct a slightly freer kind of drill. In this *cue-response drill* we give the cue (*pointing to the picture of a car*) before nominating a student (*Sergio*) who will give the response (*She travels to work by car*). By cueing before nominating, we keep everyone alert. We will avoid nominating students in a predictable order for the same reason. Often we will put the students in pairs to practice the sentences a bit more before listening to a few examples just to check that the learning has been effective.

Production The end of the PPP procedure is production, what some trainers called “immediate creativity”. Here, the students are asked to use the new language (in this case the present simple) in sentences of their own. For example, we may get them to think about their own daily routines so they say things like those that *I get up at nine o'clock. I study at the university, etc.* When students use language to talk about themselves and how they feel and what they do, we call it *personalization*. This is an important form of meaningful practice. Despite its frequent and regular use, the PPP procedure, which was offered to teacher trainees as a significant teaching technique from the middle of the 1960s onwards (though not then referred to as PPP) does have some drawbacks. It is highly teacher-centered and seems to assume that students learn in ‘straight lines’ – that is, starting from no knowledge, through highly restricted sentence-based utterances and then going on to immediate production. However, of course, language is not quite that tidy, in one view, it reflects neither the nature of language nor the nature of learning (Lewis 1993: 190). In response to these criticisms, many people have offered variations on PPP and alternatives to it. As long ago as 1982, Keith Johnson suggested the ‘deep-end strategy’ as an alternative (Johnson 1982), where by encouraging the students into immediate production (throwing them in at the deep end), you turn the procedure on its head. The teacher can now see if, where the students are having problems during this production phase and return to either presentation or practice as, and when necessary after the production phase is over. A few years later, Donn Byrne suggested much the same thing, joining the three phases in a circle. Teachers and

students can decide at which stage to enter the procedure.

Stage	Description
Presentation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Introduce new language (e.g., present simple) using visual aids.• Ask students questions to elicit responses.• Highlight key grammar points (e.g., ‘get’ vs. ‘gets’).• Model correct pronunciation and structure.
Practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Students repeat and drill target sentences.• Choral and individual practice with corrections.• Cue-response drills with unpredictable nomination.• Pair practice for reinforcement.
Production	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Students use the new language to talk about themselves.• Personalization: applying structures in real contexts.• Encourages independent sentence formation.



Questions:

1. What is procedure?
2. What is PPP?
3. How many stages are there (PPP)?
4. What is the teaching process stage of PPP approach?
5. In which stage are drills often used in PPP?
6. What are the three stages of PPP?



1 *In the Presentation phase, who controls most of the teaching/learning process?*

- a) Students
- b) Teacher
- c) Director

2 *In the Presentation phase, what should the materials used by the teacher contain?*

- a) all the targeted linguistic items and structures to be covered during the week
- b) all the targeted linguistic items and structures required by the course syllabus
- c) all the targeted linguistic items and structures for that particular lesson

3 *In the Practice phase, the teacher implements activities that are aimed toward...*

- a) achieving that students have fun and enjoy the class
- b) achieving accuracy of the forms so that fluency can be later achieved in production activities
- c) ensuring that directors witness that students are working

4 *What's the most common type of activity during the Practice phase?*

- a) Free-writing exercises
- b) Drills
- c) Reading comprehension tasks

5 *What's the main aim of the Production phase?*

- a) To help students memorize vocabulary
- b) To have students completing grammar exercises
- c) To increase fluency and precise use of target language through autonomous and more creative activities

6 *In the Production stage "the strategies for achieving the goal are based on freer use of targeted structure." What does "freer" mean?*

- a) students can decide where they do the activities
- b) the teacher designs activities that allow students to express their own ideas
- c) children decide what they will do and bring their own activities to class

Teaching pronunciation. Modern technologies of teaching pronunciation.

Keywords: *communication, speaking task, pronunciation problems, Explicit and implicit knowledge, acquisition, reproduce, incidental, uninstructed*



One of the complications in determining the difficulty of speaking tasks is the so-called interlocutor effect. As we have seen, in any interactional speaking task, communication is a collaborative venture in which the interlocutors negotiate meaning in order to achieve their communicative ends. The difficulty of a task and the success one has in achieving one's communicative goal will be partly determined by the skills of one's interlocutor(s). Interlocutor effect has to be taken into consideration by researchers investigating task difficulty, and also by those designing task-based testing procedures. In developing tests involving interactive speaking, the problem is to devise tasks in which the speaker is not disadvantaged by possible shortcomings on the part of the interlocutor.

Brown and Yule (1983) and Brown (1984) have carried out extensive research into the factors implicated in task difficulty. In conducting their research (which used native speaking, secondary school pupils), Brown (1984) were confronted with a number of major problems. The first was to motivate pupils to talk while working with an unfamiliar interviewer and while being tape recorded. Their solution was to use a series of short tasks conducted under what they describe as ideal conditions and with different content and different demands to sustain the interest of the pupils. Using a wide variety of tasks created a second problem in that they did not wish to end up with 'a hotchpotch of unrelated performances from which no general description could be drawn' (p.49). They solved this problem by devising tasks, which formed related groups, each group being distinguished by a particular communicative skill.

Pronunciation Problems. Two particular problems occur in much pronunciation teaching and learning. What students can hear some students have great difficulty hearing pronunciation features, which we want them to reproduce? This may be because their mother tongues do not use sounds, which English does. Alternatively, it may be because, for example, their mother tongue uses a particular sound, which is ‘halfway’ between two sounds in English. Some Asian speakers have difficulty pronouncing /l/ and /r/ correctly and say, for example, **rie* when they mean *lie*. This is because they may not, without training, actually hear /l/ and /r/ as different sounds. There are two ways of dealing with this: in the first place, we can show the student how sounds are made through demonstration, diagrams and explanation. But we can also draw the sounds to their attention every time they appear on a recording or in our own conversation. In this way, we gradually train the students’ ears (or listening ‘brains’). When they can hear correctly, they are on the way to being able to speak correctly.

What students can say all babies are born with the ability to make the whole range of sounds available to human beings? However, as we grow and focus in on one or two languages, we seem to lose the natural ability to make some of those sounds.

Learning a foreign language often presents us with the problem of physical unfamiliarity (i.e. it sometimes seems physically difficult to make foreign language sounds using particular parts of the mouth, tongue or nasal cavity). To counter this problem, we need to be able to show and explain exactly where sounds are produced (e.g. Where is the tongue in relation to the teeth? What is the shape of the lips when making a certain vowel sound?).

The key to successful pronunciation is first to have the students listen repeatedly so that they notice how English is spoken – either on audio or video or by their teachers. The more aware they are, the greater the chance that their own intelligibility levels will rise when they themselves try to speak clearly.

Explicit and implicit knowledge. Despite the fact that ‘the value in teaching explicit knowledge of grammar has been and remains today one of the most

controversial issues in language pedagogy' there is a convincing consensus that having students focus explicitly on language forms will help them learn. "We need to remind ourselves", Michael Swan suggests, 'that language teaching does mean teaching language: making sure that students are exposed to the highest-priority language forms (words, fixed phrases, structures, aspects of pronunciation), that they learn and practice these forms, and that they become skilled at using them fluently and appropriately'.

In an experiment in Saudi Arabia, students tackled reading passages in the book they were using. Some of them left it at that, but others went on to do focused work on some of the vocabulary from the texts. The first group's exposure to the vocabulary was uninstructed and incidental, whereas the second group were given instruction. What Suhad Sonbul and Norbert Schmitt found was that 'an uninstructed, incidental, approach to L2 vocabulary acquisition does result in lexical gains, but they are modest. However, direct instruction clearly adds value to the learning process and leads to greater learning'. In other words, while comprehensible input may lead to some progress, 'students may reach a point from which they fail to see further progress on some features of second language unless they also have access to guided instruction'. What forms might such 'guided instruction' take?

A glance at the vast majority of course books currently being used around the world will show that they are organized principally on grammatical lines. Different units focus on the cumulative acquisition of grammar structures, starting from what is supposedly easy and progressing to what is more difficult. However, there are some problems with this. In the first place, the order in which things are taught is not necessarily the order in which they are learnt. There is some suggestion that (following on from theories of a universal grammar) there is some 'natural order' of acquisition which 'does not appear to be determined by formal simplicity and there is evidence that it is independent of the order in which rules are taught in language classes'. Manfred Pienemann suggested that the order in which things are successfully learnt subscribes to a predictable

developmental path. This might account for similar developmental errors which students from many language backgrounds tend to make and which follow a predictable pattern.

The grammar syllabus is also focused mostly on what is ‘teachable’, that is, on items which are easy enough to explain and for which the students are ready. But it tries to teach more ‘difficult’ items, too, even though ‘the article system in English is both complex and abstract and notoriously difficult to teach and learn. Thus, learners may be better off learning about article via exposure in the input. On the other hand, a simple ‘rule of thumb’ such as ‘put n -s at the end of a noun to make it plural’ may be a better target for instruction’ (Lightbown and Spada 2013: 193).

Lack of opportunity to practice is also one of the challenge to learning a new language. It is obvious that the easiest way to learn a new language is to immerse in it. For example, living abroad for a few months in a place where one can’t speak the language well, will likely to force him or her to pick it up rather quickly.

Hearing the language all day and having to communicate in the language to do everyday activities train people’s brain more quickly. However, unless they have the chance to immerse themselves among fluent speakers, they may find themselves without many opportunities to practice having conversations with others.

As with learning any new skill, often the biggest obstacle to learning a new language can be as simple as a **loss of motivation**. No matter how excited people are at the beginning, they will encounter the inevitable slump. Every long term project that takes some effort requires staying motivated to get through the most difficult parts. The key here is to figure out what will motivate learners enough to push through.

Vocabulary is one of the integral parts of learning any language, including English. This language has hundreds and thousands of words and it is impossible to know all of them at a given time. Even native speakers do not

know all the words of their mother tongue. However, as we saw in 2.5.3, words group together in collocations and lexical phrases (or chunks) and this formulaic language competence ‘is directly linked to automatized, fluent language production’ (Do’rnyei 2013: 168). The fluent speaker of a language deploys these chunks ‘automatically’ just as, perhaps, improvising jazz musicians deploy a large number of different musical licks (or chunks) to build, in different sequences and keys, their ‘conversations’ (Van Schaick 2013). Thus, according to Rod Ellis, ‘It may pay to focus on these (and more generally on vocabulary) with beginner learners, delaying the grammar teaching until later’ (Ellis 2014: 33).

When theorists drew our attention to the work of philosophers such as Austin, it was to remind us that language is used for doing things – that it has a purpose. This gave rise, towards the end of the twentieth century, to syllabuses of language functions, which challenged for a moment, the supremacy of grammar lists. These meaning-focused items prompted students to study and practice dialogues for apologizing, suggesting, agreeing, etc. and were included in teaching materials.

Although the grammar syllabus still dominates the way that many people think about language learning – despite some of the doubts we have raised here – syllabus designers have become increasingly aware of the need to focus on vocabulary and the way that words cluster and chunk together, and on the purpose of these chunks within the act of communication.

The role of other languages (translation) Many years ago at a conference in Singapore, Peter Martin (2006) quoted an English language teacher from Brunei whom he had interviewed:

“I try not to (use Malay) but sometimes you have to. If we don’t use Malay, they won’t understand, especially some of the textbooks. The words are difficult. I don’t like to use Malay if inspectors are here but I sometimes do. Otherwise, they (the pupils) and they don’t (the inspectors) might consider us as bad teachers”.

In one short contribution, this teacher encapsulates many of the issues that surround the use of the students' first language (L1) in an English language (L2) classroom. Perhaps the most striking aspect is the suggestion that the inspector would frown upon her use of the students' language in a lesson. Clearly, she would be doing something wrong. The idea that the only language that teachers and students can use in the foreign language classroom is the one they are learning came about because of the direct method's insistence on the use of the target language. In addition, perhaps it came about, too, because teachers from English-speaking countries were travelling the world teaching people whose first language they themselves could not speak. Perhaps it was also the result of a methodology grounded in the problems and advantages of teaching classes where the students have a mixture of first languages (in countries such as the UK, the USA, Canada and Australia). In such situations, English becomes not only the focus of learning but also the medium of instruction. However, for whatever reason, there is still a strong body of opinion, which says that the classroom should be an English-only environment.

Learning is about people. So far, we have considered issues of language and more or less psycholinguistic and cognitive notions of how languages are learnt. However, as Alan Maley reminds us, 'people are more central to the learning enterprise than methods or theories or research findings or systems of education' (Maley 2013: 157). In such a view, education (whether language learning or anything else) is about self-actualization and personal growth. It is these concerns that should be the focus of classroom practice. A famous book written from this perspective was called *Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class* (Moskowitz 1978), and it included a number of language activities designed to make the students feel better about themselves. A number of 'designer methods' (Celce-Murcia 2014b: 9) emerged in the second half of the twentieth century and these espoused a *humanistic approach* to language learning (we will consider these in Chapter 4). What made these methods humane or humanist, in Heidi Byrnes' view, was the central role they give in

teaching and learning ‘to learners’ feelings, both emotional and aesthetic; to social relations, including friendship and cooperation ... and to self-actualization that pursues a path towards individuality’ (Byrnes 2013: 223).

A concern with the students’ feelings is at the heart of the teacher’s desire to create good ‘rapport’ (see 6.1.1) – that positive relationship between the students and their ‘coach’ and between the students themselves. The same concern is central to our decisions about when to give corrective feedback, for example, and how to do it for each individual (see 8.3); it helps us to decide what we might ask our students to talk about and how much we might expect them to reveal about themselves. We know that affective engagement (how people feel) helps students to remember things (like new vocabulary, etc.), and we know that people learn better when they feel positive about it. How much we want to ask them to reveal about their inner selves is less clear, however.



Questions:

1. What are the main problems in pronunciation teaching and learning?
2. How students who have problems with pronunciation can deal with this difficulty?
3. How people can lose the natural ability to make whole range of sounds available to human beings?
4. What does a person’s success in achieving a communicative goal partly depend on?
5. What is the challenge in developing tests that include interactive speech?
6. Who should take in consideration the interlocutor effect?



1 When students can hear correctly, what they able to do correctly?

- a) To speak correctly
- b) To write correctly
- c) To answer the questions correctly

2 *Which speakers face to difficulties with pronouncing / l / and / r / correctly?*

- a) German speakers
- b) Russian speakers
- c) Asian speakers

3 *Learning a foreign language often presents us with the problem of...*

- a) Hearing
- b) Writing
- c) Physical unfamiliarity

4 *There are two ways of dealing with pronunciation problems and what are they?*

- a) Show students how sounds are made through demonstration, diagrams and explanations or we can draw the sounds in their attention in our conversation or every time they appear on a recording
- b) Ask them repeat sounds after recording
- c) Ask them make conversations with their partners

5 *Which parts of the body have physical difficulties during learning a new language?*

- a) Nose and eyes
- b) Mouth, tongue and nasal cavity
- c) Ears, mouth

6 *Which country experimented students tackled reading passages in the book they were using?*

- a) USA
- b) Finland
- c) Saudi Arabia

Self-study and blended teaching and learning

Keywords: *Audio recordings, learning tools, software records, TTS, learning management systems, hosted platforms, blended learning*



Hundreds of languages are available for self-study, from scores of publishers, for a range of costs, using a variety of methods. The course itself acts as a teacher and has to choose a methodology, just as classroom teachers do.

Audio recordings and books Audio recordings use native speakers, and one strength is helping learners improve their accent. Some recordings have pauses for the learner to speak. Others are continuous so the learner speaks along with the recorded voice, similar to learning a song. Audio recordings for self-study use many of the methods used in classroom teaching, and have been produced on records, tapes, CDs, DVDs and websites. Most audio recordings teach words in the target language by using explanations in the learner's own language. An alternative is to use sound effects to show meaning of words in the target language. The only language in such recordings is the target language, and they are comprehensible regardless of the learner's native language. Language books have been published for centuries, teaching vocabulary and grammar. The simplest books are phrasebooks to give useful short phrases for travelers, cooks, receptionists, or others who need specific vocabulary. Books that are more complete include more vocabulary, grammar, exercises, translation, and writing practice. In addition, various other "language learning tools" have been entering the market in recent years. There are as simple examples as Vocabulary Stickers, but also technologically complex augmented reality translation app.

Internet and software Software can interact with learners in ways that books and audio cannot:

1. Some software records the learner, analyzes the pronunciation, and gives feedback.
2. Software can present additional exercises in areas where a particular learner has difficulty, until the concepts are mastered.
3. Software can pronounce words in the target language and show their meaning by using pictures instead of oral explanations. The only language in such software is the target language. It is comprehensible regardless of the learner's native language.

Websites provide various services geared toward language education. Some sites are designed specifically for learning languages:

1. Some software runs on the web itself, with the advantage of avoiding downloads, and the disadvantage of requiring an internet connection.
2. Some publishers use the web to distribute audio, texts and software, for use offline.
3. Some websites offer learning activities such as quizzes or puzzles to practice language concepts.
4. Language exchange sites connect users with complementary language skills, such as a native Spanish speaker who wants to learn English with a native English speaker who wants to learn Spanish. Language exchange websites essentially treat knowledge of a language as a commodity, and provide a market like environment for the commodity to be exchanged.

Software

- *Records and analyzes learner's pronunciation, providing feedback.*
- *Offers adaptive exercises to address individual difficulties.*
- *Uses images instead of explanations for word meanings, making learning immersive.*

Websites

- Web-based software avoids downloads but requires an internet connection.
- Publishers distribute audio, texts, and software for offline use.
- Interactive learning activities like quizzes and puzzles enhance practice.
- Language exchange platforms connect users to practice with native speakers.

Users typically contact each other via chat, VoIP, or email. Language exchanges have also been viewed as a helpful tool to aid language learning at language schools. Language exchanges tend to benefit oral proficiency, fluency, colloquial vocabulary acquisition, and vernacular usage, rather than formal grammar or writing skills. Many other websites are helpful for learning languages, even though they are designed, maintained, and marketed for other purposes:

1. All countries have websites in their own languages, which learners elsewhere can use as primary material for study: news, fiction, videos, songs, etc. In a study conducted by the Center for Applied Linguistics, it was noted that the use of technology and media has begun to play a heavy role in facilitating language learning in the classroom. With the help of the internet, students are readily exposed to foreign media (music videos, television shows, films) and as a result, teachers are taking heed of the internet's in-fluency and are searching for ways to combine this exposure into their classroom teaching.
2. Translation sites let learners find the meaning of foreign text or create foreign translations of text from their native language.
3. Speech synthesis or text to speech (TTS) sites and software let learners hear pronunciation of arbitrary written text, with pronunciation similar to a native speaker.
4. Course development and learning management systems, such as Moodle are used by teachers, including language teachers.
5. Web conferencing tools can bring remote learners together; e.g. Illuminate Live.
6. Players of computer games can practice a target language when interacting in massively multiplayer online games and virtual worlds. In 2005, the virtual world Second Life started to be used for foreign language tuition, sometimes with entire businesses being developed. In addition, Spain's language and cultural institute Cervantes has an "island" on Second Life.

Some Internet content is free, often from government and nonprofit sites such as BBC Online, Book2, Foreign Service Institute, with no or minimal ads. Some is ad

supported, such as newspapers and YouTube. Some requires a payment.

Blended learning Blended learning combines face-to-face teaching with distance education, frequently electronic, either computer-based or web-based. It has been a major growth point in the ELT (English Language Teaching) industry over the last ten years. Some people, though, use the phrase 'Blended Learning' to refer to learning taking place while the focus is on other activities. For example, playing a card game that requires calling for cards may allow blended learning of numbers. Blended learning is a combination of face-to-face teaching and online interactions (also known as computer assisted language learning), achieved through a virtual learning environment (VLE).

VLEs have been a major growth point in the English Language Teaching (ELT) industry over the last five years.

There are two types:

- Externally hosted platforms that a school or institution exports content to (e.g., the proprietary Web Course Tools, or the open source Moodle)
- Content-supplied, course-managed learning platforms (e.g. the Macmillan English Campus) the former provides pre-designed structures and tools, while the latter supports course building by the language school—teachers can blend existing courses with games, activities, listening exercises, and grammar reference units contained online. This supports classroom, selfstudy or remote practice (for example in an internet café).

Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan in India has launched a web portal ECTLT where learners can learn English and other subject online and interact with their own teachers of KVS across the country.



Questions:

1. What methods can develop listening?
2. What is the language learning tool?
3. What program can be used to develop target language ?
4. Which sites are designed specifically for learning foreign languages?

5. What are the disadvantages sides of software during learning foreign language?
6. How many years before the virtual world Second Life started to be used for foreign language tuition?



1 Why native speakers use audio recordings?

- a) improve their listening
- b) improve their accent
- c) improve their speaking

2 What is the advantages of software web itself?

- a) Avoiding downloads
- b) avoiding taking picture
- c) avoiding antivirus

3 What materials new language learners use to learn a language?

- a) news, fictions, videos, songs
- b) writing books
- c) learning advanced vocabulary

4 What is the drawbacks of software web itself?

- a) downloading things
- b) avoiding taking pictures
- c) requiring in internet connection

5 What is TTS?

- a) Target teaching system
- b) teaching techniques
- c) speech synthesis or text to speech

6 Which sites let learners find the meaning of foreign text?

- a) Speaking
- b) Translation
- c) Virtual

Technology in teaching

Keywords: *Class website, blogs, online study tools, digital video, learner-centered teaching, technology, CALL, electronic literacy, textbook materials*

Teacher and Technology



Historically, we have looked for understandings of how technology ‘fits’ with current language learning paradigms. Warschauer and Healey (1998) rehearsed these periods of development. Early form-focused, question response drills that can be easily programmed for computer-based practice were in line with behaviorist methodologies in the 1960s and 1970s. A shift towards meaning-focused communicative methodology brought attention to learner choice, opportunities to explore language through programmes, which presented learners with language in context (concordance, text manipulation) or provided opportunities to receive feedback on their language use. The development of the Internet and broader communication opportunities, they argued, saw us move into what they termed a phase of integrative computer-assisted language learning (CALL), drawing on sociocognitive views of learning, where authentic task and text are central, and teachers draw on tools such as word processors and the Internet to put learners into positions in which they use technology for authentic activity.

While this historical analysis provides us with a way of understanding how different technologies, and more specifically their use, reflect pedagogical thinking, it has been critiqued as not easily reconcilable with neat phases in time by Bax (2003). There is a good deal of overlap and just as teachers make use of eclectic approaches with different learners, Bax argues that technology use needs to also be understood in relation to a teacher’s intentions and role, and where it is used in the curriculum. CALL then ceases to deserve specific labelling, just as we would never think of talking about the pen in any special way. You may identify various

technologies as normalized into your daily lives or indeed in your professional practice. However, it is also difficult to talk about technology or even computers in such a sweeping way, applicable to all contexts. How technology is integrated into teachers' practice is very much related to a number of issues that we have to acknowledge as we explore this area. Access to specific technologies and how your institution supports their use is clearly important. Personal confidence in using technology is also a factor in teachers' decision-making. Our learners, their specific needs, and their own expectations of technology use are also powerful influences on eventual technology use. Most importantly, these factors interact with our beliefs about the teaching and learning of English to form a powerful filter to ideas that we read about and engage with.

Views of Technology. To help us explore how we might think about these technologies in relation to language learning activities, we will first of all look to a well-rehearsed metaphor, that of the 'tutor, tutee, tool'. Developed by Taylor (1980), its relevance for language learning was first explored by Levy (1997). (See also Hubbard and Siskin, 2004, and Levy and Stockwell, 2006, for more recent discussions.) The 'tutor' view sees software as having a teacher 'built' in, so there will be instructions, support and feedback in the material itself. This describes language practice software on CD ROMs or DVDs or accessed on teacher and publisher web sites. The tutee metaphor sees the computer at the control of the learner and thus requires the user to programme the computer in some way. An often-cited example is LOGO, a programming language used with robots or other devices. School learners may be familiar with the 'Turtle', for example, a robot that can be made to move in different directions, if programmed successfully. The concept of 'tool' is adapted from software that is more generic. This is the kind of software we might use on a daily basis, a word processor, or a Web browser, or other tools that enable us to complete a specific task. We would see a search engine such as Google or a wiki or a blog in this category points to two implications of this metaphor: Like other human tools, computers can be used to assemble, construct, attach, detach, disassemble, connect and fashion products. Like other tools, their use

influences the ways we think, behave and communicate. While tools are ‘content neutral’, the influence on thinking is an interesting dimension. Some as a rather sophisticated typewriter may simply see a word processor; it comes into its own as a problem-solving tool, supporting the process of text composition. Tools can, therefore, scaffold thinking or problem solving, and the term ‘mind tool’ refers to these attributes. Tools such as spreadsheets, concordances, databases, mind-mapping software such as Inspiration (<http://www.inspiration.com>) carry heuristic qualities, to enable learners to think their way through to a solution or outcome. The notion of tool is thus associated with authentic endeavor. It relates to views of language teaching as empowering learner autonomy, that is, the ability for learners to take their knowledge and apply it for the purposes they require. Thinking about purpose, there is a further dimension to what tools allow us to do. Yes, they are workhorses that allow us to generate and revise text, process and display numerical information, access and retrieve information. However, if these workhorses, and if the encounters with language to which they give access are increasingly part of our learners’ real-world interactions, we need to look at the particular skills and awareness that make for empowered use. These are encapsulated in the term ‘electronic literacy’, defined by Warschauer as including: computer literacy (i.e., comfort and fluency in keyboarding and using computers), information literacy (i.e., the ability to find and critically evaluate online information), multimedia literacy (i.e., the ability to produce and interpret complex documents comprising texts, images, and sounds), and computer mediated communication literacy (i.e., knowledge of the pragmatics of individual and group online interaction).

The increasing interest in developing electronic literacy as part of language learning processes reflects the growing emphasis in the world of work on knowledge over industrial production and on key or transferable skills. As ‘social computing’ (e.g. wikis, BLOGs, Facebook, Twitter) has developed, it is the construction of connections between people that has also come to the fore. In this major development, online community is central and the Web has become a world to share in both read and write mode.

We will consider Web 2.0 tools within the following discussion, and return to its specific implications at the end of this chapter. Before we come to that point, we will look to create some connections between technology use and aspects of our practice as language teachers which have been explored earlier in this book.

Technology and language learning. In most classrooms, the drivers of activity are the examination and a centralized curriculum, and as a result textbooks and teaching often reflect this. In many parts of the world, for example, spoken language is not examined and so, although it might appear in the curriculum, it is not taught. Teachers need, then, to be creative, if they want to give their learners a greater chance of being able to communicate. Teachers try to use technology to supplement language classes, because they believe there is very little time for real language use in typical language classes. Teachers are also conscious that learners do not always see why they are expected to study languages and they try their best to make the learning meaningful and real, to encourage their learners to engage. Many younger learners fail to understand why they are learning a language that appears to have little relevance to their daily lives; it is simply a part of the curriculum; it is on the timetable. This is something that a teacher can address by trying to help the learners make connections to the outside world where the language is being used for real tasks.

There are various types of technologies currently used in traditional classrooms. Among these are:

Computer in the classroom: Having a computer in the classroom is an asset to any teacher. With a computer in the classroom, teachers are able to demonstrate a new lesson, present new material, illustrate how to use new programs, and show new Websites.

Class website: An easy way to display your student's work is to create a web page designed for your class. Once a web page is designed, teachers can post homework assignments, student work, famous quotes, trivia games, and so much more. In today's society, children should know how to use the computer to navigate their way through a website, so why not give them one where they can be a published

author? Just be careful, as most districts maintain strong policies to manage official websites for a school or classroom. In addition, most school districts provide teacher webpages that can easily be viewed through the school district's website.

Class blogs and wikis: There are varieties of Web 2.0 tools that are currently being implemented in the classroom. Blogs allow students to maintain a running dialogue. They work a tool for maintaining a journal of thoughts, ideas, and assignments, as well as encourage student comment and reflection. Wikis are more group focused to allow multiple members of the group to edit a single document and create a truly collaborative and carefully edited finished product.

Blogs allow the student to express their knowledge of the information learned in a way that they like. Blogging is something that students do or fun sometimes, so when they are assigned an assignment to do a blog they are eager to do it! If you are a teacher and need to find a way to get your students eager to learn, create, and inspire assign them a blog. They will love it. Wireless classroom microphones: Noisy classrooms are a daily occurrence, and with the help of microphones, students are able to hear their teachers more clearly. Children learn better, when they hear the teacher clearly. The benefit for teachers is that they no longer lose their voices at the end of the day.

Mobile devices: Mobile devices such as clickers or smart phone can be used to enhance experience in the classroom by providing the possibility for professors to get feedback. Interactive Whiteboards: An interactive whiteboard that provides touch control of computer applications. These enhance the experience in the classroom by showing anything that can be on a computer screen. This not only aids in visual learning, but it is interactive so the students can draw, write, or manipulate images on the interactive whiteboard,

Digital video-on-demand: Replacement of hard copy videos (DVD, VHS) with digital video accessed from a central server (e.g. SAFARI Montage), Digital video eliminates the need for in classroom hardware (players) and allows teachers and students to access video clips immediately by not utilizing the public Internet.

Online media: Streamed video websites can be used to enhance a classroom lesson (e.g. United Streaming, Teacher Tube, etc.)

Online study tools: Tools that motivate studying by making studying more fun or individualized for the student (e.g. Study Cocoa Digital Games: The field of educational games and serious games has been growing significantly over the last few years. The digital games are being provided as tools for the classroom and have a lot of positive feedback including higher motivation for students.

There are many other tools being used depending on the local school board and funds available. These may include digital cameras, video cameras, interactive whiteboard tools, document cameras, or LCD projectors.

The three articles in this section deal with the use of technologies in the classroom. In recent years, the use of technological aids, especially those related to computers, has increasingly become a common feature of the classroom. There is no doubt that computer-based instruction will occupy a more central role in the second language classroom in the future. However, as we eagerly explore the potential that this new technology has to offer to language learning, we should not lose sight of the fact that it is the teacher, not the technology, who determines the quality of the learning that takes place in the classroom. In adopting a new technology, be it a tape recorder, a VCR, a CD-ROM multimedia, or other network-based communication technology, Jones and Sato (1998) suggest that we consider the following questions: Does the new technology facilitate the attainment of course goals? Is it cost-effective? Do the benefits outweigh its cost? Are the teachers ready to work with the new technology? Is any training required? Does it serve the needs of the teachers and students? Does it help teachers make more efficient use of class time? There are other questions to think about, but these are some of the most important questions that need to be addressed before we decide to implement new technologies in the classroom.

Stempleski discusses the positive features of video materials and presents guidelines, which can help teachers plan their video lessons effectively. With careful and systematic planning, video-based lessons can be highly stimulating, and provide

a rich resource for language learning. Stempleski emphasizes the key role of the teacher in the use of video, saying that it is the teacher, not the video, who can make any video-based lesson a fruitful language learning experience. The teacher chooses the video; designs tasks and activities that facilitate active learning; prepares students for the previewing, viewing, and post viewing activities; raises students' awareness of certain language points; and integrates the video with other aspects of the curriculum. Warschauer and Whittaker examine the use of the Internet for second language teaching and present a set of guidelines for teachers who plan to integrate computer technology in the classroom. As technology is rapidly developing, the authors consider it advisable to provide a set of guidelines, which are applicable across a variety of computer network based tasks. The guidelines, which conform to sound pedagogical principles, suggest that teachers consider the following:

Goals. As in other instructional activities, the first thing for teachers to do is to clarify their goals. Once the aims are specified, appropriate tasks and activities can be designed. Integration. For best results, computer-based activities should be integrated into the course curriculum as a whole.

Technical support. Although many students are quite knowledgeable about the computer, sufficient support should be provided to avoid problems of a technical nature.

Learner-centered teaching. As much as possible, teachers should involve learners throughout the entire instructional process. Involving the students in deciding on the class direction is likely to create the kind of classroom atmosphere that promotes optimal learning. The authors conclude by providing an illustration of how these guidelines help a teacher deal with her new computer-based writing class. Li and Hart look specifically at the World Wide Web and explore its potential for Language learning. The Web possesses a number of features, which are particularly suited for second language learners' growing proficiency in the language. These include the following:

It provides a rich database of authentic material. It offers an excellent tool for interactive learning. It provides an excellent context for collaborative materials

development. Its multimedia, capabilities, which combine graphics, sounds, and movies, are particularly conducive to language learning. Materials stored in the Web can reach a wide audience at a relatively low cost.

Li and Hart then describe their Web magazine, which provides a forum for their ESL learners to interact and share ideas with other learners, and, at the same time, develop their writing skills. They discuss some of the problems they encountered and suggest future directions for the design and development of Web-based language learning resources.

What are the opportunities presented by new technology? At the time of writing, we are in a period of transition. The underlying shift that has been going on for some time is the move from analogue to digital, but there is also the change on the Internet from what is now called Web 1.0 to Web 2.0. Web 2.0 allows many more people to be creative with digital technologies. For example, I can sit at my computer and record a video clip using the camera that is embedded in the laptop's lid. I could also record this directly on to the Internet and then link that directly to a blog, or a wiki, or to my institution's virtual learning environment (VLE). This puts the possibilities of the adaptation and creation of a broad range of language-learning materials directly into the hands of the teacher, but also into the hands of the learners. Web 2.0 has made the production of pictures and text even easier and the localization or production of audio and video is now possible for teachers and their learners. Many of the early books about using technology in language education were written in a period that would be described now as Web 1.0. This was a time when materials only really flowed from organizations such as publishers or individual small-scale developers and could often only be used as they were created. Teachers like to be able to adapt materials, what these days would be described as 're-mixing' (Pegrum 2009), as do learners. Teachers need to do this to meet localized learning needs. Materials do need mediation and with Web 2.0 this is increasingly possible. See, for example, the use of video described in the examples below. We can find attractive and appropriate input material and build classroom activities around it. All that has been said so far has implied access to the Internet, and although teachers and learners

may have access outside the classroom, Internet access cannot be relied on within many classrooms. This, then, is where materials such as CDs or DVDs that accompany textbooks come into their own, or where teachers and learners can bring materials to class that they have downloaded elsewhere for use in the lesson. These materials can work wherever there is an appropriate player and do not require a direct internet connection. Teachers can supplement what comes with the textbook in a number of different ways to make the material more relevant to modern learners. Textbook materials go out of date very quickly, but references to aspects of culture can be quickly updated by adding material that is more recent from the Internet. If learners can access this material themselves, then all to the good, but if not, the teacher can find something more relevant and bring this to the class.



Questions:

1. What kind of technologies used in traditional classrooms?
2. What is the importance of class blogs and wikis?
3. How does wireless classroom microphone help to teachers?
4. What is difference between mobile device, interactive whiteboards and digital video-on-demand?
5. How does Stempleski highlight about video materials?
6. The main idea of Li and Hart's Web magazine



1 *The meaning of VLE*

- a) Virtual learning examples
- b) Virtual learning environment
- c) Virtual lesson environment

2 *provides touch control of computer applications*

- a) Interactive whiteboard
- b) Digital video-on-demand
- c) Online media

3 *The definition of Wikis*

- a) To allow to maintain a running dialogue
- b) To do for fun
- c) To edit a single document and create a truly collaborative product

4 *Who emphasizes that it is a teacher, not the video, who can make any video-based lesson a fruitful language learning experience?*

- a) Hark
- b) Jones
- c) Stempleski

5 *What can be example for often-cited which a programming language used with robots?*

- a) LOGO
- b) CD ROMs
- c) DVDs

6 *What kind of tools can be example for 'social computing'?*

- a) Texts, sounds, images
- b) Computer, documents
- c) Wikis, blogs, Facebook

The teacher's meta-language

Keywords: *timetables, planning courses, constant, controller, prompter, sensitive encouragement, participant, tutor, organizer, assessor*



Chapters on ‘the teacher’ are often, even traditionally, to be found at the end of books concerned with aspects of language teaching methodology. While such a format might be criticized on the grounds of relegating teachers to last place on a scale of importance, with learners certainly, but also materials and methods, having primacy, in the present book this is emphatically not the intention, and the position of this chapter is deliberate. It has been chosen because the teacher arguably represents the most significant factor in any language teaching operation. The teacher is typically a ‘constant’ in the throughput of different students in the institution, and works in different ways at the interface of several systems – the classroom, the school, the educational environment – all of which affect a teacher’s professional attitudes and behavior. A principal aim of this chapter, then, is to offer a view of the teacher as a synthesizer of all the aspects we have covered, as a professional who has to make sense of the decisions, opinions and perceptions of many different people. Certainly teachers will often experience this as pressure and Conflict, which may be difficult to resolve. Nevertheless, we wish to stress the importance of a positive and active professional self-image, rather than a more passive and reactive one.

The chapter is broadly divided into three sections. In the first of these we examine the concept of ‘role’ and explore its possible dimensions for English the Teacher’s Role Make a few notes on what you actually do as a teacher in a regular Working week. Keep the notes – we shall refer back to them later. Our own list looks something like this: Preparing timetables, spending a certain number of contracted hours in class, Preparing materials and handouts, seeing students individually, Attending staff meetings, arranging out-of-class activities, writing reports, Marking tests and examinations.

Planning courses and their associated teaching activities:

- The teacher as controller of everything that goes on in the classroom
- The teacher as prompter who provides sensitive encouragement for the learner to steer their learning

- The teacher as participant in student activities
- The teacher as a resource who provides information, ideas and advice
- The teacher as tutor, particularly useful with small groups and individuals working on longer pieces of work
- The teacher as organizer of a range of activities
- The teacher as assessor. Obviously, the ‘examiner’ role is one of our traditional functions, but Harmer extends it to include the importance of giving regular feedback, as well as just correction and grading.

Aspects of Classroom Methods. The teacher as observer, both to give feedback and to evaluate materials and methods. In the past, initial teacher preparation courses often paid little attention to the issue of materials development, perhaps as Tomlinson (2003) states, because it was assumed the teachers lacked the necessary experience or expertise to design materials for themselves. More recently though, there has been a shift in focus from ‘knowledge about teaching and related topics’ (Mann, 2005, p. 106) towards a view of teacher education as an ‘ongoing engagement between received knowledge and experiential knowledge’ and Mann believes that knowledge of materials forms an integral part of this new focus. Today, many undergraduate and master’s level programs actively encourage student-teachers to get to grips with materials development, but it is often unclear how teachers are prepared for the task, or what (if any) evaluation of the materials takes place post-teaching practice.

To sum up, the teacher educator should fit into all the roles stated above, and have attributes characterized as self-reflective, empathetic, communicative, collegial, open-minded, flexible, organized and assertive (yet without being perceived as ‘difficult’), which leads one to wonder whether this ideal really exists. We then go on to look particularly at the teacher’s classroom role, focusing on the implications of innovation and change in materials and methods. These two sections, in other words, will be concerned first, with contextualizing ‘role’ and, secondly, with differences over time. Finally, a number of issues to do with the training and development of teachers will be raised, including a brief survey of the growing

importance of teacher-research in English language teaching (ELT). We have included more activities and things to think about because of the nature of the topic and its reflective orientation, and the chapter finishes, quite intentionally, on an open-ended note.



Questions:

1. What is the most important aspect of materials design, from a trainee-teacher's perspective?
2. What should a trainee-teacher take into account before designing "worksheets"?
3. What was the aim of Borneo's project?
4. What is the teacher's significant factor in language teaching operation?
5. Why is 'the need for clarity when teaching the new language point and memorability in the learners' crucial?
6. What are the language teacher's potential roles?



- 1** *In the past, why did initial teacher preparation courses often pay little attention to the issue of materials development?*
 - a) They did not have materials.
 - b) They lacked the necessary experience or expertise to design materials for themselves.
 - c) They did not want to design materials for themselves.
- 2** *More recently though, there has been a shift in focus from '.....' towards a view of teacher education as an '.....'.*

- a) knowledge about teaching and related topics, ongoing engagement between received knowledge and experiential knowledge
- b) ongoing engagement between received knowledge and experiential knowledge, knowledge about teaching and related topics
- c) teaching topics, engage experiential knowledge

3 *What do many EFL teacher training handbooks pay scant attention instead of focusing on issues such as methodology and the teacher's knowledge of the English grammar system?*

- a) Materials which used
- b) Materials development
- c) Materials which collected

4 *How can Memorability in that learners do not forget it be achieved?*

- a) Through international design and collections of materials
- b) Through traditional design and consume of materials
- c) Through innovative design and use of materials

5 *What will teachers often experience as pressure and conflict, which may be difficult to resolve in?*

- a) Throughput of different students in the institution
- b) Works in different ways at the interface of several systems
- c) Both of them are true

6 *A number of writers on methodology and teacher training have proposed various ways of labelling teacher's potential roles. What do they do as prompter?*

- a) provides sensitive encouragement for the learner to steer their learning.
- b) provides information, ideas and advice.
- c) include the importance of giving regular feedback, as well as just correction and grading.

ERROR CORRECTION TECHNIQUES FOR EFL LEARNERS

Keywords: *EFL classes, absence, production, reception, communicative competence, PPP, integration, role-playing*



There are different ways of teaching the four language skills, which are **Reading, Listening, Writing and Speaking**. Students can encounter various difficulties in these different skills. They will make mistakes in English pronunciation, grammar, syntax, vocabulary usage, and spelling.

Integrating the main four language skills means combining reading, writing listening and speaking in foreign language teaching in the classroom.

In some cases, teachers separate language skills and highlight just one skill at a time. That was often for instructional purposes but even if it were possible to develop one or two skills effectively in the absence of the other language skills at the beginning stages, this does not ensure real communication using the language in which not only all the language skills but also communicative skills are employed simultaneously. In a normal situation, people use all language skills to communicate so experts in foreign language teaching have been moving in recent years toward integrating the four main language skills in EFL classes.

All new courses, which are being created nowadays, seem to integrate these language skills with communicative skills to improve learners' communicative competence using accurate and fluent language.

Reasons for Integrating the Four Main Language Skills:

By integrating the four skills, the students experiment and take risks with learning the foreign language, which makes learning more lovely and productive.

By integrating the four skills, we are providing a certain input that becomes a basis for further intake, which in turn will become a new output.

Production and reception are two sides of the same coin.

Interaction means sending and receiving messages.

Written and spoken languages have a relationship with each other.

This Integration will reflect the interrelationship between language, culture, and society. Here Are More Reasons

By inviting all four skills into an activity, we focus on what learners can do with a language.

Of course, one skill will reinforce another.

The integration of all the four skills can contribute toward a more real-life environment for both teachers and learners, the thing, which may make learning more meaningful and motivating.

The integration will ensure that students will learn to use English both fluently and accurately.

Teaching interactively support the connections between language and the way we feel, think and act.

How to Integrate the Four Main Language Skills in Your Teaching:

Aim ultimately to preserve accuracy while still making use of authentic communicative activities for the students.

Use the “PPP” (Present, Practice, Produce) approach. This is basically a structural approach that incorporates a final ‘free production’ stage where learners have the chance to use the structure they have practiced in a communicative activity where they primarily focused on meaning.

Use the communicative activities in which students produce certain structures according to certain real-life situations. While they do so, provide feedback to encourage students to use grammar accurately.

When presenting and practicing new linguistic items, provide communicative activities to reinforce students moving from “controlled practice” to “free production”. Always present new language to students in rich contexts. Always provide them with situations in which they can practice the language, through role-playing, acting out scenes, or by asking and answering questions.



Questions:

1. What are the main difficulties that students face in learning a language?
2. What kind of language exams do you know?
3. What is the main purpose of attending language courses?
4. Can you count the 4 interrelated features of integration?
5. Why is it important to integrate language skills



1 What is the PPP

- a) Present, Practice, Produce
- b) Produce, power , practice
- c) Paycheck, Presentation, Program

2 Why integration skills are needed

- a) improve our language
- b) for control others
- c) for get good marks

3 How can we improve our integrating languages skills

- a) By more practice, By listen music, watching movies
- b) By getting high quality language courses
- c) All answers are correct

4 What is the goal of language teaching?

- a) The goal of language learning and language teaching is being a good Programmer
- b) The goal of language learning and language teaching is being an English man/woman
- c) The goal of language learning and language teaching is therefore the ability to communicate, that is, to use the language

5 *EFL classes.....*

- a) getting high salary
- b) learning for teaching English in English speaking countries
- c) learning and using English as an additional language in a non-English speaking country

Teaching speaking skills. Modern technologies of teaching speaking

Keyword: *language learners, Pre-speaking, structured activities, reluctant, listenership, conversational strategies, narration, reasoning, identification, comment, service encounters*



At present, the value of learning speaking is general, that speaking is paramount, and it is difficult to overestimate it. Not by chance, wanting to know whether a person knows one or another foreign language, he is asked: “Do you speak English? Говорите по русский?”

Students of all ages, starting to study foreign language primarily want to learn to speak the language. They should know the aims of target language: speaking skills, like any other skill, are not formed themselves. For their formation must be used special exercises and activities, and therefore must be learned, focusing mainly on the development of skills. Usually begin to teach the basics of speaking. With statement of pronunciation skills, forming lexical and grammar skills, listening skills. On the initial stage of learning to separate, the process of formation of these skills is almost impossible. Teacher introduces the listeners with the new structure. It involves the study of new words, sounds, intonation. Many language learners regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. These learners define fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. They regard speaking as the most important

skill they can acquire, and they assess their progress in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication. Students often think that the ability to speak a language is the product of language learning, but speaking is also a crucial part of the language learning process, instructor's help students learn to speak so that the students can use speaking to learn.

Language learners are often too embarrassed or shy to say anything when they do not understand another speaker or when they realize that a conversation partner has not understood them. Instructors can help students overcome this reticence by assuring-them that misunderstanding and the need for clarification can occur in any type of interaction, whatever the participants language skill levels. Among the genres of speaking are description (telling the details to an active listener) narration (telling the development of events to an active listener), reasoning (telling one's train of thought to an active listener), identification (talking about one's likes and dislikes) Other genres are language-in-action (people doing things and talking), comment (opinions and angles of view), service encounters (buying and selling of goods and services), debate and argument (seeking a solution and pursuing one's point), learning (use of language in learning) and decision-making (people working towards decision). The ability to perform these genres is a proof of the skill level. This is how the language is used in everyday life.

Structured activities on speaking. **Pre-speaking** activity is to prepare the participants for the main speaking activity. Schemata activation is recalling prior world -knowledge of the participants that is relevant to the speaking situation, Questions, pictures and texts can be used to these ends. Brainstorming is an activity used to generate ideas in small groups before the main speaking activity. The purpose is to generate as many ideas as possible within a specified time. The ideas are not evaluated until the end of activity time. Motivation of participants can be enhanced when they clearly see the communicative problem and the ways to resolve it. **While speaking** the participants actually resolve the communicative problem and produce its resolution because of the role-play, problem-solving, socialization or communication game. **Post-speaking** can provide opportunities for the learners to re-visit the language and ideas produced and to think of the ways to make

communication more effective, an important part of the post-speaking activity is the development of integrated communicative skills, i.e. reading-and speaking task, listening-and-speaking task, speaking-and-writing task etc.

Students and speaking. Getting students to speak in class can sometimes be extremely easy. In a good class atmosphere, students who get on with each other, and whose English is at an appropriate level, will often participate freely and enthusiastically if we give them a suitable topic and task. However, at other times, it is not so easy to get students going. Maybe the class mix is not quite right. Perhaps we have not chosen the right kind of topic. Sometimes it is the organization of the task, which is at fault.

However, a problem that occurs more often than any of these is the natural reluctance of some students to speak and to take part. In such situations, the role(s) that teachers play will be crucial.

Reluctant students. When trying to speak a foreign language, most people can be placed somewhere on a cline between *desire* (to speak) and *fear* (of appearing foolish, of 'losing face'). The job of the teacher is to move the students towards the *desire* end of that cline by helping them to overcome any natural shyness they might feel and by making them feel good about speaking.

Making students feel relaxed. Because students do sometimes feel anxious about speaking, we will do our best to create a relaxing environment when we ask them to speak. We want to lower what has been called their *affective filter*; this is the barrier, which results from anxiety, and which gets in the way of successful communication. Clare Cunningham likes to use music to create an atmosphere where her students will feel relaxed about speaking, and so she plays background music to reflect and establish the mood she wishes to create, 'akin to a coffee bar, a genteel public house, or some other establishment where conversation flows'. For her, the alternative (a silent classroom) is a bit like trying to 'kick-start' conversation in a library. But whether we use music or some other way of making the students feel relaxed, our concern will be to minimize the natural tension that some of them feel.

Conversational strategies. Many speakers of a foreign language suddenly find themselves unable to find the words they need to carry on a conversation.

Perhaps they are unaware of what they should say next in a certain situation. Clarice Chan, for example, found that her Hong Kong university students, when thinking about making business telephone calls, were not overly worried about using correct ‘telephone’ words and phrases. What really concerned them was how to respond in certain situations and, crucially, how to say that they didn’t understand what was being said and how to tell someone that they were busy (Chan 2011). We need to help our students to be able to use phrases such as *Would you mind repeating that?* or *I don’t quite understand what you mean by that* (or, at lower levels, phrases like *Sorry? I don’t understand*). Students need to be able to use *repair strategies* . For example, if they don’t know a word, they can say *It’s a kind of ...* or *What’s the word for the thing you play a guitar with?* They can use words like *thing* , *stuff* or even (in British English) *thingamajig* . We can help our students to use typical *discourse markers* and phrases such as *The point I’m trying to make is ...* or *To put it another way, ...* . All of these will help them in conversation and also when giving prepared talks .

Listenership. Successful conversation does not just depend on good speakers. The interaction between speakers and listeners is what makes it work well. In conversations, being a good listener (having good listening skills) is as important, then, as being able to talk. To be good listeners, students need to show that they are paying attention and helping the conversation forward. They can do this with body movements, eye contact and short phrases such as *Umm, Yes, Really. I see what you mean*, etc. They also need to know how to take or withhold turns – how to interrupt, keep the subject, allow interruptions, invite comment, etc. We can give our students role cards, asking them to intervene in conversations with phrases they have prepared. We can also teach them to show by their attitude that what the speaker engages them is saying or that they are disengaged and bored. This will lead to a fruitful discussion about how to help a conversation along.

In conclusion, speaking is one of the central elements of communication. In ESL teaching, it is an aspect that needs special attention and instruction. In order to provide effective instruction, it is necessary for teachers of ESL carefully examine the factors, conditions, and components that underlie speaking effectiveness.

Effective instruction derived from the careful analysis of this area, together with sufficient language input and speech-promotion activities will gradually help learners speak English fluently and appropriately.

To develop speaking skills students definitely need intensive practice. As an ESL teacher, I absolutely think that the students achieve the speaking skill by interacting on topics of real-life situations. The answer is definitely the engagement of activities that promote speaking in the classroom. After all, the final aim of learning a second language is for students to be able to communicate in the target language in a variety of contexts and express themselves without being strained. Thus, teachers must stick to a methodology that creates a classroom environment. Here, students take part in authentic activities that promote speaking in the classroom. Among the numerous activities, some successful ones that develop students' speaking skills are:

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 or 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 new characters, events, descriptions and so on.

Brainstorming. On a given topic, students can produce ideas in a limited time. Depending on the context, either individual or group brainstorming is effective and learners generate ideas quickly and freely. The good characteristics of brainstorming is that the students are not criticized for their ideas so students will be open to sharing new ideas.

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.

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 the



Questions:

1. What is the meaning of target language?
2. Which skill is a crucial part of the language learning process?
3. Count the genres of speaking.
4. The main issues are speaking target language.
5. What is the relationship between speaking and writing?
6. What do you think students how can improve their listening skill? Individual or in-group?



1 *Student ofages primarily want to speak language?*

- a) 12-18
- b) All
- c) 20-30

2 *For student's formation they should mainly focus on ...*

- a) all skills
- b) listening skill
- c) development skills

3 *Language learners are often ... to say anything*

- a) Shy
- b) Happy
- c) Tired

4 *How instructors can help students overcome their reticence?*

- a) by motivating
- b) by assuring
- c) by punishing

5 *What is pre-speaking activity?*

- a) preparing students for the main speaking activity
- b) activating prior world-knowledge
- c) working with group

6 *Which activity used to generate ideas in small groups before the main speaking activity?*

- a) warm-up activity
- b) brainstorm activity
- c) spelling activity

Teaching reading skills. Modern technologies of teaching reading

Keywords: benefit, intensive reading, analytical reading, text mining, extensive reading, gist, inference



To get the maximum benefit from their reading, students need to be involved in both intensive and extensive reading. Intensive reading is often (but not exclusively) teacher-chosen and directed. It is designed to enable the students to develop their ability to read for a number of different purposes, such as getting the general meaning of a text (the gist) – sometimes called skimming, finding specific details that the reader is looking for – sometimes called scanning, or understanding what is behind the words (inference). We will want to give our students a variety of texts and reading purposes. This is not so much because they need to acquire such reading skills (they may, after all, have them in their own language), but because they need to have these experiences in English. Extensive reading, has a different focus, since the intention is to get the students to read as much as possible, usually away from the classroom. We believe that by doing this, they will improve their knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, spelling and punctuation.

The reading that students do at beginner levels will be significantly different from the texts and strategies that advanced students use. At the beginning, learners will be mostly concerned with bottom-up processing where their main aim is to understand the meaning of words (which they do by matching the way that words sound with their physical realization on the page). It is only later that we will involve them in more top-down processing, such as reading for inference or gist – see above.

Reading. Intensive reading. If you look at reading material in many course books, you will find that it is usually accompanied by exercise types such as true/false questions, multiple-choice questions and questions which ask what, how, how often,

when, etc. Faced with these, students may well feel as if the object of the exercise is to test their ability to read, rather than helping them to understand better. However, comprehension questions like these can be used so that the emphasis is on teaching reading, rather than testing it. The first way of doing this is to get the students to read the questions before they read the text and speculate on what the correct answers might be. This will help activate their schema and get them in the right frame of mind to read. It will also give them an idea of how to read and what to look for. When the students have read the text, it is a good idea to have them go through the answers to the questions in pairs or groups. This kind of discussion is not unlike – in a small. When we get the students to say what they think the answers are, we can ask them to refer to the part of the text (sentence, phrase or paragraph) which helped them to decide. In that way, we ensure their engagement with the text.

In order to have a productive reading session the teacher must conduct the lesson following these stages:

pre-reading — to prepare the learners for the reading activity, to set a context, familiarize them with the unknown vocabulary, arouse interest.

while-reading — this is the main task the reading session is aimed at comprehension questions (True/False statements, skimming and scanning, etc.).

post-reading — its aim is to understand the texts further through critical analysis of what they have read or to provide personalization.



Pre-reading activities

One of the most important stages of any reading activity is the appropriate setting of the context, familiarization with the active vocabulary, getting to know how much the learners know about the topic. For this purpose, the following activities may be used.

Crumpled papers: The teacher prints out the text which is going to be read and crumples it. He/she divides the class into groups and gives each group one crumpled version of the text. Students are not allowed to move the paper but they can move themselves trying to read some words, phrases, sentences. They take notes of whatever they are able to read and in a group discussion try to guess the main idea of the text.

Corner Statements: The teacher prepares 4 sentences expressing opinions about the topic, then sticks them in 4 corners of the classroom. Students go and stand near the opinion they disagree with the most. The group explains why they disagree about the topic.

Guessing from words or pictures: The teacher boards the keywords from a reading, students work in pairs or groups and try to guess the text. In the same way, the pairs or groups may be given some topic-related pictures and they need to give the main idea of the text.

Sound effects: The teacher plays on some sound effect related to the reading and students are asked to guess the topic by giving the associations which came to them while listening to those sounds.

Positive or Negative words: The teacher divides the class into two groups and gives two sets of different words taken out from the text. One group is given words with a positive connotation, the second group needs to deal with negative connotation words. They need to guess the story having in mind those words. As a result, the class comes up with two totally different versions of the same text.

KWL Charts: Ask students to write everything they know about the topic (K column) and everything they want to know (W column) and what they learned after the reading (L Column). K and W aspects can be practiced as pre-reading activities.

While-reading activities

They help students to focus on aspects of the text and to understand it better. The goal of these activities is to help learners to deal with the text as if it was written in their mother tongue.

Topic Sentences: Each paragraph stands for one main idea. Students are asked to find the topic sentence and explain how it describes the whole reading passage and the given paragraph.

Guessings: Read the text (skimming the text for general information) to see if the guessings and predictions are met.

Scanning: Students look for specific information from the text. Learners may be also asked to write comprehension questions for their peers.

Post-reading activities

These activities mainly aim at integrating the target material into the real-life and personalized practice in order to keep the authentic use of the language, make the learners feel that whatever they learn they turn into real-life experience in terms of language use.

Discussions: Learners are divided into groups and are given a set of text-related questions to discuss. Questions may be about some characters, their behaviour, how the text has interested the students, what they have learned from it, etc.

Story Continuation: Students may be given some time to think and come up with the continuation of the story. They may change some traits of the main characters and imagine how the text would proceed to take into account those changes.

Statements: Students are given statements about the reading topic, they work in pairs and discuss them. Considering the utmost importance of reading skill in language learning, all the above-mentioned activities can serve as nice tools to hone the learners' reading skills.

Activities for teaching reading. First of all there is the question of teaching the mechanics of reading. As was pointed out earlier, where pupils are already

literate in a language that uses the Roman alphabet the mechanics as such present few problems. Where the Roman alphabet is not known then the full panoply of techniques used for teaching initial literacy must be brought into play. A useful account of current methodology is to be found in C.Moon and B.Raban, *A Question of Reading*. The conventions of reading from left to right, and from top to bottom may have to be taught by such devices as simply getting pupils to follow the tip of a pointer which moves appropriately, picture story series arranged in the appropriate pattern, video or cine projections with moving points or areas of brightness which follow the left to right pattern all help. The shapes of letters may have to be taught by using all kinds of mnemonics which will help to link them with their sound values—S is a Snake, b is a big fat man with a big belly, and so on. The visual perception may have to be supported by the kinesthetic, learning to write the letters as they are recognized, sandpaper cut-outs, plastic or wooden letters which can actually be handled, the range of devices available is almost overwhelming. Once the basic conventions are understood, then the combining of phonic analytic/synthetic approaches and global pattern recognition approaches can proceed. It is at this point that learners should be made aware of the most usual regular English spelling patterns, and encouraged to recognize words by their block shapes thus has quite a different block shape from Flashcards, or better, flashboards are of great use here. A flashboard is a piece of black painted plywood or white thin melamine surfaced sheet, like Formica, about 30 cm long and 10 cm wide. The black painted surface can be written on with chalk and easily erased for re-use, similarly the white Formica surface can be written on with water-based felt tip pens. A set of nine or ten flashboards is sufficient for most purposes and avoids the consumption of great quantities of card. Longer boards can be used to encourage quick recognition of whole sentences in their written form and most teachers of complete beginners will find a set of five of these about one metre long extremely useful. Some teachers may have access to such sophisticated pieces of equipment as tachistoscopes or Wordmaster talking cards where the words or sentences being read are recorded onto a magnetic tape strip attached to the card on which the words are printed or written. When the card is run through the Wordmaster machine the printed words are

reproduced in the spoken medium. The greater the variety of approaches that can be adopted the greater the likelihood of success.

Pre-Reading Activities

“Find The Word” Reading Aloud Activity (Pair Work) Put students in pairs and provide them with one copy of a text. Have a secret list of words at the ready and call them out, at random, one at a time. Allow time for students to scan the text for the word they hear. The first person in the pair to point correctly at the word in the text gets a point. Make sure you set sound level rules, as well as clear guidance on how the class should be silent ready for the next round.

“Reading Aloud” Task (Pair Work / Small Group Work) Provide students with a ‘chunky’ text split into paragraphs. Advise that each student in the pair/group must read one paragraph aloud. If the person has an issue pronouncing a word, he/she must circle it and if they come across a word they don’t understand, they must underline it. Allow students to discuss their problem areas in pairs and then in fours. Go around making a note of the common issues and write on the board with whole group choral work and discussion at the end.

Post - Reading activities

True or False? – Post-Reading Activity (Alone) Once students have read the text through properly, allow them 5 minutes to create a list of true or false statements. These can be given to a peer to answer if time allows.

Summaries The Text – Post Reading Activity (Individual) Once students have read the text, advise that they must underline the key messages, depending on the size of the text. I recommend advising a maximum number. Students must then combine and re-word these ideas to summarise the whole text in a set number of words.

Re-write The Text – Reading Activity (Alone) After reading (and depending on the length of the whole text), students must re-write the text in the first, second or third person singular. If the text is long, then advise that they should pick out a certain number of paragraphs.

Walking Text – Reading Comprehension Activity (Individual) Instead of

getting students to read the texts in their seats, print out a few copies. Ensure the text is enlarged and in paragraphs with line numbers. Then, chop them up with numbers, indicating the paragraph number on each and stick them around the room. I recommend doing a few copies to ensure that no more than 2 students are at one paragraph of text at a time. Give them some pre-printed comprehension questions to answer as they go around. You can support learners who need it with an indication of the paragraph number, correlating to the question, written on their sheet.

Analytical reading (text mining). One of the main reasons that language learners read is to improve their lexical and grammatical knowledge. This may be achieved through repeated extensive reading but it can also happen when we mine texts for new language or language use, which we think our students should pay attention to. We can ask the students to read any text they encounter analytically. We can ask them to find any past tense verbs in the text and tell us how they are used and formed. We can direct them towards any lexical cohesion in the text (see 20.1.4) and ask them to explain how it works, or we can get them to find particular words and phrases. We can also analyse how paragraphs are constructed, or discuss issues of punctuation. When we ask our students to write within a distinct genre, we often ask them to analyse texts in order to help them to write appropriately within that genre they can look at the layout of the texts, the particular words and phrases that they use, and the cohesive devices, which are typically used to hold such texts together. Students at almost any level will gain benefit from collecting, analyzing and discussing the short texts they find all around them, and ‘reading their way through the linguistic landscape can be motivating.

Extensive reading. Extensive reading often takes place outside the class and has traditionally been encouraged not for language study so much as for practicing reading, having a pleasurable experience and gradually acquiring language (although, as we shall see, that view may be changing). The more students read, it is believed, the better they get, not only at reading, but also at vocabulary recognition, spelling, writing and even pronunciation, since, as Catherine Walter points out, even experienced readers subvocalize what they read – that is, ‘say’ the words in their head. Pleasurable reading at a level the students can more or less understand is

exactly the kind of comprehensible input that Steven Krashen has been so keen on. Extensive reading materials. Students can read whatever they want to read for extensive reading, of course, just like anyone else. At higher levels (e.g. CEFR C1, GSE 76–84), they will probably want to read books written for a competent English-language-speaking audience, but at lower levels, this would clearly not be appropriate. Instead, we can offer them graded readers – what Julian Day and Richard Bamford call ‘language learner literature’. Graded readers are books written (or adapted) especially for language students at different levels. At their best, they tell powerful stories, even in the simplest language, as in the following example.



Questions:

1. What type of readers can identify the meaning from the context and the results of the story can be predicted by them?
2. Who gives the information about self- reading activities and its types in the passage?
3. When a reader can have a high priority and be interested in the text?
4. What kind of oral activity consists of conversation and related opinions in it?
5. Which term did change with the cause of terminology renovation?
6. Who worked on features of strategy use in native language?



1 Which type of reading is considered as a supervision and selected by a tutor?

- a) exclusive reading
- b) intensive reading
- c) extensive reading

2 In which type of reading getting the general meaning isn't vital?

- a) intensive reading

b) extensive reading

c) general reading

3 *What term is used to describe searching for numbers and names?*

a) Scanning

b) Skimming

c) reading briefly

4 *How many main skills are boosted by extensive reading?*

a) 3

b) 4

c) 5

5 *Which stage are the students worried about down-up situation in?*

a) Beginning

b) Middle

c) at the end

6 *What kind of exercises does intensive reading consist of?*

a) True/false

b) multiple choice questions

c) A, B

Teaching writing skills. Modern technologies of teaching writing

Keywords: *developing materials, scaffolding, OWLs, co-build advanced, adding, deleting, modifying, simplifying, reordering, using English website*



It is difficult to imagine how we might teach students to develop their writing skills without using materials of some kind. Defining materials broadly as anything that can help facilitate the learning of language; we can see that they not only include paper and electronic resources, but also audio and visual aids, real objects

and performance. Together with teaching methodologies, materials represent the interface between teaching and learning, the point at which needs, objectives and syllabuses are made tangible for both teachers and students. They provide most of the input and language exposure that learners receive in the classroom and are indispensable to how teachers stimulate, model and support writing. The choice of materials available to teachers is almost infinite, ranging from YouTube clips to research articles, but their effectiveness ultimately depends on the role that they are required to play in the instructional process and on the extent they relate to the learning needs of students. This chapter will consider both these issues and then go on to discuss using textbook and internet materials and ways to develop materials.

The roles of writing materials. Materials are used to provide a stimulus to writing, to assist students towards understanding the language they need to write effectively and to help teachers with ideas for organizing lesson activities. In many contexts, moreover, language materials may be the only opportunities students have to study target texts.

Developing Materials for Language Teaching. Models are used to present good examples of a genre and illustrate its particular features. Representative samples of the target text can be analysed, compared and manipulated in order to sensitize students to the way they are organized and the kind of language that we typically find in them. Becoming familiar with good models can encourage and guide learners to explore the key lexical, grammatical and rhetorical features of a text and to use this knowledge to construct their own examples of the genre. The key idea of using models, then, is that writing instruction will be more successful if students are aware of what target texts look like, providing sufficient numbers of exemplars to demonstrate possible variation and avoid mindless imitation. Typically, students examine several examples of a particular genre to identify its structure and the ways meanings are expressed, and to explore the variations, which are possible. Materials used as models thus help teachers to increase students' awareness of how texts are organized and how purposes are realized as they work towards their independent creation of the genre. As far as possible the texts selected should be both relevant to the students, representing the genres they will have to

write in their target contexts, and authentic, created to be used in real-world contexts rather than in classrooms. Therefore, chemistry students, for example, would need to study reports of actual lab experiments rather than articles in the *New Scientist* if they want eventually produce this genre successfully. Even elementary learners can study authentic texts and identify recurring features, and then be taught to manipulate and then reproduce these features themselves. An effective way of making models relevant to learners is to distribute and analyses exemplary samples of student writing, collected from previous courses. Materials, which scaffold learners' understandings of language, provide opportunities for discussion, guided writing, analysis and manipulation of salient structures and vocabulary. Ideally, these materials should provide a variety of texts and sources to involve students in thinking about and using the language while supporting their evolving control of a particular genre. Materials, which assist learners towards producing accurate sentences and cohesive texts, include familiar staples of the grammar class such as sentence completion, text reorganization, parallel writing, gap filling, and jigsaw texts and so on. This does not mean that writing materials are simply grammar materials in *Materials for Developing Writing Skills*. Writing instruction necessarily means attending to grammar, but this is not the traditional autonomous grammar – a system of rules independent of contexts and users. The grammar taught in writing classes should be selected in a top-down way, derived from the genre that students are learning to write. Materials, which develop an understanding of grammar, thus concern how meanings can be codified in distinct and recognizable ways, shifting writing from the implicit and hidden to the conscious and explicit. It is an approach which: first considers how a text is structured and organized at the level of the whole text in relation to its purpose, audience and message. It then considers how all parts of the text, such as paragraphs and sentences, are structured, organized and coded to make the text effective as written communication. Scaffolding materials therefore recognize that grammar is a resource for producing texts and are based on the principle that an awareness of texts facilitates writing development. It is important to note then, that the most effective language exercises focus on the features of the genre under consideration to help students create meanings for particular readers and

contexts. Thus, a narrative would require students to have some control of nouns and pronouns to identify people, animals or things and of action verbs, past tense and conjunctions to sequence events. Explanations, on the other hand, are usually written in the simple present tense using chronological and/or casual conjunctions and ‘action’ verbs. Reference materials, unlike those used for modelling and scaffolding, concern knowledge rather than practice. This category includes grammars, dictionaries, reference manuals and style guides, but they all function to support the learner’s understanding of writing through explanations, examples and advice. This type of support is particularly useful to learners engaged in self-study with little class contact. A great deal of well-organized and self-explanatory information, particularly on the conventions of academic writing can be found on the Online Writing Labs (OWLs) of universities. Dictionaries such as the corpus-informed Co-build Advanced and encyclopedia like the ubiquitous Wikipedia with over 4 million articles in English are also useful resources. Many students rely heavily on bilingual dictionaries or electronic translators and on the thesaurus, grammar checker and dictionary components of their word processor. These may well provide what the student is looking for, but fail to give sufficient information about grammatical context, appropriacy and connotation. Advice and practice in how to use these tools can have enormous benefits for learners. Finally, stimulus materials are commonly used to involve learners in thinking about and using language by provoking ideas, encouraging connections and developing topics in ways that allow them to articulate their thoughts. Such materials provide content schemata and a reason to communicate, stimulating creativity, planning and engagement with others. They include the full range of media and the internet is a rich source, but generally, the more detailed and explicit the material, the greater support it offers learners. Therefore, a lecture recording or a flowchart can provide relatively unambiguous and structured ways of stimulating language use. In contrast, material, which is open to numerous interpretations, such as a collection of divergent views on a topic, poems, or Lego bricks used to symbolize real objects, allows room for students to exercise their creativity and imagination in their responses. The main sources of stimulus for writing are texts themselves and teachers often select short stories,

poems, magazine articles, and agony letters and so on as a way of introducing a topic for discussion and brainstorming ideas for an essay on a similar theme.

Selecting writing materials. Any ELT course starts with two questions: ‘what is the proficiency of these students and why are they learning English?’ and it is these questions, which help, focus the course and make it relevant for learners. The first question ensures that we start where the students are now and the second guides the direction we go in by taking the world outside the language classroom into account. Therefore, while materials need to be at an appropriate level, it is equally important that they look beyond instruction in general aspects of grammar and vocabulary to prepare students for the texts they need to write in their social, academic or workplace contexts. This means conducting a needs analysis of both the present situation and the target situation, gathering information about learners’ current proficiencies and ambitions and the linguistic skills and knowledge they need to perform competently in the real world. It is this second aspect of needs that teachers may be less familiar. Because it relates to communication needs rather than learning needs it compels the language teacher to understand not only their students but also the texts they need to write. This may not always be easy to identify for younger learners, but where it is possible, it is important to ensure that the writing materials we provide students with help them towards an understanding of those they will find in target contexts. This principally means becoming familiar with the key features of those texts and the skills needed to create them, and then translating these into appropriate materials. Selecting relevant texts is a key consideration, as materials need to assist learners towards the ability to write in the genres that have been identified. Where students’ writing needs are related to particular genres used in specific target contexts, then teachers need to find such texts as authentic models. Students typically do not have to write newspaper articles, magazine features or textbook chapters and, while these genres may offer excellent sources of stimulus and content, they provide poor target models. We also need to consider how texts are related to other texts in order to plan learning sequence of text types which scaffold learner progress, ensuring that novice writers will move from what is easy to what is difficult and from what is known to what is unknown. One way to proceed

here is to determine the broad family of text-types that students should work with, as this enables us to establish the kinds of language and skills that students require to complete different assignments. Knowledge of these kinds of differences allows teachers to see what students are able to do and what they need to learn. The six broad families of text-type, adapted from the Australian 'Certificate in Spoken and Written English' ESL curriculum, can help to identify the kinds of texts needed as input. Examples of these text-types can be found in various genres. Appliance manuals and documents accompanying self-assembly furniture provide good examples of instructions and procedures, for example, while recounts and narratives may be found in short stories, biographies, newspaper and magazines articles and literary sources. Journalistic materials are also good sources for exposition and argument texts. Another consideration is the authenticity of materials: how far teachers should use unedited real-world language materials or texts, which are simplified, modified or otherwise, created to exemplify particular features for teaching purposes. Clearly, there are important reasons for selecting authentic texts as genre models. The kinds of texts that students will need to create in their target contexts cannot be easily imitated for pedagogic purposes as simplifying a text. Altering its syntax and lexis is also likely to distort features such as cohesion, coherence and rhetorical organization. Students may then fail to see how the elements of a text work together to form text structure and miss the considerable information texts carry about those who write them, their relationship to readers and the community in which they are written. It is also true, however, that many authentic texts make poor models, may be difficult to obtain or may require considerable effort by the teacher before they can be exploited effectively in the classroom. The problem is to ensure that students get good writing models with material that is not so far beyond them that they become disheartened. The issue of what students are asked to do with the authentic materials raises the problem of authentic use, as selecting real texts does not guarantee that they are used in ways that reflect their original communicative purpose. Once we begin to study them for writing tasks, then poems, letters, memos, reports, editorials and so on, become artefacts of the classroom rather than communicative resources. As a result, many teachers feel there is nothing

intrinsically wrong with using created materials, especially at lower levels of language proficiency where students need the guidance and support of controlled input. In fact, many writing courses employ both authentic and created materials and the choice largely depends on the pedagogic purpose we want the materials to serve. What will students do with the materials? What do we want them to learn? The need for authenticity is less pressing when we move away from models to materials, which will stimulate writing, practice language items, introduce content, and highlight features of target texts, all of which may actually be more effective than real texts. The bottom line is that our materials should not mislead students about the nature of writing. Textbooks as writing materials: A common source of materials for writing classes is from commercial textbooks. Many teachers rely heavily on them as a source of ideas for course structure, practice activities and language models – dipping into them even when they are not used as set texts. They can also provide support for novice teachers, reassuring them that they are at least covering what someone else thinks important aspects of writing in a logical sequence and following tried and trusted principles of teaching. These are considerable advantages, but textbooks also need to be treated with caution: teaching writing is primarily a local and complex endeavor, which defies being packaged into a single textbook. It would be unreasonable to expect textbook writers, constrained by their publishers and the fact they are writing for a broad and amorphous market, to produce materials exactly suited to our local requirements. Their authors have no idea of who our students are their difficulties and target needs, nor the peculiarities of our local teaching context. However, scrutiny of a dozen widely used writing textbooks on my shelf reveals a number of common deficiencies. We find cultural and social biases in the readings, ad hoc grammar explanations poorly related to particular genres, vagueness about target users' proficiencies or backgrounds, lack of specificity about target needs, an over-reliance on writing themes addressing personal experience, obsession with a single composing process, and invented and misleading text models. Most disturbingly, there is often little recognition given to the teaching implications of current writing and genre research and so textbooks often fail to reflect the ways writers actually use language to communicate in real situations. If teachers choose

(or are compelled) to use a textbook, it is important they are clear about what they want it to do and to be realistic in what they expect it to offer. The fact that publishers must target a mass audience to make a profit considerably undermines the value of even the best books, but a textbook should not be rejected simply because it does not meet all our specific instructional needs. Preparing new materials from scratch for every course is an impractical ideal, it is far more time, and cost-effective to be creative with what is available. Often a book may be useful if we supplement omissions or adapt activities to suit our particular circumstances and the process of reflecting on what gaps exist between what students need and what the textbook offers can be productive in course design and materials development.

Clearly, modifying textbooks to make them materials that are more useful in our classes is an important skill for all writing teachers as it not only improves the resources available to students but also acts as a form of professional development. Teaching is largely a process of transforming content knowledge into pedagogically effective forms, and this is most in evidence when teachers are considering both their learners and their profession in modifying and creating materials. The internet and writing materials: The internet has been credited with offering teachers a number of advantages, but perhaps among the most relevant for writing teachers are that it

- ❖ offers access to a massive supply of authentic print, image and video materials
- ❖ provides opportunities for student written communication (with classmates and beyond)
- ❖ offers practice in new genres and writing processes
- ❖ encourages collaborative research and writing projects
- ❖ generates immediate automated feedback and evaluative comments
- ❖ offers students as-you-write computer-based grammar and spell checkers
- ❖ provides student with access to dictionaries, corpora and reference aids as they write
- ❖ enables teachers to manage learning websites and to collect activities and readings together with blogs, assignments, etc. and to track and analyses student errors and behaviors

❖ Facilitates opportunities for students to publish their work to a wider audience. The internet is obviously an excellent source of materials to develop writing skills and is probably now used more by teachers than textbooks. Sites such as Dave's Internet Café and BBC English have discussion groups and writing exercises for L2 students. While these sites offer ideas for exercises, assignments and discussions and are places students can be directed for out-of-class activities, materials for writing are scarcer online. The internet, however, does extend the teacher's source of advice beyond his or her immediate colleagues through discussion lists and bulletin boards where teachers (or students) can exchange ideas get information, discuss problems with others by simply registering and posting a message. Two active ones are Writing Centers' Online Discussion Community and WPA-L: Writing Program Administration. There are also many sites specifically dedicated to writing. There are, for example, several thousand On-Line writing Labs (OWLs) which offer exercises on grammar and mechanics, teaching tips and advice on style, genre and writing processes. The OWL at Purdue is one of the best and Angel fire offers teachers useful resources for steps in the process of writing. The Online Resources for Writers site provides a list of useful sites. Other sites support writing in various ways, such as the Using English website, which allows students or teachers to upload a text and receive statistics about it, including a count of the unique words, the average number of words per sentence, the lexical density and the Gunning Fog readability index. ESL Golden provides lessons and ideas for teaching composing, organizing, revising and editing essays from a process perspective. The internet also provides a means for teachers to manage their materials and present them together as a coherent sequence of linked readings and activities to support students' writing development. Many teachers use commercial course management systems such as Blackboard or Moodle to create tasks and wikis, to display their course materials, readings and messages in one place, to receive course assignments and to encourage students to engage with each other through the site.

Activities for improving Writing skills

Story Chains. This is a group activity for students. Teachers divide the class

into groups and jot down a prompt on the board, and then ask students to take a piece of paper and a pen. Teachers ask one student from each group to write something in one minute and then pass the paper to the next student in the same group to finish from where the first students stopped. The goal is to have students write a coherent story through teamwork.

Creating Classroom Journals for Students. In this writing activity, teachers only need to bring journals and colored pens. This is a great activity and students will definitely feel excited. The goal of the activity is to express self. Teachers tell students to write about anything they did yesterday or during the last week. Students can write about their daily routines, favorite movies, and hobbies. Students will be more than happy to write about themselves. They will even feel excited if you ask them to express their feelings. After writing, you ask students to exchange places and read their classmates' journals.

Using Index Cards. This is another way to get students to write. Teachers can use index cards. Instead of assigning regular homework on a copybook, teachers can tell students use index cards to write about a funny story they want to share with classmates. Next session when they are in class, teachers collect the cards and randomly distribute them and ask students to read them.

Story Completion. Teachers can design templates of stories with pictures and a few words distributed systematically throughout the story and ask students to use those words and the pictures to complete the story. This is a fun way to get students to write. Teachers will definitely be surprised of students' creativity and imagination.



Questions:

1. What is the five way of materials?
2. What kind of activities can improve writing skill?
3. "Adding" adapting materials.
4. "Deleting" adapting materials.
5. "Modifying" adapting materials.

6. “Simplifying” adapting materials.



1 *What helps to assist students towards understanding the language they need to write effectively?*

- a) Teachers
- b) Writing instruction
- c) Writing materials

2 *What is a resource for producing text are based on the principle that an awareness of texts, facilitates writing development?*

- a) Grammar
- b) Language Exercises
- c) Dictionaries

3 *Which type of materials are good source for exposition and argument texts?*

- a) Journalistic
- b) Biography
- c) Short Stories

4 *Find the ways of adapting materials*

- a) adding and reordering
- b) simplifying and modifying
- c) all of them are correct

5 *Which type of the waste of adapting materials helps to omitting repetitive, irrelevant, potentially or difficult items?*

- a) modifying way
- b) delating way
- c) reordering way

6 *Find the advantages of the internet which helps to writing teachers*

- a) changes the sequence of units or activities to fit more coherently with course goals
- b) allows teachers to see what students are able to do and what they need to learn
- c) provides students with access to dictionaries corpora and reference aids as they write

Teaching listening skills. Modern technologies of teaching listening

Keywords: *listening, staging a listening skills, audio streaming, “new” voices, audio script, listening into listening*



Listening (by which I mean students listening to a recording – usually a CD, but perhaps a DVD – not listening to the teacher or each other talking) is one of the hardest activities for most students. Like reading, it is a receptive skill, but it is usually much more difficult than reading. Why is this? We’ll come back to this question later.

WHY LISTENING IS DIFFICULT

First, let us go back to the question of why listening is difficult for most students. Within the classroom environment, students become used to the voice, accent, or dialect of their regular teacher(s). Furthermore, the teacher grades her language and perhaps speaks just a little slower than is usual.

The teacher constantly uses gestures, and check understanding. A student can interrupt and ask for repetition or clarification but with a recording, none of these factors is present.

A natural-sounding recording will usually consist of two or more speakers using ungraded language. Their voices, accents, and maybe dialects will be new to your students. These ‘new’ voices often come as a shock first time round. Often, too,

the conversation is, or seems, fast. There is no body language and there are no gestures to help understanding.

Students cannot ask the voices to slow down, or clarify ... the recording starts and continues. There is no control – at least, not on the students' part in a lesson. Compare this with a reading. Students have some control over how fast or slowly they read (though they may have been given a time limit). They have to contend with new language, as they do with a recording, but they don't have the problem of accents and speed. They can quickly re-read a line that they have not understood, but they cannot rewind the recording. With a reading, then, students have some control. With a listening, they have none. Add to this the fact that they will be trying to answer questions as they listen and the obvious result is pressure.

STAGING A LISTENING SKILLS LESSON

As teachers, of course, we must be aware of these difficulties and try to help our students in every way we can. Just as with a reading, we should not just go in and say 'Read pages 20–5 then I'll give you some questions', so we shouldn't just go in, play a recording, and hand out questions. We have to stage the lesson.

By staging the lesson in this way, we are 'sandwiching' the listening as we did with the reading. In other words, we prepare the students for what is to come, and we try to create interest so that they end up wanting to listen. There are 3 stages in the listening activity . They are : pre-listening activity, while- listening activity and post- listening activity.

A Pre-listening or a Pre-reading is a stage frequently found in lessons that aim at helping students develop receptive skills. It is the pre in the pre, while and post sequence of activities to help students become better readers or listeners.

The aim of this stage is to help students prepare for reading or listening to a text, either by dealing with the topic, its genre or relevant language.

There are many ways in which this could be done, some of the most common being:

- Activating students' schemata or background knowledge of the topic through picture exploitation, elicitation etc.
- Pre-teaching vocabulary that is essential for the understanding of the text.

- Allowing learners to engage in the topic through meaningful interaction (discussions, information gap etc.).
- Encouraging predictions related to context and content of the text.

Example: Preparation: matching

Match the vocabulary with the correct definition and write a–h next to the numbers 1–8.

- | | |
|--------------------|---|
| 1..... an exam | a. useful information or advice |
| 2..... bedtime | b. a test to show what a person knows or can do |
| 3..... a listener | c. the time you go to bed |
| 4..... low | d. the most difficult |
| 5..... a tip | e. quiet |
| 6..... the hardest | f. a person who listens |
| 7..... busy | g. making a lot of noise |
| 8..... loud | h. doing something |

While-listening activities can be shortly defined as all tasks that students are asked to do during the time of listening to the text. The nature of these activities is to help learners to listen for meaning, that is to elicit a message from spoken language Examples are provided below.

1. Check your understanding: true or false Circle True or False for these sentences.

1. The guest in the studio is a teacher. True False
2. Some people can sleep well with a television on. True False
3. It is bad to think a lot before going to bed. True False
4. It is good to play video games before bed. True False
5. It is good to turn your mobile off when you go to sleep. True False
6. It is bad to play loud music while you sleep. True False

2. Check your vocabulary: gap fill Complete the sentences with a word from the

earlier in the evening

Welcom

Turn off useful

great to be

box.

1. _____ to the show, Doctor Baker.
2. Thank you. It's _____. Let's start with tip one.
3. Do your hardest homework _____.
4. _____ your mobile when you go to bed.
5. Play music if you like. But turn the sound _____.
6. That is very _____ for our young listeners.

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.

TIPS (TO HELP THE STUDENTS)

- ✓ Try to place the machine (i.e. CD player) as close as you can to your students (or have them move close to it). If you have a form of audio streaming in your class, then the sound quality will usually be much better.
- ✓ Maybe play a few seconds first, to check they can hear the recording.
- ✓ Give out the task before they listen and give them time to read it.
- ✓ Make the first task relatively straightforward to give them confidence.
- ✓ Reassure the students – tell them not to worry if they find it difficult at first, that you'll play it again; that they don't need to understand everything, etc.
- ✓ Let them discuss their answers after the first play. Communication is important – it's not a test.
- ✓ Nearly always you should play the recording a second time (occasionally three times if it is not too long).
- ✓ Sometimes, it is appropriate to play the recording and 'pause' at crucial moments, isolating the answers. This usually helps a lot.

- ✓ Go through the reasons for the answers.
- ✓ Have a copy of the audio script to hand so you can clarify important dialogue in case students are unclear about something.

It is not only students that can find listening lessons stressful, so can teachers. As with any kind of lesson using technology, things can go wrong – and they do!

TIPS (TO HELP THE TEACHER)

- ✓ Check there is an appropriate machine (i.e. CD player) in your room. If not, find out where you can get one.
- ✓ Check you know how to use it.
- ✓ Get the audio material you need well in advance of the lesson – if you leave it to the last moment and you can't find it, you will have a problem.
- ✓ Check the correct CD is in the box – sometimes teachers put the wrong one back.
- ✓ Listen to the recording before the lesson – check it is there and that it is audible.
- ✓ Make sure you know which recording you are going to listen to.
- ✓ Check the recording number and check that you can find it. Don't leave this until the lesson has started. It adds to your stress and it gives a poor impression to the students.
- ✓ Have a copy of the audio script just in case you need it.
- ✓ know what you will do if something goes wrong.
- ✓ Never trust any technology!

If you have access to a DVD player or are able to show a YouTube clip, then you have the possibility of extending your listening into listening and watching. There are many specially made DVDs on the market, which you can use. This does not mean a 'watching TV' lesson, it means staging the lesson as you would any other, having clear aims, appropriate tasks, etc. However, with DVDs and YouTube you have something different.

Listening is a difficult skill for students, more so than reading.

- Teachers need to stage listening lessons in such a way as to reduce the difficulty.

- We should be aware of the specific problems that students might have with different types of listening – but also of the factors that help understanding.
- We should provide tasks, which are relevant and interesting (though their relevance will be less in a non-English-speaking country).
- Listening can, and should be integrated with other skills and language work.
- Teachers should check the audio material and hardware well in advance.
- It is important for students to work together on tasks in order to make the activity less pressured. Don't play the recording and then immediately ask for answers to the task!
- Play the recording more than once and pause it, if appropriate.
- Use of DVD / YouTube, if available, also provides good practice of listening skills.

Helping children to learn how to listen, not just hear what someone's saying, is incredibly important. For them to have great active listening skills means they're more likely to become good communicators, tackle school more easily and build deeper personal relationships.

And while it may sound simple - like with many other things - improving listening skills takes time and energy. But with practice, dedication and fun work, the wee ones can master the art of active listening and benefit from it for the rest of their lives.

What are active listening skills?

Hearing what someone tells you is one thing, actually listening to it is another thing altogether! Active listening skills cover the ability to pay attention to what others say, focus on both the words and their meanings, and understand the verbal text.

When actively listening, we devote our full attention to someone; and not just to their words. Facial expressions, body language, tone of voice all contribute to fully understanding someone.

So what are active listening skills? They include:

- looking at someone as they speak
- giving them time to finish their thoughts

- not interrupting their train of thoughts
- not predicting what they're about to say
- paying attention to their body language
- responding with relevant questions
- being able to repeat what was said

These can of course all be practised and improved via various fun activities and exercises, as we'll see in a minute!

Importance of listening skills

But first; let's see why it's so important to develop good active listening skills at an early age. While listening to something does not necessarily equal to understanding it right away, that's half the job done! Or let's put it this way rather; without actively listening to something, it's really hard to actually understand it.

But once we do, listening leads to easier, quicker and better communication, learning and interacting with one another. Children with great listening skills are better communicators and find it easier to comprehend more complex subjects. And not just on an academical level!

Active listening skills help build personal relationships, get more empathetic and offer real support to people with questions or worries.

How to improve children's listening skills

While being a good listener yourself and paying attention to your children is important in order to lead by example when it comes to active listening, there are other ways to explore.

You can use a number of fun and exciting activities and games that'll help the wee one work on those listening skills. And the best part is, the majority don't require many or any additional items to make the exercise enjoyable yet useful.

Let's make every day No Pens Day Wednesday together!

Here are 16 fun things you can do to improve children's listening skills:

Show the Difference - Start by simply showing children the difference between hearing something and listening to it. Tell them the same story, but in two different scenarios. First, let them walk around the room, play with their toys or look out the window exploring the outdoors. Then sit them down and make sure they look

at you and truly listen to the story. They'll instantly see the difference between the two.

Lead by Example - We all know that children tend to copy what adults are doing; so why not show them how active listening is done right? When talking to them, make sure you pay attention, look into their eyes, ask questions or repeat what they've said.

Change the Story - Tell a short story multiple times, but each time change a small detail in it; see if the wee ones can pick up on the changes. They can either let you know right away if they think something has changed, or write a list of the changes down.

Do Craft Activities - Craft activities are great for children to follow instructions. Make sure you detail every step of the creative way so that you improve their listening skills, alongside their concentration and fine motor skills. Do origami, paint a picture, or turn a simple toilet roll into a cute animal with your class.

Read Together - No matter if the young learners can read yet or not, looking at the pages together as you get along with the story will help them focus on it and understand it better.

Repeat the Story - One super handy way to reinforce active listening skills is to ask children to repeat what they've just heard. You can have them repeat certain details or full parts of the story to truly challenge them.

Summarise the Story - Similarly to the above, asking the wee ones to retell the story in a shortened version will aid listening skills' development, since they really need to pay attention in order to summarise what's been said or read by you.

Listen & Colour Activity - Turn to a fun, creative activity that'll improve both children's listening and fine motor skills at the same time! Print a simple or more intricate colouring page - depending on the age of the child - and give instructions as to how they should be coloured. You can have one ready to use as reference in the end; it'll be exciting to see whose final picture looks the same as yours.

Story Chain Game - Start a story and get children to add a sentence each after one another; but don't have an order as to when they get their turn. Make it

playfully random, so everyone needs to pay attention the entire time. You can spice things up by asking your class to come up with unexpected turns and surprising twists.

Predict the Story - Read a book or watch a short animation together, but stop after each page or every 20 seconds and see if learners can predict what's going to happen next.

Try Role Playing - Role play is so much fun as it is, but it can also be used to better listening skills since children need to be present and react to what the others are doing and saying during the play. Improvisation is one of the best ways to improve listening skills!

What's That Sound? Game - Another good way to develop listening skills is to have children listen to various sounds or noises and guess what they can hear. It'll help them focus on one sound and shut the world out a bit around them. The game could be about sounds made by animals, household items or the traffic outside.

List of Questions - While you're reading or telling a story to the wee ones, ask them to write a list of questions about the characters, places or the storyline itself. It'll have them pay more attention.

Play 'Simon Says' - A true classic for a good reason, 'Simon Says' is a super game that'll sharpen children's listening skills while they have a lot of fun! You can change the name of 'Simon' to anything more suited to your class. And if you'd like to put a spin on it, use various names with the rule that children only need to follow instructions when the chosen one says them to. It's also a great way to reinforce left and right, colours, shapes, numbers and more!

Fill In the Gaps - Choose a less popular children's rhyme or song that the wee ones are likely to not know yet. Print the lyrics, but leave some of the words off; children need to fill these gaps as they listen to the pieces.

Repeat and Add to the Story - Take children to the market and see what they'd like to buy there. Start the list with one item, then the next child needs to repeat yours and add theirs to the list; the game goes on and on, until someone forgets one of the items off the list.



Questions:

1. How might you stage listening skills in lesson?
2. What different listening skills can you think of?
3. What do you think the recording more than two times is more effectively or "pause" at crucial moment?
4. Is listening not complicated as reading?
5. Should we provide relevant and interesting tasks in English-speaking countries or against ones?
6. Can listening be integrated with only language work?



1 *Writing a review of recently seen film is more effectively for which class?*

- a) Pre-level
- b) Low-level
- c) High-level

2 *If listening is not too long it is better to play it how many times?*

- a) Second time
- b) Four times
- c) Three times

3 *Listen to the recording before the lesson for how it is ...*

- a) Audible
- b) Long
- c) Clear

4 *How can you check the recording is it clear to hear or not?*

- a) Give out the task
- b) play a few seconds
- c) It is impossible

5 *Communication is ...*

- a) Necessary
- b) Interesting
- c) Important

6 *We should provide tasks which are ...*

- a) Relevant and interesting
- b) Interesting and audible
- c) Relevant and audible

Teaching vocabulary. Modern technologies of teaching vocabulary

Keywords: *vocabulary, criteria, reported speech, input activities, output activities, deliberate learning, communicative use, verbatim report*



Vocabulary can be defined, roughly, as the words we teach in the foreign language. However, a new item of vocabulary may be more than a single word (e.g. post office) multi-word idioms (e.g. call a day). A useful convention is to cover all such cases by talking about vocabulary ‘items’ rather than ‘words’.

Vocabulary teaching has the goal of supporting language use across the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, and there has been considerable debate especially in first language teaching how this can be done. The core of the debate involves the role played by deliberate, decontextualized vocabulary learning. For second or foreign language learners the deliberate study of vocabulary can account for a large proportion of vocabulary learning. In addition, there is now plenty of evidence to show that deliberate learning can result in large amounts of learning that is retained over substantial periods. There may be a small amount of truth in the idea that deliberate learning does not readily transfer to communicative use. Studies of

the effect of pre-teaching vocabulary on reading comprehension indicate that such teaching needs to be rich and reasonably intensive if it is to have a positive effect on comprehension. However, deliberate vocabulary learning results directly in implicit knowledge, which is needed for normal language use. Deliberate learning activities tend to focus on associating a meaning with a foreign language form and although there is much more to learning a word than making this association, it is a very substantial first step on the way to learning a word.

Designing input activities to encourage vocabulary learning. Vocabulary learning is greatly helped when listening if the teacher quickly defines unfamiliar words and notes them on the board. In all kinds of activities where input becomes a source of output, such as listening to a text and then having to answer questions, the relationship between the input and the output can have a major effect on vocabulary learning. If the questions following a listening text pick up target vocabulary or the use of target vocabulary from a text and require the learner to adapt it or extend its application in some way, then the condition of elaboration is likely to occur. Here is a brief example from a text about the heavy weight of students' school bags. The text states 'A study has found that school children are carrying very heavy weights every day, and these might be hurting them. These weights are up to twice the level, which is allowed for adults. Their school bags are filled with heavy books, sports equipment, drinking water, musical equipment, and sometimes a computer.' The question after the text is 'How old are you when you are an adult?'. Note how this question a) requires use of the target word adult, b) requires the learner to extend the meaning of the word and c) requires the word to be used in a linguistic context different from that in the text. Retrieval and generative use are thus likely to make a strong contribution to the learning of the word. Such questions can also be used where the input occurs through reading. Material designed for vocabulary learning from input thus needs to provide quantity of input, needs to encourage deliberate attention to vocabulary, and needs to have low numbers and densities of unknown vocabulary.

Designing output activities to help vocabulary learning. Recent work on spoken communicative activities has shown that careful design of the written input

for such activities can have a major effect on vocabulary learning. There are some reasonably straightforward design requirements to ensure that the vocabulary will be used in the activities and that it will be used in ways that set up the most favorable conditions for learning. Let us look at an example of a speaking activity called for and against to see what the design requirements are and how they can be applied.

The written input: Group A Around the age of 18, children should be encouraged to leave home and take care of themselves. Your group has to present the ideas, which support this. You do not have to argue in favor of these ideas but you must make sure that the ideas, which support it, are well understood by everybody before a decision is made. First step: Look at the following ideas, explain them to each other in your group so that everyone understands them. Then put the ideas in order according to their importance with the strongest idea first. Think of one example for each idea to help you explain it to others during the 2nd step. Materials for Teaching Children will learn to be responsible for their own decisions. Children will learn how to handle their finances. Children and parents will have a better relationship with each other. The parents can save for their retirement. Second step: Your group will now split up and you will join with some people from the other group. You must all work together to decide if you all support or do not support the idea about children leaving home. Group B has similar input except they have to understand the arguments attacking the idea of children leaving home. They have the following list at the first step. Students at 18 years old are not mature enough to be responsible for their own decisions. Children should support their parents and help them with the household work. While at home, children can save money to help themselves make a good financial start in life.

Some criteria. The writer of materials for the teaching and learning of grammar has a number of considerations to take into account. These include:

- a) The age and level of the learners who will be using the materials;
- b) the extent to which any adopted methodology meets the expectations of a) learners, b) teachers, c) the educational culture within which the learners and teachers work; c) the extent to which any contexts and co-texts which are employed in order to present the grammar area(s) will be of interest to learners; d) the nature of the

grammatical areas to be dealt with, in terms of their form, their inherent meaning implications (if any), and how they are used in normally occurring spoken and / or written discourse; e) the extent to which any language offered to the learners for them to examine the grammar used represents realistic use of the language, and the extent to which activities for learners to produce language containing the target grammar will result in meaningful utterances, and ones which bear at least some resemblance to utterances which the learners would be likely to want to produce in their own, non-classroom discourse; f) any difficulties that learners can be expected to encounter when learning these areas of grammar, especially with regard to any similarities or differences in form, function, and form / function relationship, between the target language and their mother tongue.

The first three listed here are of course of great importance for anyone working with or designing materials for classroom use. This chapter restricts itself to considering the last three, since the extent to which grammar materials accurately reflect the language and the learners' linguistic needs, and to which they encourage and allow learners to produce language, which is of relevance to them, are factors whose absence may result in material, which is interesting, but of low pedagogic value.

Teaching grammar through content. Teaching grammar through content is also called Content-Based Instruction (CBI). It refers to an approach to second language teaching in which teaching is organized around the content or information that students will acquire, rather than around a linguistic or other type of syllabus. Content-based instruction (CBI) refers to "the concurrent study of language and subject matter, with the form and sequence of language presentation dictated by content material" (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989: vii). To this end, CBI uses authentic (i.e., material not originally produced for language teaching purposes) tasks and materials while emphasizing accommodation to language learners' needs through increased redundancy and exemplification and the use of advance organizers, frequent comprehension checks, and frequent, straightforward assignments and assessment procedures. Eskey (1997) defines CBI as follows: CBI is the integration of content learning with language aims (Brinton et al., 1989), and

for most language instructors, one of the aims of language instruction is to provide learners with a grasp of the grammatical systems that operate in that language. One of the conditions that Brinton et al. (1989) claim CBI to fulfill is “a focus on use as well as on usage” (p. viii), as does Eskey’s concern with language form and language function.

Integrating opportunities for play. Incorporating games into grammar instruction can be incredibly effective and engaging. You can use games to introduce new structures or reinforce what you’ve just examined, or both! Consider games, like Board Race, that utilize TPR (Total Physical Response) to aid in retention and burn a bit of extra energy.

To play Board Race with a grammar twist:

- Divide your students into small groups and have them congregate in different corners of the room
- Place index cards with clearly-written past tense irregular verbs in a common space, with equidistance from each of the groups.
- Say a word out loud in the present tense, and have students chat with their peers to figure out what past tense verb they need to locate on the board.
- Have students send one representative to the board to grab the word before the other teams do.

The place of grammar teaching

The place of grammar in the teaching of foreign language is controversial. Most people agree that knowledge of a language means, among other things, knowing its grammar; but this knowledge may be intuitive (as it is in our native language), and it is not necessarily true that grammatical structures need to be taught as such, or that formal rules need to be learned. There are some extracts from the literature relating to the teaching of grammar, which express a variety of opinions on this question. They are necessarily decontextualized and over-simplified versions of their writers’ opinions: nevertheless the issue they raise are basic and interesting.

Some criteria

The writer of materials for the teaching and learning of grammar has a number of considerations to take into account. These include:

- ✓ the age and level of the learners who will be using the materials;
- ✓ the extent to which any adopted methodology meets the expectations of a) learners, b) teachers
- ✓ the educational culture within which the learners and teachers work; c the extent to which any contexts and co-texts which are employed in order to present the grammar area(s) will be of interest to learners;
- ✓ the nature of the grammatical areas to be dealt with, in terms of their form, their inherent meaning implications (if any), and how they are used in normally occurring spoken and / or written discourse;
- ✓ the extent to which any language offered to the learners for them to examine the grammar used represents realistic use of the language, and the extent to which activities for learners to produce language containing the target grammar will result in meaningful utterances, and ones which bear at least some resemblance to utterances which the learners would be likely to want to produce in their own, non-classroom discourse;
- ✓ any difficulties that learners can be expected to encounter when learning these areas of grammar, especially with regard to any similarities or differences in form, function, and form / function relationship, between the target language and their mother tongue.

The first three listed here are of course of great importance for anyone working with or designing materials for classroom use. This chapter restricts itself to considering the last three, since the extent to which grammar materials accurately reflect the language and the learners' linguistic needs, and to which they encourage and allow learners to produce language which is of relevance to them, are factors whose absence may result in material which is interesting but of low pedagogic value.

Reported speech – an examination

There are many traditional areas of grammar which appear in virtually any grammar syllabus or list of contents and which do not need to be dealt with as separate areas, and certainly not dealt with discretely. One example, to be looked at in some detail here, is 'reported speech'. Willis (1990), among others, has argued

that it is unnecessary to treat this as an area of language with its own separate existence and set of rules. (One might also argue that for conversational language use, it is a relatively unimportant feature of language to teach, since ‘Direct speech reporting (where the speaker gives an apparently verbatim report of what someone said) is an important and recurrent feature of conversation’, a position which in fact acts as the starting point for a section on direct and indirect speech in Carter et al. (2000, p. 40)). If we look at what a speaker needs to do in order to produce an utterance in ‘reported speech’, we will find things such as:

The ability to select a verb which reflects how the ‘reporter’ views the original speech act (e.g. say, tell, explain, suggest, admit, ask, etc.);

knowledge of the implications of the verb selection for the following structure (e.g. he asked me if . . . or he asked me to . . .);

the ability to refer to periods of time at a deictic distance (e.g. the day before / the following day / three weeks later as opposed to yesterday / tomorrow / in three weeks’ time etc.), and also to make other deictic references at a remove (e.g. the house as opposed to this house

when the verb selected for reporting is followed by a ‘that . . .’ verb phrase, the ability to select an appropriate tense form for the verb in the ‘that’ clause

Receptive grammar activities

Much grammar practice in the area of reported speech is of the kind which requires learners to take a given utterance in direct speech and ‘transform’ it into reported speech, and to do so by ‘shifting’ the verb tense. It is hard to imagine that this bears any resemblance to what happens in actual language production – and real-time, online language production is what learners want and need to be able to work with. Brazil (1996, p. 239) points out that: Sentence grammars, deriving as

they do from an abstraction away from potential use, pose questions about the organization of language that seem to have little to do with those engaging the attention of people who are involved in communicating with others. And one might add that transformation grammar exercises (whether for ‘reported speech’, ‘the passive’ or whatever other grammar area) require language learners to make decisions and produce language in a way which is quite divorced from the decisions and production that online communication will require. What alternatives are there to transformation exercises? Lewis (1993, p. 154) points a possible way forward with a call for an emphasis on grammar as a receptive skill: ‘Awareness raising’ is a term which has recently acquired currency in language teaching terminology. The unifying feature behind all these commentators is the assertion that it is the students’ ability to **observe accurately**, and **perceive similarity and difference** within target language data which is most likely to aid the acquisition of the grammatical system. Within this theoretical framework, **grammar as a receptive skill** has an important role to play.

This is echoed in many ways by Ellis, who argues for what he terms ‘interpretative grammar tasks’ which ‘. . . focus learners’ attention on a targeted structure in the input and [. . .] enable them to identify and comprehend the meaning(s) of this structure. This approach emphasizes input processing for comprehension rather than output processing for production . . .’ (Ellis, 1995, p. 88). The notion of ‘grammar as a receptive skill’ is not a new one – exercises have been produced and published over the years which require learners to work with aspects of grammar without actually producing utterances which employ the grammar under consideration. Arguments can and have, however, been made for a conscious adoption of receptive grammar on a theoretical basis, as for example by Batstone (1996, p. 273) who argues:

Overt Grammar Instruction

Adult students appreciate and benefit from direct instruction that allows them to apply critical thinking skills to language learning. Instructors can take advantage of this by providing explanations that give students a descriptive understanding (declarative knowledge) of each point of grammar.

- Teach the grammar point in the target language or the students' first language or both. The goal is to facilitate understanding.
- Limit the time you devote to grammar explanations to 10 minutes, especially for lower level students whose ability to sustain attention can be limited.
- Present grammar points 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;

- Be sure the examples are accurate and appropriate. They must present the language appropriately, be culturally appropriate for the setting in which they are used, and be to the point of the lesson.
- Use the examples as teaching tools. Focus examples on a particular theme or topic so that students have more contact with specific information and vocabulary.

Error Correction

At all proficiency levels, learners produce language that is not exactly the language used by native speakers. Some of the differences are grammatical, while others involve vocabulary selection and mistakes in the selection of language appropriate for different contexts.

In responding to student communication, teachers need to be careful not to focus on error correction to the detriment of communication and confidence building. Teachers need to let students know when they are making errors so that they can work on improving. Teachers also need to build students' confidence in their ability to use the language by focusing on the content of their communication rather than the grammatical form.

Teachers can use error correction to support language acquisition, and avoid using it in ways that undermine students' desire to communicate in the language, by taking cues from context.



Questions:

1. When a new vocabulary more than a single word or multi-word idioms what can be a useful conversation to cover all such cases?
2. According to the studies, what kind of teaching needs to be in order to have positive effect on comprehension?
3. When the relationship between the input and output can have a major effect on vocabulary learning?
4. Give some examples for verbs, which reflect how the “reporter” views the original act in reported speech?
5. Explain the views, which were pointed out by Brazil about grammar in 1993?
6. The writer of materials for teaching and learning of grammar has a number of considerations, which should not be overlooked, and what are these considerations?



1 Which is a multi-word idiom from given words below?

- a) call a day
- b) post office
- c) Easter

2 In which game players have to act out the title of a book, a play or film?

- a) Pictionary
- b) Call my bluff
- c) Charades

3 In which game players have to draw words, which their team then have to guess?

- a) Pictionary
- b) Call my bluff
- c) Charades

4 Who created a simple “point and say” activity from Big Fun 2?

- a) Ellen and H. Mario

- b) H. Maroi and H. Barbara
- c) Ellen and Elgort

5 *What can be defined from “the way words are put together to make correct sentences”?*

- a) Vocabulary
- b) Punctuation
- c) Grammar

6 *Which considerations should be taken into account by the writer of a material?*

- a) only the age of the learners
- b) only the level of the learners
- c) the nature of grammatical areas to deal with

MATERIAL DESIGN AND EVALUATION

Keywords: *visual auditory, materials evaluation, potential value, textbooks, validity of the materials, appeal of the materials, credibility of the materials, learners’ perceptions*



In this, book ‘materials’ ‘include anything which can be used to facilitate the of a language. They can be linguistic visual auditory or kinesthetic and they can be presented in print through live performance or display or on cassette CDOROM DVD or the internet’. They can be instructional experiential elucidative or exploratory in that they can inform learners about the language they can provide experience of the language in use they can stimulate language use or they can help learners to make discoveries about the language for themselves.

The mainstay of classroom materials for the grammar translation method is

the textbook. Textbooks in the 19th century attempted to codify the grammar of the target language into discrete rules for students to learn and memorize. A chapter in a typical grammar-translation textbook would begin with a bilingual vocabulary list, after which there would be grammar rules for students to study and sentences for them to translate. Some typical sentences from 19th-century textbooks are as follows: The philosopher pulled the lower jaw of the hen. My sons have bought the mirrors of the Duke. The cat of my aunt is more treacherous than the dog of your uncle.

Materials Evaluation. What is materials evaluation? Materials evaluation is a procedure that involves measuring the value (or potential value) of a set of learning materials. It involves making judgments about the effect of the materials on the people using them and it tries to measure some or all of the following:

- ✓ the appeal of the materials to the learners;
- ✓ the credibility of the materials to learners, teachers and administrators;
- ✓ the validity of the materials (i.e. Is what they teach worth teaching?);
- ✓ the reliability of the materials (i.e. Would they have the same effect with different groups of target learners?);
- ✓ the ability of the materials to interest the learners and the teachers;
- ✓ the ability of the materials to motivate the learners;
- ✓ the value of the materials in terms of short-term learning (important, for example, for performance on tests and examinations);
- ✓ the value of the materials in terms of long-term learning (of both language and of communication skills);
- ✓ the learners' perceptions of the value of the materials;
- ✓ the teachers' perceptions of the value of the materials;
- ✓ the assistance given to the teachers in terms of preparation, delivery and

Assessment;

Those with a responsibility for the development and administration of language learning programs in either educational or workplace settings will need little persuading that materials evaluation and design, along with, say, syllabus design,

learner assessment and the study of classroom processes, as aspects of curriculum planning and development, are centrally important applied linguistic activities. The value of work on materials has also been recognized for some time within the academic community. Johnson, for instance, writing of three phases in the development of applied linguistics, describes the second phase as one in which work on needs analysis, the syllabus, materials design, the roles of teacher and learner and classroom interaction brought the language curriculum 'more closely into line with our new and broader understanding of communicative competence and the processes of language acquisition and use'. Byrd notes that 'materials writing and publication has become a professional track within the professional field of teaching ESL'. Byrd's comment comes from her introduction to a collection of papers written by members of the Materials Writers Special Interest Section within TESOL, the American-based international association of teachers of English to speakers of other languages; a further collection was produced by the British-based international Materials Development Association, which also publishes a regular journal; and a Materials Writing Special Interest Group has been formed within the British based International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL). Acceptance of the appropriateness of materials as a field of serious study, from the perspective of evaluation, design or research, has also been reflected in the increasing inclusion of materials evaluation and design as a field of study within BEd and Master's programmes, and the (still small, but growing) number of students pursuing doctoral research, together with the not unrelated increase in publications, one of which is tellingly entitled Applied Linguistics and Materials Development.



Questions:

1. What is material evaluation?
2. How can material evaluation and design be applied in linguistic activities?
3. What materials does the material evaluation involve?
4. What effects of the material does it measure?

5. Which considerations should we take about material evaluation?
6. Why material evaluation is important?



1 In which century the grammar of the target language was attempted to codify into discrete rules.

- a) 19th century
- b) 20th century
- c) 21th century

2 In which field of teaching did material writing and publication become a track?

- a) EFL
- b) ESL
- c) ESOL

3 Which of the following is the typical sentence from 19th century Textbooks

- a) My son have bought the mirrors of the Duke
- b) The cat of my aunt is more treacherous than the dog of your uncle
- c) Both answers are correct

4 What does the material evaluation measure?

- a) the value of a set of learning materials
- b) the quality of a set of learning materials
- c) the validity of a set of learning materials

5 Which phase does the Johnson(1998a) describe as one.

- a) first phase
- b) second phase
- c) third phase

6 Which association publishes collections, journals?

- a) American-based international association

- b) British-based international association
- c) Both answers are correct

Material design and observation. Selecting and analyzing course books

Keywords: *activities, topics, objectives, potential limitations, publication, knowledge, micro-manage, presentation, practice, production approach*



Many examples of materials produced for language teaching and learning purposes seem to follow a very similar format: they only differ in shape and visual impact, but are very often based on similar topics and activities, hence similar objectives. Here are a few common characteristics:

The activities are mostly based on language manipulation, such as drills, comprehension tests, substitution tables;

The topics are generally trivial and very often not relevant to the learners' needs and interests;

The objectives are usually based on the main format of the Presentation, Practice, Production Approach (PPP), which seems to be still overwhelmingly present in so many textbooks for language teaching and yet has very little basis in research. In addition, the topics seem to reoccur particularly in many low-level books, where the lower the level, the less controversial and provocative the content seems to be. Particularly for materials published for beginners, for example, the following seem very commonly found:

Introductions Numbers
Food & Drink
Time Expressions
Expressions of Quantity/Shopping
The Future

Transport

A number of potential limitations can be identified with these types of language teaching materials:

- ♦ they tend to undermine and demotivate learners;
- ♦ they are rather trivial;
- ♦ they are not new or innovative;
- ♦ they tend to give a very stereotypical image of the target language;

They do not take into consideration their main users, more specifically learners and teachers.

As a precursor to the evaluation or assessment of any set of materials, we need, then, support in arriving at an analysis of the materials, in such a way that assumptions about what is desirable are separated from a detailed description of the materials. We need, in other words, a general framework which allows materials to ‘speak for themselves’ and which helps teacher-analysts to look closely into materials before coming to their *own* conclusions about the desirability or otherwise of the materials. This suggests three separate questions which we need to consider carefully:

What aspects of materials should we examine?

How can we examine materials?

How can we relate the findings to our own teaching contexts?

What aspects of materials should we examine? There are very many aspects, which one can examine in a set of materials. It would be possible, for example, to describe materials in terms of the quality of the paper and binding, pricing, layout, size, typeface and so on. One might also look closely at the artwork and texts in the materials to see, for example, how the sexes are represented, how cultural bias may be evident, how the materials treat ‘green’ issues, how they promote ‘consumerism’, and so on. Each of these will be important aspects, depending on the purposes one has in looking at the materials. My focus here, however, is on materials as a *pedagogic* device, that is, as an aid to teaching and learning a foreign language. This will limit the focus to aspects of the *methodology* of the materials, and the linguistic

nature of their *content*. To this end, there are a number of established analyses of language teaching which can guide us in identifying significant aspects of materials. Each of these models, however, was evolved for a specific purpose and so will not, on its own, be suitable for an analysis of *any* set of teaching materials. The framework, which I propose, draws extensively on both the Breen and Candling and Richards and Rodgers models in an attempt to provide the basis for a more comprehensive listing of the aspects, which, from a pedagogic viewpoint, need to be taken into account when analyzing materials.

Publication

Place of the learner's materials in any wider set of materials Published

form of the learner's materials

Subdivision of the learner's materials into sections

Subdivision of sections into sub-sections

Continuity

Route

Access

Design

Aims

Principles of selection

Principles of sequencing

Subject matter and focus of subject matter

Types of teaching/learning activities what they require the learner to do manner in which they draw on the learner's process competence (knowledge, affects, abilities, skills)

Participation: who does what with whom Learner roles

Teacher roles

Developing materials in language teaching

Role of the materials as a whole the framework consists of two main sections: A *publication* and *design*. The second section in the framework *design* (following Richards and Rodgers) relates to the thinking underlying the materials.

This will involve consideration of areas such as the apparent aims of the materials, (such as the development of ‘general English’, ESP, or specific skills), how the tasks, language and content in the materials are selected and sequenced (such as a particular syllabus type and use of corpora) and the nature and focus of content in the materials (such as cross-curricular content, storylines, topics). Also of central importance in this will be the nature of the teaching/learning activities, which are suggested by the materials (such as ‘whole tasks’, comprehension tasks, learner training, etc.). An analysis of teaching/learning activities will need to focus closely on what precisely learners are asked to *do*, and how what they do relates to what Breen and Candling call learners’ ‘process competence’. Process competence refers to the learners’ capacity to draw on different realms of *knowledge* (concepts, social behavior and how language is structured), their *affects* (attitudes and values), their *abilities* to express, interpret and deduce meanings, and to use the different *skills* of reading, writing, speaking and listening. Teaching/learning activities are also likely to suggest modes of classroom participation— for example, whether the learners are to work alone or in groups— and, from this, the roles that teachers and learners are to adopt. Finally, we may examine the materials to determine what role they intend for themselves. Do they, for example, aim to ‘micro-manage’ the classroom event by providing detailed guidance on how teachers and learners are to work together, or do they only provide ideas that teachers and learners are actively encouraged to critically select from or develop?

How to design language teaching materials (in general)

Teachers often use different learning and language tools and techniques to make learning captivating and impart quality education. To make learning more effective, teachers can take the assistance of teaching-learning materials or TLMs. In this article, we will bring to you everything that you need to know about teaching-learning material and more!

Teachers can make their classes really intriguing and more significant for the students by utilizing a few articles or materials to help their verbal depictions. Utilizing an enormous assortment of materials is found to improve better comprehension of ideas and for making learning seriously fascinating. Teaching-

learning material is also called Instructional material or Teaching Aids. Today, with the emphasis on learning in a student-focused methodology, students need an ever-increasing number of materials to improve their ability to learn together or independently. 'TLM' becomes fundamental to having a superior comprehension of the nature of the subject matter.

Visuals Aids: Blackboard, Posters, Flashcards, Presentations, Printed textbooks, Graphs and Infographics

Audio Aids: Radio, Tape-recorder and CDs

Audio-visual aids: Videos, Video recordings, Films and Documentaries, Virtual Classrooms

Language Laboratory

Computer-Assisted Learning: Pre-recorded DVDs, CDs, online quizzes, e-books, podcasts and blogs Given below are reasons why Teaching-Learning Material is crucial to learning:

Learning new ideas becomes simpler if the student is given recognizable materials linked with the subject matter

Typically little children are drawn to objects of various tones and measures and show their interest in controlling these in different manners which when fed cautiously assists with fostering a propensity for playing with an assortment of articles. This aids in upgrading their creativity.

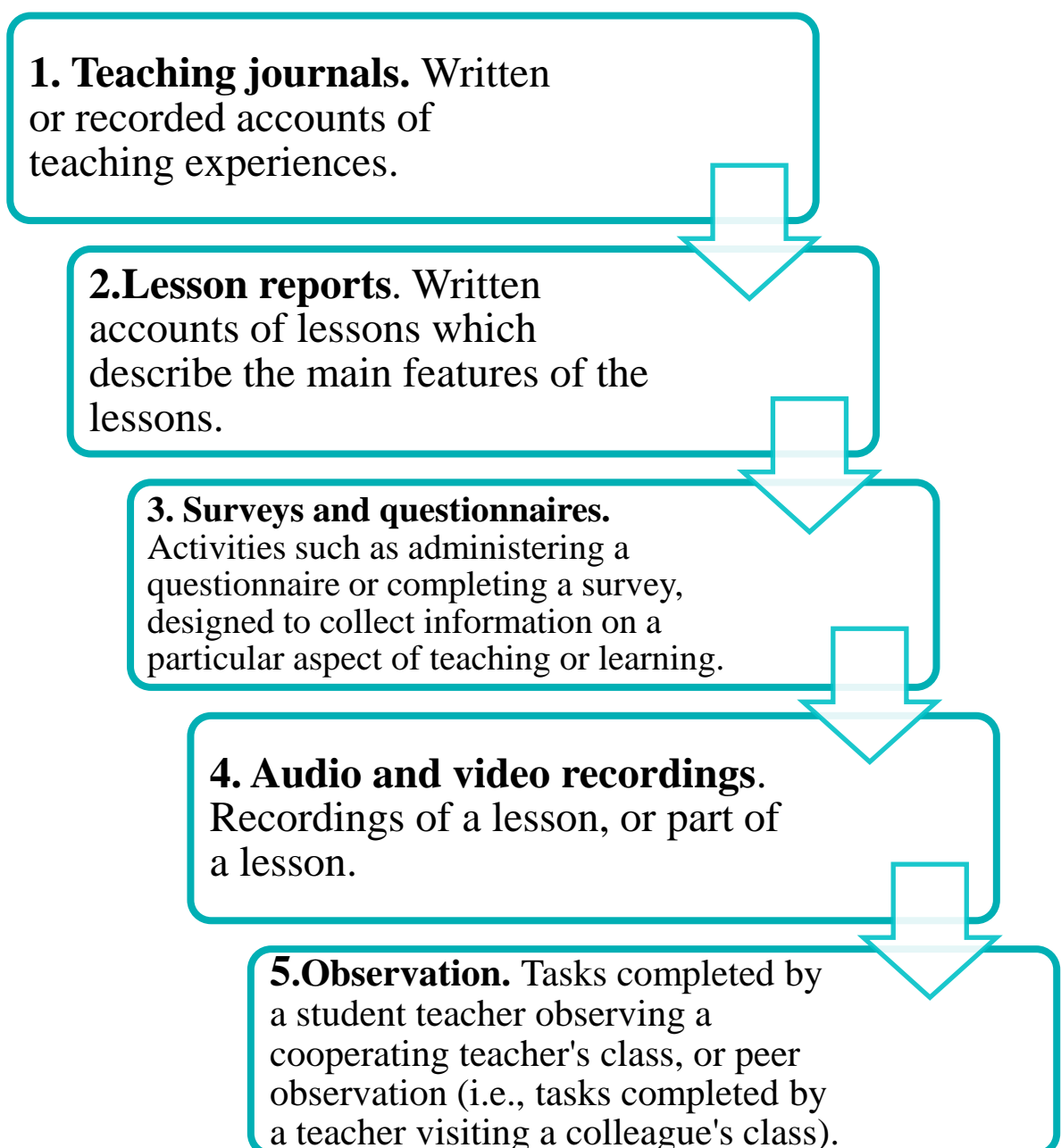
TLMs are required for compelling self-learning. With the utilization of proper materials, one can learn on their own with absolute power over their speed of learning.

By utilizing Teaching Learning Materials, teachers turn amicable; a cordial environment is constructed which significantly helps in learning.

Classroom investigation. The assumption underlying this book is that in every lesson and in every classroom, events occur which the teacher can use to develop a deeper understanding of teaching. Teachers sometimes fail to exploit these events, letting momentum of all the other events of the day take precedence. Yet these experiences can serve as the basis for critical reflection, if teachers can find ways to capture the thoughts of and reactions to these events, as well as ways to gather fuller

information about the events themselves. From this basis, teachers can develop strategies for intervention or change, depending on their needs. In this chapter, a number of simple procedures are introduced that can be used to help teachers investigate classroom teaching. Each procedure has advantages and limitations, and some are more useful for exploring certain aspects of teaching than others. The reader will have to decide which procedures are useful and for what purposes.

The procedures discussed here will be referred to throughout the book and consist of:





Questions:

1. How can we design a material?
2. What aspects of materials should we examine?
3. How can we examine materials?
4. How can we relate the findings to our own teaching contexts?
5. What is the process competence?

The relation between syllabus, course book, and materials

Keywords: *syllabus, grammatical, lexical, grammatical-lexical, situational, topic based, notional, functional-notional, mixed or multi strand, procedural, process*



A syllabus is a document, which consists essentially of a list. This list specifies all the things that are to be taught in the courses for which the syllabus was designed it is therefore comprehensive. The actual components of the list may be either content items. (Words, structures, topics,) or process ones (tasks, methods).

A number of different kinds of syllabuses are used in foreign language teaching.

A list of these is provided below it is not of course exhaustive but includes the main types that you may come across in practice or in your reading. Each is briefly explained some also include references to sources of more detailed information on content or rationale.

Types of syllabuses

- Grammatical

A list of grammatical structures such as the present tense, comparison of adjectives relative clauses usually divided into sections graded according to difficulty and or importance.

- Lexical

A list of lexical items (girl, boy, go, away...) with associated collocations and idioms, usually divided into graded sections. One such syllabus, based on a corpus (a computerized collection of samples of authentic language) is described in Willis

1990.

- Grammatical-lexical

A very common kind of syllabus: both structures and lexis are specified: together, in sections that either correspond to the units of a course, or in two separate lists.

- Situational

These syllabuses taken the real-life contexts of language uses as their basis: sections would be headed by names of situations or locations such as eating meal or in the street

- Topic based

This is rather like the situational syllabus, except that the headings are broadly topic-based including things like Food or The family these usually indicate a clear set of vocabulary items, which may be specified.

- Notional

Notions are concepts that language can express. General notions may include number for example or time, place, color; specific notions look more like vocabulary items: operate, woman, afternoon.

- Functional-notional

Functions are things you can do with language, as distinct from notions you can express: Examples are identifying, denying, promising. Purely functional syllabuses are rare: usually both functions and notions are combined, as for example in Van Ek, 1990.

- Mixed or multi strand

Increasingly modern syllabuses are combining different aspects in order to be maximally comprehensive and helpful to teachers and learners in these you may find specification of topics, tasks, functions and notions, as well as grammar and vocabulary.

- Procedural

These syllabuses specify the learning tasks to be done rather than the language itself or even its meanings. Examples of tasks might be map reading, doing scientific experiments' story writing. The most well-known procedural syllabus is that

associated with the Bangalore Project (Prabhu, 1987)

- Process

This is only syllabus, which is not pre-set. The content of the course is negotiated with the learners at the beginning of the course and during it, and actually listed only retrospectively.

A *course book* should be related to critically we should be aware of its good and bad points in order to make the most of the first and compensate for or neutralize the second. Some general critical questions to be asked about the course book as a whole will already have emerged if you done the previous unit; in this one we shall be looking at more specific, detailed aspects: the components of a singular unit, or chapter, and what we might need to do in order to make the best use of it.

Course book coverage

- Pronunciation practice
- Introduction of new vocabulary and practice
- Grammar explanations and practice
- Recordings for listening practice
- listening and speaking communicative tasks
- Reading and writing communicative tasks
- Mixed- skills commutative tasks
- Short and long reading texts
- Dictionary work
- Review of previously learnt material
- Some entertaining or fun activities.

Some course book exercise are more like tests brief checks to see whether the learner knows something or not rather than frameworks for extended and interesting rehearsals of different aspects of language.

Materials. Most language – teaching course books probably need supplementing to some extent if only in order to tailor them to the needs of a particular class or to offer richer options. This unit describes briefly various types of supplementary materials their contribution to language learning advantages and

disadvantages and invites you to consider which are most useful and important to you.

Many as an important teaching aid see computers. These days learners need to be computer literate and since computers use language, it would seem logical to take advantage of them for language learning. For teachers who are familiar with their use computers can be invaluable for preparing materials such as worksheets or tests. Books are very user-friendly packages of material they are light easily scanned easily stacked and do not need hardware or electricity. They are still the most continent and popular method of packaging large texts and a library of them is arguably the best way for learners to acquire a wide experience of foreign language reading.

Overhead projectors these are useful for presenting visual or written material to classes they are more vivid and attention catching than the black or white boards. They also save lesson time, since you can prepare the displays in advance.

Video equipment video is an excellent source of authentic spoken language material it is also attractive and motivating. It is flexible you can start and stop it run forward or back freeze frames in order to talk about them.

Posters, pictures, games

Materials of this kind are invaluable particularly for young learners and teachers of children find that they constantly use them. However if you have time this type of material can be largely mime made glossy magazines in particular are an excellent source of pictures.



Questions:

1. What kind of categories of syllabuses are there?
2. Which type of syllabus can be effectively utilized in communicative situations?
3. What is the general objective of Analytic syllabuses?
4. What can give an opportunity to learners to exchange ideas with each other?

5. What does SLA focus on?
6. Do you know? What is task-based syllabus?



1 *Learners who used this syllabus will be capable of resynthesizing discrete pieces of language into coherent. Which type of syllabus is it?*

- a) Analytic syllabus
- b) Synthetic syllabus
- c) Communicative syllabus

2 *What is the purpose of ESL/EFL curriculums?*

- a) to describe and evaluate one implementation of task-based learning
- b) to codify the grammar of the target language
- c) to increase the demand for task-based learning

3 *Which syllabus is considered as a noninterventionist and experiential approach that aims to immerse learners in real-life communication?*

- a) task-based syllabus
- b) grammatical-lexical syllabus
- c) analytic syllabus

4 *What does consist of the structure of grammatical syllabus?*

- a) grammatical structures, adverbs, relative clauses
- b) grammatical structures, adjectives, relative clauses
- c) grammatical structures, adjectives, conjunctions

5 *What type of syllabus is based on corpus (a computerized collection of samples of authentic language) is described)?*

- a) lexical syllabus
- b) grammatical-lexical syllabus
- c) grammatical syllabus

6 *Textbooks in 19th century attempted to.....?*

- a) to differentiate the syllabuses
- b) to teach a bilingual vocabulary list to learners
- c) to codify the grammar of the target language into discrete rules to learn

Role of digital tools, apps and platforms

Keywords: *language teachers, basic functions, Search for and receive, publish and provide, talk to and reply, collaborate and learn, personalization*



Nowadays, we live in age of technology and unlimited communication whereas there are growing demands on everyone, including teachers and students, to be technologically literate. In this era, it is clear that English has been a global language, not only in general life but also in international education for specific. In education, the implementation of internet as the backbone of online-learning, online-course and dedicated course material servers, are not a new things.

The correlation of internet and education as Mark Warschauer states: “The significant number and amount of information available in internet nowadays has been beyond the imaginations and expectations of the inventors of internet itself. At least, there are two advantages in enrolment of education: for teacher’s internet as professional development, and for learners internet as learning resources.” Even now it can be assumed that the internet as information superhighway, digital revolution, and electronic library, where most of its contents are in English.

- Internet and Language Teachers

While the computer is now used in some form or another in most language classrooms, and is considered standard equipment, the Internet is also gradually being introduced in the foreign language classroom as teachers become more familiar with it. The Internet is a confederation of thousands of computers from

various sectors of society such as education, business, government and the military. It is a network of thousands of computer networks (Lewis, 1994). Each individual system brings something different to the whole (databases, library services, graphs, maps, electronic journals, etc), and the result is a vast accumulation of information. It is a worldwide network of computers that interact on a standardized set of protocols, which act independently of particular computer operating systems, allowing for a variety of access methods to the Internet. It can be used to both exchange information through electronic mail, newsgroups, list servers, professional on-line discussion groups, and so forth, as well as to retrieve information on a variety of topics through the World Wide Web.

- Four Basic Functions

Grey (1999) has identified four ways in which the Internet can function as an educational tool in schools. These can also be considered four basic ways the Internet can be used in ESL/EFL classrooms.

Search for and receive. This category comprises activities that are based on using the Internet as a huge virtual library. In these activities, students search for and retrieve information from this library.

Publish and provide. These activities involve not the retrieval, but the publication of information. This publishing is done on web pages, which are the basic places where information is stored on the Internet.

Talk to and reply. These conversational activities take place via the Internet through email correspondence and in 'chat' rooms. Strictly speaking, this category could also include Internet phone conversations.

Collaborate and learn. This category includes joint projects that involve students in two or more classrooms that might be thousands of miles apart. The fourth way of using the Internet usually involves one or more of the other three ways. Collaboration between classrooms usually involves the use of email. Also, it may include the joint publication of web pages.

The Internet has several advantages as a source of teaching materials according to Warchauer:

Scope: How big is the Internet? Huge might be the most exact answer -though

computer scientists at the NEC Research Institute in the United States estimate that as of April 1998 there were over 320 million pages. As a vast virtual library the Internet offers a seemingly endless range of topics to choose from, all in one handy location. There are even a growing number of materials specifically designed for English language teaching. It is a paperless medium and so it escapes the size restrictions that are characteristic of the coursebook. Internet files *do* have a tangible volume, but the limitations in scope are determined by the users' speed of access and the computer facilities available.

Topicality: While some of the content of the Internet is several years old, much of it is updated on a regular basis: monthly, weekly or daily. You can get today's news from any number of publications without buying them all in the hope of finding that one useful item. In addition, of course, many new publications are being added every day, some of them unavailable in print.)

Personalization: Course books are inescapably limited by the magnitude of the audience for which they are written. The topics may be irrelevant or difficult to discuss with your class, and you may sometimes need alternative topics and texts. The Internet can greatly simplify the task of finding.

In addition to the communication benefits of the Internet, the Internet can also be used to retrieve and access information. The World Wide Web is therefore a virtual library at one's fingertips; it is a readily available world of information for the language learner. While the Internet offers numerous benefits to the language learner, a few such possibilities are examined here, in the context of language learning.

The more enthusiastic and more knowledgeable language teachers are, the more successfully they can implement Internet in the language classroom. For the language learner, the Internet offers a world of information available to students at the touch of a button. While it must be recognized that the Internet cannot replace the language classroom or the interaction between the language teacher and student, it offers a vast amount of information and lends itself to communication possibilities that can greatly enhance the language learning experience.



Questions:

1. Why teachers should be technologically literate?
2. What is the internet?
3. What is the size if internet?
4. Count the advantages of using internet on educational purposes!
5. What does determine the borders in scope?
6. What can boost the language learning experience? (How?)



1 *Who is the author of this statement? "The significant number and amount of information available in internet nowadays has been beyond the imagination and expectations of the investors of internet itself"*

- a) Mark Wanschuer (1995)
- b) Grey(1998)
- c) Sirajudin Kamal

2 *How many beneficial ways of internet usage Grey has mentioned?*

- a) 2
- b) 4
- c) 6

3 *How big was the internet in 1998?*

- a) Endlessly
- b) Over 320 million pages
- c) 1billion pages

4 *What is the main benefit of personalisation?*

- a) It helps to do coversational activities
- b) It determines users' speed
- c) It helps to find alternative topics and texts very fast.

5 *What is the topicality?*

- a) Frequency of updating data
- b) Borders of internet
- c) App for doing conversational activities

6 *Which does category include the joint publication of web pages?*

- a) Publish and provide
- b) Search for and receive
- c) Collaborate and learn

The problem of evaluation and adaptation teaching materials

Keywords: *materials and methods, authentic material, “filler” sounds, language-teaching video, self-access resource, lesson materials*



The teacher plays a key role in the success or failure of any video used in the language classroom. The teacher selects the video, relates the video to students' needs, promotes active viewing, and integrates the video with other areas of the language curriculum. Any video's chances of achieving the important goals of motivating students' interest, providing realistic listening practice, stimulating language use, and heightening students' awareness of particular language points or other aspects of communication can be improved or destroyed by the way in which the teacher introduces the video and the activities which the students carry out in conjunction with viewing.

Video is an extremely dense medium, one that incorporates a wide variety of visual elements and a great range of audio experiences in addition to spoken language. This can be baffling for many students. The teacher is there to choose appropriate sequences, prepare the students for the viewing experience, focus the

students' attention on the content, play and replay the video as needed, design or select viewing tasks, and follow up with suitable post viewing activities. Published language teaching video materials usually provide guidance for teachers. Indeed, the most sophisticated of these are usually part of a multimedia package that, in addition to the videos themselves, includes viewing guides, student textbooks, teacher manuals, and audiocassettes. ELT video series such as *The ABC News ESL Video Library* or *Family Album USA* present carefully designed or selected video material in contexts geared to students' interest and are accompanied by student workbooks featuring a variety of viewing activities. However, even if you are using a published course, you may want or need to modify the lesson materials provided, or possibly produce your own lesson plans to fit your timetable and the specific needs of your students. If you are planning to select your own authentic video material or to use language-teaching video as supplementary material, you will have even more preparation to do. The aim of this brief article is to present some guidelines, which will help you plan your video lessons effectively and exploit the video material to its utmost effect. Television and video are so closely associated with leisure and entertainment that many, if not most, students watching video in the classroom expect only to be entertained. Teachers need to lead students to an appreciation of video as a valuable tool for language learning and help them to develop viewing skills, which they can apply to their video and television viewing experiences outside the classroom. When we watch television or video for entertainment, we usually do so passively. For example, we do not normally concentrate on such things as the gestures or other nonverbal signals used by the people on the screen, or listen carefully for the intonation in their voices. Elements such as these are what make video such a rich resource for language learning. It is your job as the teacher to get students to focus their eyes, ears, and minds on the video in ways that will increase both comprehension, recall, and add to the satisfaction they gain from viewing. The video will still remain entertaining, but the students will also come to a recognition of how the medium can be used for learning. Materials and methods.

2. "Materials and methods". A listening blog with embedded video clips, tagged for theme and language level purchased; they may alternatively use Moodle,

which is a well-known open source environment, and teachers are usually invited to populate these with materials and activities that may either be used in class, or as a self-access resource – very often both. Many teachers harness the tools we have mentioned earlier to provide a local, personal home base for independent learning.

3. English Teaching methodology. Many English classes come with a textbook or curriculum for instructors to follow. This can be helpful when designing a course, determining learning outcomes, and assessing students. It also makes it easy for teachers to plan lessons and introduce concepts to students in a logical sequence. There are many potential benefits to using prescribed curricula or materials to teach. However, these resources are not provided by every institution and even when they are; they often lack an authentic context in which students can practice English. In cases where these resources are not provided for a course, or where instructors wish to expose students to highly engaging opportunities to practice English, using authentic materials is an excellent option.

There are many resources available to English language teachers today: from textbooks to online teaching tools, they can all aid and enrich English lessons. Many teachers also introduce authentic English material into their lessons to expose learners to the language as it is spoken in the real world.

Authentic material is any material written in English that was not created for intentional use in the English language classroom. Using this content to teach the English language can make the learning process even more engaging, imaginative and motivating for students. It can also be useful to elicit genuine responses from learners.

The great thing about using authentic material is that it is everywhere, which makes it easy to find, and simple for learners to practice English in their own time. Remember that it is not limited to articles from newspapers and magazines. Songs, TV programs and films, radio and podcasts, leaflets, menus – anything written in English constitutes authentic material.

The best content to select depends on the learners, their level of English and

the course content the teacher wishes to focus on. It is also a good idea to find out the learners' interests – after all, there is no point trying to get students fascinated by a text on the latest sci-fi movie if they're all fans of action films.

The materials should reflect a situation that learners may face in an English-speaking environment – this will help them transition into a world where English is the norm. In this world, people use abbreviations, body language is important and they will use “filler” sounds – such as “ummm” – when they are speaking English – and learners will encounter these in authentic material it's important not to overwhelm learners with the first piece of authentic material. So to begin with, choose articles, songs or sections of TV programs or movies, which are not too difficult to understand or take too long to get through.

Here are 3 tips on selecting authentic materials for the EFL classroom and on combining them with suitable activities that promote learner creativity:

Rehearsal for real-life situations. The language in the texts/audio/video should reflect written or spoken usage (i.e. examples of **'natural'** English, with a variety of genres, idioms etc.). We must verify that the materials provide examples of common, natural language use and that they serve **real life communicative purposes** in the target language. With listening texts, too many different accents can be confusing for our students. We also need to check whether the new lexis our students will encounter in the texts will be useful for their future and whether they will be able to incorporate it in their **active vocabulary** and use it in real life situations.

Promoting cultural awareness. By introducing our students to a variety of authentic materials we are boosting their knowledge of the TL culture. Our learners get a closer look to the foreign culture and are exposed to examples real life language use. Our focus should be on extending their knowledge of the world and on motivating our learners to find out more about the target culture and the people that use the language they are learning. We need to verify, however, whether the information included in the materials is up to date and whether it is too culture specific or overly biased.

Boosting intrinsic motivation. We should never forget the role that motivation plays in successful language learning. If our students do not feel the need or the

enthusiasm to pick up new knowledge then language acquisition will be too hard to be achieved. Teachers need to find ways to transfer their love for languages in the classroom and to be raw models for their students. Diversity and **authenticity in the tasks**, using **topics** that are **relevant, meaningful** and **interesting** to our learners and giving them the opportunity to freely express themselves and participate in the lesson play a key role in boosting our learners' motivation levels.

When selecting authentic materials we should always ask ourselves whether they will **trigger learner interest**. Our students find the topic interesting, meaningful and relevant to their age and preferences. Nobody wants to read or listen to something they do not find interesting. Harmer (2001) emphasizes the “need” for our students to be “**engaged** with what they are reading”. We need to trigger their curiosity and build interest in the topic. The challenge will be to make our students want to explore the authentic materials for themselves, not because they have to, but because they want to.



Questions:

1. Teacher's duties in terms of using the video in in classroom.
2. Which aspects of communication can be improved or destroyed by the teacher?
3. Define the benefits of using video in teaching language .
4. How teachers can make the video as an integral part of the course?
5. Which evidences are brought by visual elements, sometimes by sound effects or music?
6. Which edition of Headway includes examples of the Reading Comprehension-Based approach?



*Which material didn't mention as an available resource to teach English
1 language?*

- a) Textbooks
- b) Authentic English material
- c) TV

2 is any material written in English that was not created for intentional use in the English language classroom. Choose the correct word to complete.

- a) Online books
- b) Authentic material
- c) Textbook

3 The content of lesson depends on learners, their level and...

- a) course content.
- b) Teacher's mood.
- c) Classroom atmosphere.

4 Which is the example of "filler sound"?

- a) And
- b) Ummm
- c) No

5 Which material didn't include for using Authentic material in classroom?

- a) Restaurant menus
- b) Books
- c) Songs.

6 Why author recommend using local restaurants menus?

- a) Meaningful for students
- b) Costs are low
- c) Students can try them in their home.

Planning classroom assessment. Test methods

Keywords: *summative, formative, assessment, AFL, professional skill, goals and criteria, transparency, placement tests, portfolio assessment, alternative assessment.*



There are many reasons why we might want to test students, and many types of test. Those that are at the forefront of most students' and teachers' minds are the public exams which candidates take in order to get a qualification, and the university entrance exams for which students diligently prepare in order to gain entry to prestigious colleges. Important though they are, these exams are only two types of assessment.

Summative and formative assessment

Snapshot exams, which simply give an idea of what a student can do at any given time, are a regular feature of the lives of schoolchildren and those in higher education. They are examples of summative assessment, which measures the product of a student's learning. They may be used to find out how much a candidate knows or can do at the age of 11 or 16, for example. Formative assessment, on the other hand, measures the students' abilities as part of a process. Crucially, the students as well as the teacher are involved in this assessment. Formative assessment is part of the learning process itself and looks to the future, rather than focusing exclusively on what has been achieved up to a given point in time. For this reason, it is sometimes called assessment for learning (AFL). In the same way that teachers give a different kind of feedback on student writing when it is part of a process than they do to a finished piece of work, so formative assessment focuses on helping the students progress to the next level, rather than simply judging them on what they can do now.

Assessment for learning should:

- be part of effective planning of teaching and learning, where both teachers and

students can measure progress towards learning goals.

- focus on how students learn. The students themselves should consider this and understand more about it.
- be a key professional skill for teachers. We should be able to analyse and interpret what we observe.
- be sensitive and constructive because any assessment has an emotional impact. Doing well or badly can have profound effects on test takers.
- take account of the importance of student motivation. The way we give results and the way assessments are given can affect how students feel about learning.
- promote understanding of goals and criteria.
- include student consultation about the criteria for assessment. It is essential that students understand what such criteria mean.
- Help the students know how to improve.
- develop the students' capacity for self-assessment so that they become reflective and self-managing.
- recognize the full range of achievement of all learners.

Qualities of good test

Transparency. This means that anyone concerned with the test should have access to clear statements about what the test is supposed to measure.

Validity. A test is valid if it tests what it is supposed to test. It will only be valid 'if the test offers as accurate as possible a picture of the skill or ability it is supposed to measure'. Thus, if a test doesn't give us an accurate picture of what we are trying to evaluate (the knowledge of and ability to use English), then it isn't much good. We call this kind of validity construct validity.

Types of test

There are five main types of language assessments — aptitude, diagnostic, placement, achievement, and proficiency tests.

1. Aptitude Tests

Aptitude refers to a person's capacity for learning something. Language aptitude tests assess a person's ability to acquire new language skills. Because of the

nature of these tests, they are more general than most other language tests and don't focus on a particular language. Instead, they assess how quickly and effectively a person is able to learn new language skills. Example; An employer might use an aptitude test to select the best employees to take language courses so they can aid in the setup of a new international branch or provide bilingual customer service.

2. Diagnostic Tests

Diagnostic tests are aimed at diagnosing the state of a person's abilities in a certain area — in this case, their language abilities. In contrast to achievement and proficiency tests, diagnostic tests are typically given at the start of a language learning course or program. For example; On a diagnostic test, most test-takers encounter questions or tasks that are outside the scope of their abilities and the material they're familiar with. The results of the test reveal the strengths and weaknesses in one's language abilities. Having a student's diagnostic test results can help teachers formulate lesson plans that fill the gaps in the student's current capabilities. Students can also use diagnostic tests to determine which areas they need to work on in order to reach a higher level of proficiency.

3. Placement Tests

Placement tests share some similarities with diagnostic tests. They are used for educational purposes and are administered before a course or program of study begins. In this case, the application is a bit different. Educators and administrators use placement tests to group language learners into classes or study groups according to their ability levels. A university may give a placement test to determine whether a new French major needs to take introductory French courses or skip over some courses and begin with more advanced classes. Placement tests are also an important type of test in English language teaching at the university level, since international students typically come in with different English-learning backgrounds and proficiency levels.

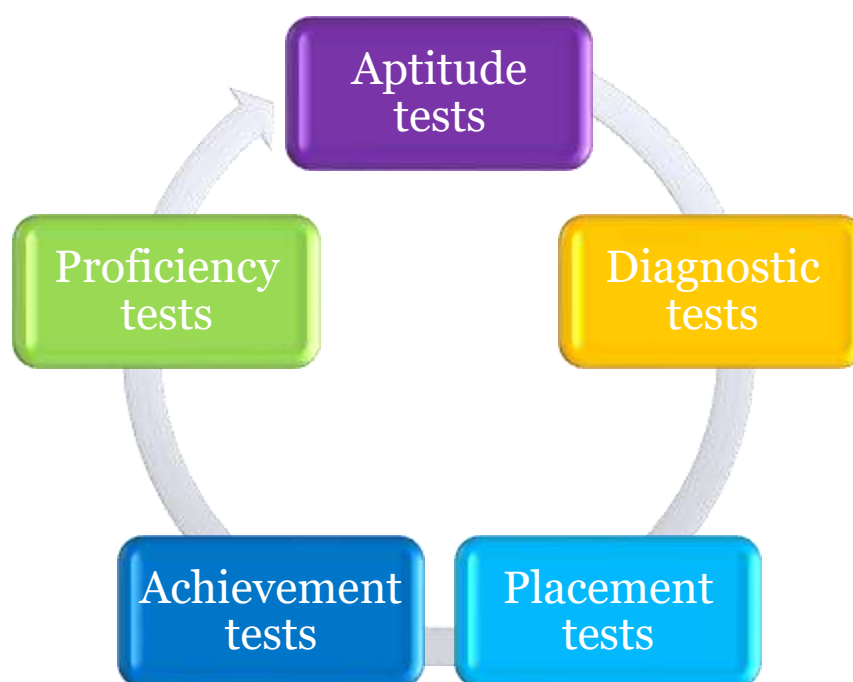
4. Achievement Tests

An achievement test evaluates a student's language knowledge to show how their learning has progressed. Unlike diagnostic, aptitude, and placement tests achievement tests only cover information the student should have been exposed to

in their studies thus far. For instance; Achievement tests are typically given after a class completes a certain chapter or unit or at the conclusion of the course. A language teacher may give a final exam at the end of the semester to see how well a student has retained the information they were taught over the course of the semester. Achievement tests are typically graded and are meant to reflect how well the language tester is performing in their language learning studies.

5. Proficiency Tests

Proficiency refers to a person's competency in using a particular skill. Language proficiency tests assess a person's practical language skills. Proficiency tests share some similarities with achievement tests, but rather than focusing on knowledge, proficiency tests focus on the practical application of that knowledge. Proficiency tests measure a language user's comprehension and production against a rating scale such as the ACTFL, ILR, and CEFR scales. Whereas most of the tests we've looked at are primarily associated with academic contexts, proficiency tests are useful in a variety of settings. Anyone can take a language proficiency test, regardless of how they learned the language and where they believe they are in their level of competency. Proficiency tests accurately measure the candidate's ability to use a language in real-life contexts.



The Value of Language Testing

Language testing is a valuable tool both in language-learning contexts and in professional ones. Language tests can define where a student is in their current knowledge and reveal the path forward to greater proficiency. Professionals can use language testing to determine whether their skill set meets the criteria of a job or whether they need further training. At the same time, employers can certify their employees' and new hires' levels of language proficiency and ensure that they are able to successfully complete the tasks required of them without creating risk for the organization. Language is complex and assessing it can be a complicated endeavor. Thankfully, experts have created tests that effectively assess a person's language skills. As an instructor, employer, student, or professional, all you have to do is take advantage of these tests to get a useful measure of language proficiency.

Portfolio assessment Achievement tests and proficiency tests are both concerned with measuring a student's ability at a certain time. Students only get 'one shot' at showing how much they know. The pressures this puts candidates under can make some of them anxious and they do not do their best in exam conditions. For this reason, many educators claim that 'sudden death' testing is unfair and does not give a true picture of how well some students could do in other circumstances. As a result, many educational institutions allow their students to assemble a portfolio of their work over a period of time (a term or a year, for example). The student can then be assessed based on three or four of the best pieces of work produced during this period.

Alternative assessment has been described as an alternative to standardized testing and all of the problems found with such testing. There is no single definition of alternative assessment. Rather, a variety of labels has been used to distinguish it from traditional, standardized testing. Garc'ia and Pearson include the following in their review of these labels: performance assessment, authentic assessment, portfolio assessment, informal assessment, situated (or contextualized) assessment, and assessment by exhibition. They also state that alternative assessment consists of all of those "efforts that do not adhere to the traditional criteria of standardization, efficiency, cost-effectiveness, objectivity, and machine storability" (p. 355).

Alternative assessment is different from traditional testing in that it actually asks students to show what they can do. Students are evaluated on what they integrate and produce rather than on what they are able to recall and reproduce. The main goal of alternative assessment is to “gather evidence about how students are approaching, processing, and completing ‘real-life’ tasks in a particular domain”. Most important, alternative assessment provides alternatives to traditional testing in that it

- (a) Does not intrude on regular classroom activities;
- (b) reflects the curriculum that is actually being implemented in the classroom;
- (c) provides information on the strengths and weaknesses of each individual student;
- (d) Provides multiple indices that can be used to gauge student progress; and
- (e) is more multicultural sensitive and free of norm, linguistic, and cultural biases found in traditional testing.



Questions:

1. What is assessment?
2. What is the differences between assessment and evaluation?
3. What is formative assessment?
4. What is summative assessment?
5. What is the quality of good test?
6. Types of assessment



1 Types of assessment

- a) Summative formative
- b) Formative mid-term assessment
- c) Starter finish

2 *What is the second name of formative assessment?*

- a) Mid-term assessment
- b) Formal assessment
- c) assessment for learning (AFL)

3 *How many types of tests do you know?*

- a) 4
- b) 5
- c) 6

4 *... refers to a person's capacity for learning something*

- a) Aptitude Tests
- b) Diagnostic Tests
- c) Placement Tests

5 *.... are aimed at diagnosing the state of a person's abilities in a certain Area*

- a) Achievement Tests
- b) Diagnostic Tests
- c) Placement Tests

6 *..... are used for educational purposes and are administered before a course or program of study begins.*

- a) Achievement Tests
- b) Diagnostic Tests
- c) Placement Tests

ANSWERS:

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Unit 1	A	B	A	A	A	B
1.1 §	B	A	C	C	B	B
1.2 §	B	C	B	A	B	C
1.3 §	B	C	B	B	C	B
Unit 2	A	C	C	A	B	C
2.1 §	B	A	A	C	C	B
2.2 §	B	A	C	C	A	C
2.3 §	B	A	B	C	C	A
Unit 3	A	A	C	C	C	
3.1 §	B	C	A	B	A	B
3.2 §	B	B	A	B	A	C
3.3 §	C	A	A	C	B	C
3.4 §	B	C	A	B	C	A
3.5 §	A	C	A	B	C	C
4.2 §	B	A	C	B	A	C
4.3 §	A	B	B	B	A	A
4.4 §	C	B	A	B	B	A
4.5 §	A	C	B	A	B	C

GLOSSARY:

Acquisition A concept contrasted with **learning**, which refers to the unconscious 'picking up' of a language with little if any focus on formal instruction or learning.

Analytic syllabus A syllabus which provides the student with authentic texts from which he makes his own analysis. Structural considerations are secondary to the use to which he puts the language

Aptitude testing Testing the ability to learn a subject.

Appropriacy The fitting of an utterance into the development of a discourse as a whole, so as to achieve a communicative purpose. Usually contrasted with formal 'correctness', where the aim is to produce correct sentences.

Audio-lingual A development of the mimicry-memorisation method. See *mim-mem*. An approach to teaching where oral imitation, memorisation and drilling precede spontaneous speech, extensively using recorded dialogues and drills. Derived from structuralism and now much less common than in the 1950s and '60s.

Audio-visual As for audio-lingual but with the added extensive use of visual materials. Audio-visual aids include tape recorder, OHP, films and slides. Classic examples of audio-visual programmes have been developed by CREDIF (q.v.).

Authentic materials Spoken or written materials not specially written for classroom use but taken from the media or real life.

Bilingual education/schooling This is where two languages are used in the school and some, at least, of the content teaching, e.g. Mathematics, Geography, is in the less familiar one.

Bilingualism Having command of two languages. Until recently the implication was that both languages were spoken with equal proficiency.

Black English A variety of English associated with black communities in the USA with its own characteristic phonology, grammar and lexis

Bloom's taxonomy A way of categorising and describing educational objectives in terms of the cognitive difficulty of tasks.

Body language The largely unconscious communication between people by non-verbal means, such as posture and gesture.

CAL Centre for Applied Linguistics.

Chaining In drilling, the linking of one response to the next round the class. ‘Back-chaining’ refers to the pronunciation drill, which works back through the sentence

Cloze test A test in which words are removed regularly (every fifth or seventh, for example) from a text for the learners to complete.

Cognitive code learning Emphasises the conscious learning of new items by deliberate attention to ‘rules’ rather than by the stimulus-response training of behaviourism.

Coherence The relationship between illocutionary acts in discourse.

Communicative language teaching A teaching approach relating the teaching techniques (e.g. pair and group work), language content and materials (e.g. authentic material) to the communication needs of the students outside the classroom.

Competence An idealised speaker-listener’s perfect knowledge of his own language in a completely homogeneous speech community. Contrasted with ‘performance’: all aspects of language use which are not accounted for by the concept ‘competence’. These include mis-pronunciations, slips, and variation according to situation of language use. The distinction was first technically made by Chomsky.

Curriculum (1) A specification of all the subjects taught in an educational institution, or, (2) (1) above, plus any values, attitudes, etc., transmitted implicitly or explicitly by the institution.

Dialect A variety of language used by members of a particular geographical region or social class. Sometimes, as with Chinese, mutually unintelligible languages are regarded as dialects because they share a common writing system. Cf. two varieties of the same language (or sometimes of two different languages) for ‘high’ (literary, liturgical, governmental) and ‘low’ (commonplace and familiar) purposes.

Direct method Language teaching mainly through conversation, sometimes carefully arranged, but without explicit statement of grammatical rules or the use of the mother tongue.

Discourse Any stretch of language in which communication is achieved in a coherent flow of spoken or written sentences, involving either one speaker or writer (e.g. lecture, book) or interaction between two or more participants. Hence *discourse analysis*: the study of how spoken or written sentences relate to each other so that they are coherent and effective.

Distractor Any of the unacceptable alternatives in a multiple-choice test.

Drill The intensive choral or individual repetition of items to be learned.

EAP English for Academic Purposes.

ELTJ *English Language Teaching Journal*, published quarterly by Oxford University Press.

Error analysis The systematic investigation of language learners' errors. See *contrastive analysis* and *interlanguage*.

ESL/E2L English as a second language.

ESP English for Specific/Special Purposes. E.g. medicine, commerce, nursing.

EST English for Science and Technology.

ETIC English Teaching Information Centre, British Council. Address: 10 Spring Gardens, London SW1.

Extensive reading General reading in which the aim is to read widely rather than to pay great attention to detail.

Fluency Ability to speak or write as naturally and easily—but not necessarily as accurately—as the native speaker can.

Function The communicative purpose fulfilled by an utterance. A functional grammar would describe the communicative functions of the language. A functional syllabus is organised around functions rather than graded structures. In functional/notional syllabuses functions categorise language interaction whereas notions classify meaning.

Grading In syllabus construction, the classifying of language items according to their differences. Also loosely used for a similar classification in learning tasks.

Grammar (1) A specific theoretical approach to studying language. E.g. TG, case grammar, systemic grammar. (2) Most commonly Morphology (the structure of words) and ways in which words are arranged in sentences.

Grammar-translation A language-teaching method emphasizing the memorisation of rules and the practice of translation.

Integrative motivation When a learner wishes to identify with the target language community his motivation is integrative. When learners are instructed to learn language as an instrument for practical purposes, then motivation is said to be instrumental.

Intensive reading Close reading of relatively short texts to derive maximum value from them.

Interaction analysis Ways of describing the patterns of teacher-pupil behaviour in classrooms.

Interference The effects that the knowledge of one language has on the attempt to produce or understand another.

Interlanguage Any one of the changing systems which a language learner develops as he moves from ignorance to competence in another language. Often such systems manifest features of both the learner's first language(s) and the target language—also referred to as *approximative systems*.

Intonation The patterns by which the pitch of the voice rises and falls in speech.

Multiple choice questions Test items framed in such a way that the learner has to choose from a number of options in order to respond satisfactorily. Sometimes there is an actual question to which four different answers are suggested; sometimes there is a stem to which four different completions are attached. The answers or completions which are not correct are referred to as distractors.

National language The language of a nation, especially one which is indigenous, and towards which members of the nation feel great loyalty. It may be contrasted with 'official language', which is a language authorised for use in parliament, government, education, etc., but towards which there may be little loyalty.

Natural language Any of the several thousand known languages of the world, contrasted with ‘artificial language’, i.e. a language specially constructed or invented, for example, for use in symbolic logic, philosophy or international communication.

Official language The language which is adopted by a country or institution through administrative or judicial decision: usually the language of parliamentary debate, lawcourts, education, broadcasting, etc. See *national language*.

Pair work A procedure for intensive class work in which students cooperate simultaneously in pairs (also called dyads) for discussion or practice.

Paradigm, paradigmatic (1) In traditional grammar, the list of forms a word can take, e.g. boy, boys, boy’s, in written English.

Para-language Systematic communication associated with language, but not realised in grammar or lexical choice. May include ‘ums’ and ‘ers’, significant pauses, ‘uhuh’ and—some would say—intonation. Some people extend this definition further to include other signaling systems. See *semiotics; body language*.

Peer group The group of people which occupies the same position in the hierarchy as the person being talked about; in an educational context, usually students of the same age and level.

Progress test A test to check progress as part of **formative** assessment.

Realia Items brought into the classroom from the ‘real world’.

Receptive skills Reading and listening

Rubric The instructions for a test item

Scaffolding The help and support given to learners working in the **Zone of Proximal Development**.

Sign language (1) A system of gestures as an alternative to spoken language, invented to assist deaf people. This may simply translate the alphabet into movements of the hands and arms, or may use signs to represent particular ideas directly, without spelling out words. (2) (Loosely) the use of gesture to communicate by human beings, e.g. nodding, beckoning, etc.

Silent way A language teaching procedure associated with Gattegno. Groups of learners are introduced to a new language through a highly structured programme of intricate techniques. The teacher is encouraged to restrict his speech to the minimum so that students are forced to become fully engaged in creating and establishing successful language behaviour themselves.

Simulation A teaching technique in which students act out language using situations with or without preparation. Sometimes distinguished from role play (q.v.) in that in simulation students are expected to behave appropriately in the setting, but the emphasis is not on the adoption of a different personality.

Situational approach Based on selected situations as settings for language to be taught. Situational syllabuses might organise learning through a sequence of situations. Situational compositions require learners to produce writing appropriate to the demands of specific situations.

Skill A psychological term loosely used in EFL to cover any learned ability. The 'four skills' are listening, speaking, reading and writing. Behaviourist psychology regarded language learning as the acquisition of skills by habit formation.

Study skills Language-related skills which aid study, e.g. use of reference books, note-taking, skimming, interpretation of data.

Style In applied linguistics, the variation of language most often related to speakers and settings.

Suggestopedia / Desuggestopedia An approach (sometimes referred to as a method by its proponents) to language teaching based on the work of Georgi Lozanov. The name is a portmanteau word taken from 'suggestology' and 'pedagogy'.

Summative testing Testing at the end of a programme to see how well the targets have been achieved. Compare **formative testing**.

TTT Test-Teach-Test or Teacher Talking Time. The latter is sometimes contrasted with TTQ (Teacher Talk Quality).

TEFL The Teaching of English as a Foreign Language.

TESOL The Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages. Also the American Association of that name. Address: School of Languages and Linguistics, Georgetown University, Washington DC, USA.

Text A stretch of spoken or written language.

Topic-based syllabus A syllabus organised around topic rather than language structure.

Transfer The extension of first-language patterns or items to the target language which may aid production and comprehension (facilitation) or hinder it (interference).

Universal grammar the theory that suggests that all human language is structured in the same way.

Use / usage the former refers to an utterance's communicative value, the latter to its significance or formal meaning.

Validity A measure of how well a test actually tests what it says it does.

Wait time the amount of time a teacher waits after asking a question and before moving on.

ZPD the Zone of Proximal Development. The theory is that learners are successful when operating in a zone where they can complete tasks only with small amounts of judicious help (**scaffolding**).

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