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“In communities whose culture is undeveloped no languages are taught.”

Leonard Bloomfield

FOREWORD

This collection of lectures in EFL Methodology is intended for students – future teachers of English as a foreign language. In order to become good teachers our students should master a number of specific skills; they also need to update their knowledge about issues related to the target language, methodology and so forth.

As there is not only one way to teach a language, the students can or will have to change and adapt the information given in the collection to different circumstances they will come across.

The collection *“Didactica Limbii B- engleza”* offers a comprehensive overview of current methodological perspectives in EFL. It contains twelve lectures that cover all systems and skills. Every lecture in the collection deals with a different topic, includes several issues to be discussed in the EFL Methodology class, and is followed by an extensive bibliography indicating possible further readings.

It is common knowledge that there are a lot of sources in teaching English as a foreign language. I thought it would be a good idea to analyse as many available sources as possible and to include the synthesis into this collection. It would help students to better manage their time and get the necessary information.

Most of the sources used in this collection have been written recently, many of them could be found on-line. I hope the students will find this collection helpful for their future career.

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Lecture #1

General issues of teaching English as a Foreign Language. Classical and innovative theories of teaching the English language

¹ Leonard Bloomfield, “The teaching of languages”, Landmarks of American Language & Linguistics, vol. I, USIA, 1993)

Goals:

- To introduce general notions of Foreign Language Teaching (FLT)
- To familiarize students with classification of methods in FLT, and Bloom's taxonomy.

Plan

1. General considerations.
2. Bloom's taxonomy.
3. Classification of Methods.

I. General considerations

No one would contradict the idea that the general field of English language teaching as a scientific and academic subject is being subjected to strong dynamism, continuous evolution and development. Since the 1970's with the establishment of the communicative methods and the tough response not in favour of the 'structuralist approaches', ELT has gone through numerous changes: sociological, economic and pedagogical, etc. They have brought significant improvement and modifications in the field of teacher training, curriculum design, lesson planning and development of teaching materials.

English didactics is the discipline of teaching the English language. It is one of the main subjects in the training of future teachers of English. It aspires to enable future teachers to give preference to research-based and practice-oriented teaching.

The research into EFL didactics has two goals: it provides practice-guiding theoretical concepts based on the empiric study of contexts regarding teaching and learning the English language. It is an essential link between schooling at the university level and the school itself.

There is much discussion about terminology, for instance, teaching English as a second language and as a foreign language. "English is a language which has great reach and influence; it is taught all over the world under many different circumstances. In English-speaking countries, English language teaching has essentially evolved in two broad directions: instruction for people who intend to live there- *ESL*- and for those who do not-*EFL*. These divisions have grown firmer as the instructors of these two "industries" have used different terminology, followed distinct training qualifications, formed separate professional associations, and so on"¹.

Language teachers try to find optimal ways of teaching a foreign language, as it is a rather difficult task, mainly when learners have no exposure to authentic language. That is why "there is no one best theory to explain foreign language acquisition. Teaching methodologies driven by varying theoretical approaches can be effective in the classroom, depending on the material being presented, the goals of the lesson, and the target students. What is known about foreign (second) language acquisition is that language is learned communicatively, through the process of building meaning in a collaborative context. In order to make use of this understanding about language learning, teachers should keep the following points in mind:

- Second language learners utilize their knowledge of their first language in learning their second.
- Language learning is supported through meaningful interaction, which should therefore focus on the communicative functions of language.
- Language learners require comprehensible 'input' that serves as a model of what they are to learn.
- During teaching, this comprehensible input should be 'scaffolded' in order to provide an effective communicative environment that is salient to the learner.
- Any focus on grammatical form should serve communicative needs."²

So, foreign language teachers should work a lot in order to set clear-cut goals and find optimal ways of teaching the target language. They should also know the relevant terminology.

¹ *English as a second or foreign language*, retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/English_as_a_second_or_foreign_language

² Rosamina Lowi, Basic Principles of Foreign Language Learning, http://www.lmp.ucla.edu/k-12/tools_principles.aspx

Methodology is the system of methods and principles used in a particular discipline, in our case in the English Language Teaching. It deals with three main directions:

- Goals of teaching a Foreign Language
- Contents of teaching a FL
- Methods of teaching a FL

A *method* is a generalized set of classroom specifications to accomplish the goals.¹

In specialized literature 2 types of methods are distinguished:

1. **General Methods** (dealing with any language taught)
2. **Special Methods** (dealing with a certain language, i.e. English)

English Language Methodology is not a separate discipline, and it has a close relation with other sciences as well; for example, with Linguistics, Psychology, Pedagogy, etc.

Methods tend to be broadly applicable to a variety of audiences in a various range of contexts.

II. Bloom's Taxonomy

Practically all teachers have heard the term 'Blooms taxonomy'. Educational systems frequently describe the outcomes teachers expect from students as **knowledge, skills** and **attitudes** – KSAs:

- *Knowledge*- referring to mental skills or the cognitive domain of learning.
- *Skills*- referring to the psychomotor or manual skills that need to be developed by school aged members of society.
- *Attitudes* - referring to the growth in affective or emotional areas.

The classification of certain educational objectives, frequently called *Bloom's Taxonomy*, is an organization of the learning objectives that teachers set for their students. It is used to describe how well a skill or competency is learned or mastered.

A group of researchers, led by Benjamin Bloom, identified three main domains of educational activities: *cognitive, affective, and psychomotor*.

These domains can be thought of as categories:

1. **Cognitive** is for mental skills (**Knowledge**),
2. **Affective** is for growth in feelings or emotional areas (**Attitude**),
3. **Psychomotor** is for manual or physical skills (**Skills**).

'Bloom's cognitive taxonomy is organized into **six sub-domains**, each more cognitively demanding than the next. These six sub-domains are:

Sub-domains	Examples	Key Words
1. Knowledge: Recall of data	-Recite a poem, nursery rhyme, etc. -Quote from memory what it means to...	defines, describes, identifies, knows, labels, lists, matches, names, outlines, recalls, recognizes, reproduces, selects, states.
2. Comprehension: Understands the meaning, translation, interpolation, and interpretation of instructions and problems.	-Rewrite the sentences describing... -Explain in your own words the meaning of the word.	comprehends, converts, defends, distinguishes, estimates, explains, extends, generalizes, gives examples, infers, interprets, paraphrases, predicts, rewrites, summarizes, translates.
3. Application: Applies what was learned in the classroom into novel situations and contexts.	-Use the <i>word box</i> from the manual to describe... -Apply the rules of the sequence of tenses to explain ... - Predict the contents of the story	applies, changes, computes, constructs, demonstrates, discovers, manipulates, modifies, operates, predicts, prepares, produces, relates, shows, solves, uses.

¹ Rogova, G. "Methods of Teaching English", 1983

	from its title.	
4. Analysis: Separates material or concepts into component parts so that its organizational structure may be understood.	- Compare the behaviour of the characters using logical analysis of actions. -Select ... from a range of a range of actions/words/dialogues, etc.	analyzes, breaks down, compares, contrasts, diagrams, deconstructs, differentiates, discriminates, distinguishes, identifies, illustrates, infers, outlines, relates, selects, separates.
5. Synthesis: Builds a structure or pattern from diverse elements. Put parts together to form a whole, with emphasis on creating a new meaning or structure.	-Write a short essay about... -Design a project to perform a specific task. -Integrate data from several sources to suggest problem-solving issues. -Re-arrange the parts of the text to get a logical consequence.	categorizes, combines, compiles, composes, creates, devises, designs, explains, generates, modifies, organizes, plans, rearranges, reconstructs, relates, reorganizes, revises, rewrites, summarizes, tells, writes.
6. Evaluation: Makes judgments about the value of ideas or materials.	-Select from the text the most effective solution of the problem. -Explain why you have chosen/used ... -Compare your conclusions with your colleagues' conclusions and justify it.	appraises, compares, concludes, contrasts, criticizes, critiques, defends, describes, discriminates, evaluates, explains, interprets, justifies, relates, summarizes, supports. ¹

Teachers all over the world take this classification into consideration when they formulate the objectives of/for a certain course or lecture.

III. Classification of Methods:

Languages are being taught for centuries; and in different periods teachers have used various methods. Language methodology has been subject to a rapid development, so it is quite difficult to choose the most representative ones. In this lecture we will regard some of the most essential learning and teaching theories.

III.1. The Grammar Translation Method

Basically the *Grammar Translation Method* was used to teach Latin and Ancient Greek. Its main objectives were to learn how to read classical Latin texts, to comprehend the basics of grammar and translation. Some modern language teachers who still use the Grammar Translation Method to teach English consider that it is necessary to build in learners of English the kinds of grammar, reading, vocabulary and translation skills necessary to pass any written test required. And they might also say that it is the most efficient way to train students should begin with the two main skills of **reading and grammar**.

According to Prator and Celce-Murcia² the main characteristics of the Grammar translation method are:

- 1) Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.
- 2) Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.
- 3) Long elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.
- 4) Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words.
- 5) Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early.
- 6) Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis.
- 7) Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.
- 8) Little or no attention is given to pronunciation

¹ Based on *Bloom's Taxonomy*, retrieved from

<http://www.educ.ualberta.ca/staff/olenka.bilash/best%20of%20bilash/bloomstaxonomy.html>

² Prator, Clifford H. & Celce-Murcia, Marianne. 1979. "An outline of language teaching approaches." In Celce-Murcia, Marianne & McIntosh, Lois (Ed.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. Newbury House, p.3

Here are some *Typical Techniques* used by English teachers, which are closely associated with the Grammar Translation Method. The following techniques have been described by Diane Larsen-Freeman¹ in her book *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*.

1) Translation of a Literary Passage-	<i>Translating English into native language</i>
2) Reading Comprehension Questions	<i>Finding information in a passage, making inferences and relating to personal experience</i>
3) Antonyms / Synonyms	<i>Finding antonyms and synonyms for words or sets of words.</i>
4) Cognates	<i>Learning spelling/sound patterns that correspond between L1 and the target language</i>
5) Deductive Application of Rule	<i>Understanding grammar rules and their exceptions, then applying them to new examples</i>
6) Fill-in-the-blanks	<i>Filling in gaps in sentences with new words or items of a particular grammar type</i>
7) Memorization	<i>Memorizing vocabulary lists, grammatical rules and grammatical paradigms</i>
8) Use Words in Sentences	<i>Students create sentences to illustrate they know the meaning and use of new words</i>
9) Composition	<i>Students write about a topic using the target language</i>

Although not many language teachers would say that this is an effective teaching method, nevertheless the Grammar Translation Method is still popular.

III.2. The "Direct Method"

With the time teachers have realized that the Grammar Translation Method limits language teaching, and it was rather difficult to develop students' "communicative" competence. That is why many teachers began to experiment with new ways of teaching languages. They attempted to teach FL in a way that would resemble first language acquisition. It provided techniques designed to cover those areas that the GTM lacked – e.g. oral communication, more natural use of the language, and forming the ability to "think" in the target language. However, teachers still apply old methods, such as: using L1 as the language of instruction, memorizing grammatical rules and lots of translation between L1 and the target language, etc.

The Direct method became very popular at the beginning of the 20th century. Its main principle is that students are taught to *communicate* in the target language to a certain extent by learning how to *think* in that language and not use L1 in the language learning process. Its objectives comprise teaching the students how to use the language spontaneously, connecting meaning with the target language through the use of realia, pictures or pantomime.² There should be a *direct* connection between concepts and the language to be learned.

According to Richards and Rodgers³ the main features of the Direct Method are:

- 1) Classroom instruction is conducted exclusively in the target language.
- 2) Only everyday vocabulary and sentences are taught.
- 3) Oral communication skills are built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.
- 4) Grammar is taught inductively.
- 5) New teaching points are taught through modelling and practice.
- 6) Concrete vocabulary is taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary is taught by association of ideas.
- 7) Both speech and listening comprehension are taught.
- 8) Correct pronunciation and grammar are emphasized.

¹ Larsen-Freeman, Dianne. 1986. *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. New York: Oxford University Press, p.13

² Based on: Larsen-Freeman, Dianne. 1986. *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. New York: Oxford University Press, p.24

³ Richards, Jack & Rodgers, Theodore. 1986. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press, p.p:9-10

Diane Larsen-Freeman¹, in her book *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* provides expanded descriptions of some typical techniques closely associated with the Direct Method.

1) Reading Aloud	<i>Reading sections of passages, plays or dialogues out loud</i>
2) Question and Answer Exercise	<i>Asking questions in the target language and having students answer in full sentences</i>
3) Student Self-Correction	<i>Teacher facilitates opportunities for students to self correct using follow-up questions, tone, etc</i>
4) Conversation Practice	<i>Teacher asks students and students ask students questions using the target language</i>
5) Fill-in-the-blank Exercise	<i>Items use target language only and inductive rather than explicit grammar rules</i>
6) Dictation	<i>Teacher reads passage aloud various amount of times at various tempos, students writing down what they hear</i>
7) Paragraph Writing	<i>Students write paragraphs in their own words using the target language and various models</i>

Much work in this sphere has been done by the prominent English methodologists H. Palmer and M. West. Harold E. Palmer was a British educator who specialized in the teaching of English as a foreign language. His special emphasis was teaching EFL through structured lessons and conversation, which was called the "*oral method*." He preferred the use of an "oral method" in which language was taught through oral exercises and language immersion rather than through a "direct approach" involving "book-work and writing, with a minimum of oral work". In contrast to Palmer, M. West proposes to begin by teaching to read; i.e. from Reading to Speaking.

The Direct Method is very effective in terms of using the target language *communicatively*. However, nowadays FL learners need more than just communicative skills - they have to demonstrate grammatical accuracy and good reading and writing skills. The Direct Method was an important turning point in the history of FL teaching, and it represented a step away from the GTM that was progressive and heading in the right direction.

III.3. The Audio-lingual Method

The next "revolution" in terms of language teaching methodology coincided with World War II. Linguists developed a method to build communicative competence in translators through very intensive language courses focusing on oral skills, which in combination with some new ideas about language learning coming from the disciplines of descriptive linguistics and behavioural psychology went on to become what is known as the Audio-lingual Method (ALM). "Cognitive psychologists developed new views on learning in general, arguing that mimicry and rote learning could not account for the fact that language learning involved affective and interpersonal factors, which learners were able to produce language forms and patterns that they had never heard before. The idea that thinking processes themselves led to the discovery of independent language "rule formation" (rather than "habit formation") and that affective factors influenced their application paved the way toward the new methods that were to follow the Audio-lingual Method."²

ALM added the concepts of teaching "linguistic patterns" in combination with "habit-forming", thus obtaining acquiring communicative competence quickly. Due to frequent imitation, memorization and "automatization" of language patterns and forms, immediate results were got. The main purpose of the ALM was to create *communicative* competence via extensive repetition and a variety of complex drills. Here is a summary of the key features of the Audio-lingual Method:

- 1) New material is presented in dialog form.
- 2) There is dependence on mimicry, memorization of set phrases, and over-learning.
- 3) Structures are sequenced by means of contrastive analysis and taught one at a time.
- 4) Structural patterns are taught using repetitive drills.
- 5) There is little or no grammatical explanation. Grammar is taught by inductive analogy rather than deductive explanation.
- 6) Vocabulary is strictly limited and learned in context.

¹ Larsen-Freeman, Dianne. 1986. *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. New York: Oxford University Press.p.p.26-27

² Applied Linguistics and ALM, retrieved from <http://neoenglish.wordpress.com/author/neoenglish/page/792/>

- 7) There is much use of tapes, language labs, and visual aids.
- 8) Great importance is attached to pronunciation.
- 9) Very little use of the mother tongue by teachers is permitted.
- 10) Successful responses are immediately reinforced.
- 11) There is great effort to get students to produce error-free utterances.
- 12) There is a tendency to manipulate language and disregard content.¹

Larsen-Freeman, in her book *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*² provides expanded descriptions of some typical techniques closely associated with the Audio-lingual Method:

1) Dialog Memorization	<i>Students memorize an opening dialog using mimicry and applied role-playing</i>
2) Backward Build-up (Expansion Drill)	<i>Teacher breaks a line into several parts, students repeat each part starting at the end of the sentence and "expanding" backwards through the sentence, adding each part in sequence</i>
3) Repetition Drill	<i>Students repeat teacher's model as quickly and accurately as possible</i>
4) Chain Drill	<i>Students ask and answer each other one-by-one in a circular chain around the classroom</i>
5) Single Slot Substitution Drill	<i>Teacher states a line from the dialog, then uses a word or a phrase as a "cue" that students, when repeating the line, must substitute into the sentence in the correct place</i>
6) Multiple-slot Substitution Drill	<i>Same as the Single Slot drill, except that there are multiple cues to be substituted into the line</i>
7) Transformation Drill	<i>Teacher provides a sentence that must be turned into something else, for example a question to be turned into a statement, an active sentence to be turned into a negative statement, etc</i>
8) Question-and-answer Drill	<i>Students should answer or ask questions very quickly</i>
9) Use of Minimal Pairs	<i>Using contrastive analysis, teacher selects a pair of words that sound identical except for a single sound that typically poses difficulty for the learners - students are to pronounce and differentiate the two words</i>
10) Complete the Dialogue	<i>Selected words are erased from a line in the dialog - students must find and insert</i>
11) Grammar Games	<i>Various games designed to practice a grammar point in context, using lots of repetition</i>

The Audio-lingual Method represents a significant step in language teaching methodology that aims at obtaining **communicative competence**. Methodologists consider that one of the key responsibilities of a teacher of any discipline is to actively create and build **intrinsic motivation** in their learners, to empower them with the ability and confidence to "learn how to learn", to develop a sense of responsibility for their own development, and to regard peers as possible sources of learning as well. They should also be encouraged to experiment with and formulate their own on-going set of language rules, and to deduct through active independent application where and how the rules need to be adapted. The idea that errors are a natural and even necessary part of the learning process needs to be encouraged and supported.

III.4. Cognitive Code Learning

This approach briefly replaced behaviourism in the late 1960s. It was based on cognitive psychology for its learning theory and Chomsky's transformational-generative grammar for its theory of language. The CCL emphasized thinking, comprehension, and memory; it promoted language learning as an active mental process rather than a process of habit formation. Grammar was back in fashion, and

¹ Based on: The Audio-lingual Method, retrieved from <http://cehs.unl.edu/eurasiane07/TEA2008Fall/CD/LanguageAcquisition%20%26%20Workshop/ParticipantsCD/History%20of%20Methodology/Audiolingual%20Method.pdf>

² Larsen-Freeman, Dianne. 1986. *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. New York: Oxford University Press, p.p.5-47

classroom activities were designed to encourage learners to work out grammar rules for themselves through inductive reasoning.

Although it never took off in a big way, it is very close to current approaches to language learning.¹

III.5. Total Physical Response

In the 1960s, TPR was developed by James Asher. Being based on Krashen's view of the comprehensible input, it proves that memory is stimulated and increased when *it is closely associated with motor activity*. It needs much listening and understanding in combination with a range of "physical responses" (smiling, looking, taking, approaching, grabbing, etc) before learners start using the language orally. Learning is dynamic due to the use of accompanying physical activity, rather fun and stress-free. It is a very efficient method at beginning levels, and a standard requirement in the instruction of young learners. Here are some of the key features of the Total Physical Response method:

- 1) "The instructor is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors" (Asher, 1977:43).²
- 2) Listening and physical response skills are done before oral production.
- 3) It is efficient to teach such grammar topics as: the imperative mood, action verbs, interrogatives, etc.
- 4) Teachers use humour to make the lessons more enjoyable for learners.
- 5) Learners are not required to talk until they feel obviously ready to do so.
- 6) Grammar and vocabulary are trained, and spoken language is prior to written language.

D. Larsen-Freeman, in her book *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* (1986:118-120) provides expanded descriptions of some common/typical techniques closely associated with TPR.

- 1) *Using Commands to Direct Behaviour*- the use of commands requiring physical actions from the students in response is the major teaching technique;
- 2) *Role Reversal* - Students direct the teacher and fellow learners;
- 3) *Action Sequence*- teacher gives interconnected directions which create a sequence of actions [also called an "operation"] - as students progress in proficiency, more and more commands are added to the action sequence. Most everyday activities can be broken down into a sequence of actions)

III.6. Community Language Learning

The main purpose of CLL, is to help students, mainly adults, to learn a second language. It draws on the earlier work of the psychologist Carl Rogers, who claimed that students learn best when playing an active role in a process that addresses their needs and wants. This technique was relatively short-lived. Seeing the student as a 'whole' person, the method involved students sitting in a circle and encouraging them to use their feelings, intellect, relationships and reactions.³

- CLL was chiefly intended for monolingual conversation classes where the teacher-counsellor would be able to speak the learners' L1. The intention was that it would integrate translation so that the students would disassociate language learning with risk taking.

- CLL approach reduces anxiety by using small conversation circles, ideally including less than 10 students, where students feel a sense of community and equality in a non-competitive atmosphere.

- Teacher is considered as Counsellor, standing outside the conversation circle ready to help. This makes the teacher a partner in the learning process and less likely to be perceived as a threat.

- Another objective of CLL is to help students take charge of their learning. As students direct their study in the conversation circles, they discuss their feelings about the learning process.

“Now we will learn how it works in the classroom. In a typical CLL lesson we have five stages:

¹ Based on: Principles of Second Language Acquisition (SLA):History and ELLIS Design, retrieved from http://www.usbem.com/pearson_ellis/about_ellis/Principles%20of%20SLA.pdf on August 3, 2012

² Asher, James. 1977. *Learning Another Language Through Actions: The Complete Teacher's Guidebook*. Los Gatos, CA: Sly Oaks Productions.

³ Imbriaco, Alison, Objectives of the Community Language Learning Approach, retrieved from http://www.ehow.com/info_8628939_objectives-community-language-learning-approach.html on August 1, 2012

Stage 1 - Reflection: students sit in a circle around a tape recorder to create a community atmosphere. They think in silence about what they'd like to talk about, while the teacher remains outside the circle. To avoid a lack of ideas students can brainstorm their ideas on the board before recording.

Stage 2 - Recorded conversation. Once they have chosen a subject the students tell the teacher in their L1 what they'd like to say and the teacher discreetly comes up behind them and translates the language chunks into English. When they feel ready to speak the students record their sentence. At this stage learners are working on pace and fluency. They immediately stop recording and then wait until another student who wants to respond. This continues until a whole conversation has been recorded.

Stage 3 – Discussion where the students discuss how they think the conversation went. They can discuss how they felt about talking to a microphone and whether they felt more comfortable speaking aloud than they might do normally. [This part is not recorded.]

Stage 4 – Transcription during which they listen to the tape and transcribe their conversation. The teacher only intervenes when they ask for help.

Stage 5 - Language analysis. The teacher decides when to analyse the language- at the same lesson or sometimes in the next lesson. This involves looking at the form of tenses and vocabulary used and why certain ones were chosen, but it will depend on the language produced by the students.

In such a way the learners are totally involved in the analysis process. The language is completely personalised and with higher levels they can themselves decide what parts of their conversation they would like to analyse, whether it be tenses, lexis or discourse. With lower levels teachers can guide the analysis by choosing the most common problems they noted in the recording stages or by using the final transcription. The length of each stage will depend entirely on the class, how quickly they respond to CLL, how long the teacher or they decide to spend on the language analysis stage and how long their recorded conversation is. However, the conversation should not be too long.”¹

Larsen-Freeman, in her book *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* (1986:45-47) provides expanded descriptions of some common/typical techniques closely associated with Community Language Learning.

- 1) Tape Recording Student Conversation: students choose what they want to say, and their target language production is recorded for later listening/dissemination.
- 2) Transcription- Teacher produces a transcription of the tape-recorded conversation with translations in the mother language - this is then used for follow up activities or analysis.
- 3) Reflection on Experience- Teacher takes time during or after various activities to allow students to express how they feel about the language and the learning experience, and the teacher indicates empathy/understanding.
- 4) Reflective Listening- Students listen to their own voices on the tape in a relaxed and reflective environment.
- 5) Human Computer- Teacher is a "human computer" for the students to control - the teacher stating anything in the target language the student wants to practice, giving them the opportunity to self-correct.
- 6) Small Group Tasks -Students work in small groups to create new sentences using the transcript, afterwards sharing them with the rest of the class)

III.7. (De-) Suggestopaedia

In the late 70s, the Bulgarian psychologist Georgi Lozanov introduced the argument that *students naturally set up psychological barriers to learning*. He believed that learners may have been using only 5 to 10 percent of their mental capacity, and that the brain could process and retain much more material if given "optimal" conditions for learning. According to him, providing conditions for a relaxed state of mind would facilitate the retention of material to its maximum potential. For instance, using soft Baroque music with a pattern of 60 beats per minute during the learning process would make learning more efficient. The use of soft comfortable chairs and weak lighting in the classroom are also necessary. Learning is encouraged through posters and decorations featuring the target language, and diverse grammatical information. Students are encouraged to try new roles and names in the target language. Learners work with long dialogues in the target language, with the translation into

¹ Community language learning, retrieved from <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/community-language-learning>

the students' native language. Mistakes are tolerated, the stress being made on content and not form. Little homework is given, being limited to re-reading once the dialogue before they go to bed at night and in the morning. Music and drama are frequently used. The teacher is complete authority and controls everything. All of these principles in combination were seen to make the students "suggestible", and therefore able to utilize their maximum mental potential to take in and retain new material.¹

Larsen-Freeman, in her book *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* (1986:84-86) provides expanded descriptions of some common/typical techniques closely associated with Suggestopedia.

- 1) *Classroom Set-up*- Emphasis is placed on creating a physical environment that does not "feel" like a normal classroom, and makes the students feel as relaxed and comfortable as possible;
- 2) *Peripheral Learning* - Students can absorb information "effortlessly" when it is perceived as part of the environment, rather than the material "to be attended to";
- 3) *Positive Suggestion* - Teachers appeal to students' consciousness and subconscious in order to better orchestrate the "suggestive" factors involved in the learning situation;
- 4) *Visualization*- Students are asked to close their eyes and visualize scenes and events, to help them relax, facilitate positive suggestion and encourage creativity from the students;
- 5) *Choose a New Identity*- Students select a target language name and/or occupation that places them "inside" the language they are learning;
- 6) *Role-play* - Students pretend temporarily that they are someone else and perform a role using the target language;
- 7) *First Concert* - Teacher does a slow, dramatic reading of the dialog synchronized in intonation with classical music;
- 8) *Second Concert*- Students put aside their scripts and the teacher reads at normal speed according to the content, not the accompanying pre-Classical or Baroque music - this typically ends the class for the day;
- 9) *Primary Activation*- Students "playfully" reread the target language out loud, as individuals or in groups;
- 10) *Secondary Activation*- Students engage in various activities designed to help the students learn the material and use it more spontaneously - activities include singing, dancing, dramatizations and games - "communicative intent" and not "form" being the focus.²

III.8. The Communicative Language Teaching Approach

By the end of the 20th century more and more foreign language teachers began to give priority to the Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLT). Teaching students how to *use* the language is considered to be at least as important as learning the language itself. Brown³ mentions: "Beyond grammatical discourse elements in communication, we are probing the nature of social, cultural, and pragmatic features of language. We are exploring pedagogical means for 'real-life' communication in the classroom. We are trying to get our learners to develop linguistic fluency, not just the accuracy that has so consumed our historical journey. We are equipping our students with tools for generating unrehearsed language performance 'out there' when they leave the womb of our classrooms. We are concerned with how to facilitate lifelong language learning among our students, not just with the immediate classroom task. We are looking at learners as partners in a cooperative venture. And our classroom practices seek to draw on whatever intrinsically sparks learners to reach their fullest potential."

There are many interpretations of what CLT actually means and involves. David Nunan⁴ lists five basic characteristics of Communicative Language Teaching:

- 1) An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.

¹ Based on: Comparative Teaching Methodologies, retrieved from <http://ammashumam.blogspot.com/2010/12/teaching-methodology.html> on August 2, 2012

² Suggestopedia, retrieved from <http://cehs.unl.edu/eurasiane07/TEA2008Fall/CD/LanguageAcquisition%20&%20Workshop/ParticipantsCD/History%20of%20Methodology/Suggestopedia.pdf> on August 2, 2012

³ Brown, H. Douglas. 1994. *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. Prentice Hall, p.77

⁴ Nunan, David. 1991. *Language Teaching Methodology: A Textbook for Teachers*. Prentice Hall p.279

- 2) The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.
- 3) The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on the language but also on the learning process itself.
- 4) An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
- 5) An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom.

Finocchiaro and Brumfit¹ compiled a list of CLT features way back in 1983 as a means of comparing it to the Audio-lingual Method -ALM.

#	Communicative Language Teaching	Audio-lingual Method
1.	Meaning is paramount.	<i>Attends to structure and form more than meaning</i>
2.	Dialogs, if used, centre around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.	<i>Demands more memorization of structure-based dialogs.</i>
3.	Contextualization is a basic premise.	<i>Language items are not necessarily contextualized.</i>
4.	Language learning is learning to communicate.	<i>Language learning is learning structures, sounds or words.</i>
5.	Effective communication is sought.	<i>Mastery or "over-learning" is sought.</i>
6.	Drilling may occur, but peripherally.	<i>Drilling is a central technique.</i>
7.	Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.	<i>Native-speaker-like pronunciation is sought.</i>
8.	Any device which helps the learners is accepted - varying according to their age, interest, etc.	<i>Grammatical explanation is avoided.</i>
9.	Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning.	<i>Communicative activities only come after a long process of rigid drills and exercises.</i>
10.	Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.	<i>The use of the students' native language is forbidden.</i>
11.	Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.	<i>Translation is forbidden at early levels.</i>
12.	Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.	<i>Reading and writing are deferred until speech is mastered.</i>
13.	The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.	<i>The target linguistic system will be learned through the overt teaching of the patterns of the system.</i>
14.	Communicative competence is the desired goal.	<i>Linguistic competence is the desired goal.</i>
15.	Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methods.	<i>Varieties of language are recognized but not emphasized</i>
16.	Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content function, or meaning, which maintains interest.	<i>The sequence of units is determined solely on principles of linguistic complexity.</i>
17.	Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.	<i>The teacher controls the learners and prevents them from doing anything that conflicts with the theory.</i>
18.	Language is created by the individual often through trial and error.	<i>"Language is habit" so error must be prevented at all costs.</i>
19.	Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.	<i>Accuracy, in terms of formal correctness, is a primary goal.</i>
20.	Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings	<i>Students are expected to interact with the language system, embodied in machines or controlled materials.</i>
21.	The teacher cannot know exactly what language	<i>The teacher is expected to specify the language</i>

¹ Finocchiaro, Mary & Brumfit, Christopher. 1983. *The Functional-Notional Approach: From Theory to Practice*. Oxford University Press, p.p:91-93

	the students will use.	<i>that students are to use.</i>
22.	Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.	<i>Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in the structure of the language.</i>

Although many methodologists have praised and evaluated this method as being the most valuable of all, there have also been lengthy critiques about it. It is up to the teacher to decide how to make use of it.

Recommended Readings:

1. Doff, Adrian, 1988. *Teach English-A Training Course for Teachers*, OUP.
2. Harmer, Jeremy, 1995. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, Longman, p.1-9.
3. Rogova G. "Methods of Teaching English", Moscow, 1983, p5-35
4. Vizental, Adriana, 2008. *Metodica Predării limbii Engleze, Strategies of Teaching and Testing English as a Foreign Language*, Collegium, Polirom,

Questions for Discussion:

1. What does English Didactics deal with?
2. How can 'method' be defined?
3. What is Bloom's taxonomy?
4. Which are Bloom's cognitive taxonomy sub-domains?
5. Why are language theories important to know?
6. Should teachers give up older methods of teaching simply because they are considered outdated? Why?

Pair-work:

Make up a grid of the language teaching methods with the following headings: Method (theory)/Creators/ Features/Teacher's role/ Learner's role/ Components/Positive points/Critics

Project Work:

1. Choose a teaching method and come with practical suggestions how to use it in teaching a certain topic. (e.g. *Grammar*: Present Simple, Past Perfect, etc; Degrees of comparison of Adjectives; Plural of Nouns, etc. *Vocabulary*: Winter sports; Seasons and weather; Houses/flats; Family, etc. *Conversation*: At the seaside; Professions; Animals, etc.);

Lecture # 2

Four basic language skills needed by learners to develop their competence in EL acquisition.

The Role of L1 and L2 in FL Teaching.

Goals:

- To familiarize students with the four basic language skills

- To make future teachers aware of the importance of using both L1 and L2 in Class

Plan

1. Four Basic Language Skills
2. The role of L1 and L2 in FLT.

I. Four Basic Language Skills

Language is used in everything we do throughout the day. The goals of a FL teacher are to enrich and expand competency in language use and to develop within the students an awareness of the language. It is vital for the teachers to create opportunities for students to explore their new language and at the same time encouraging communication in the target language. The ability to use a language in a communicative way, however, is not just a single unified skill. Most recent thinking has divided language ability into four separate skill areas; listening, reading, speaking, and writing. Listening and reading are known as the receptive skills; while speaking and writing are known as the productive skills. The four basic skills are related to each other by two parameters:

- **the mode of communication:** oral or written
- **the direction of communication:** receiving or producing the message.

The relationship among these skills can be represented in the following table:

	Oral	Written
Receptive (input)	Listening	Reading
Productive (output)	Speaking	Writing

Whether listening, speaking, reading, or writing, learners should experience oral and written language as an integrated, vital part of the curriculum. Specialists in language teaching consider that in order to get good results in training any language, it is very important to train the 4 language skills everyday in the above- mentioned order. While acquiring the new language material, the order of gaining knowledge is generally the following: *Listening*- learners hear a new item (sound, word, grammar item); *Speaking*- learners try to repeat the new item; *Reading*- learners see the new material in written form; and *Writing*- learners reproduce it in written form.

Thus, while planning to present a new topic, be it a new sound, grammar point, or word, teachers must keep the order of acquisition in mind. It is necessary to introduce it in the above-mentioned order, so that they are exposed to it as a listener before they are required to use it as a speaker, and that they hear it before they see it in text. Consequently, the order of learning a foreign language is similar to learning their first language. The pupil will be able to understand the new item before repeating it and later using it in speech.

1.1. Listening comprehension is the receptive oral skill. The term “listening” implies both, listening and understanding what we hear. In their native language, people possess all the skills and background knowledge they need to understand what they hear. There are two kinds of listening situations in which people find themselves: **Interactive** listening situations include face-to-face conversations and telephone calls, in which learners are alternately listening and speaking, and in which they have a chance to ask for clarification, repetition, or slower speech from their conversation partner. Some **non-interactive** listening situations are listening to the radio, TV, films, lectures, or sermons. In such situations people usually do not have the opportunity to ask for clarification, slower speech or repetition.

According to Alice Omaggio¹ Language teachers should do their best to train the students, so that the listener is able to:

- retain chunks of language in short-term memory
- discriminate among the distinctive sounds in the new language
- recognize stress and rhythm patterns, tone patterns, intonational contours
- recognize reduced forms of words
- distinguish word boundaries
- recognize typical word-order patterns
- recognize vocabulary

¹ Omaggio, Alice C. 1986. *Teaching language in context : Proficiency-oriented instruction*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle. 479pp

- detect key words, such as those identifying topics and ideas
- guess meaning from context
- recognize grammatical word classes
- recognize basic syntactic patterns
- recognize cohesive devices
- detect sentence constituents, such as subject, verb, object, prepositions, and the like

1. 2. Speaking is more complicated than it seems at first and involves more than just pronouncing words. To teach speaking successfully means that the speaker is able to:

- Pronounce the distinctive sounds of a language clearly enough so that people can distinguish them. This includes making tonal distinctions.
- Use stress and rhythmic patterns, and intonation patterns of the language clearly enough so that people can understand what is said.
- Use the correct forms of words. This may mean, for example, changes in the tense, case, or gender.
- Put words together in correct word order.
- Use vocabulary appropriately.
- Use the register or language variety that is appropriate to the situation and the relationship to the conversation partner.
- Make clear to the listener the main sentence constituents, such as subject, verb, object, by whatever means the language uses.
- Make the main ideas stand out from supporting ideas or information.
- Make the discourse hang together so that people can follow what you are saying.

1. 3. Reading can be developed independently of listening and speaking skills, but it often develops along with them, especially in societies with a highly-developed literary tradition. Reading can aid build vocabulary that helps listening comprehension at the later stages, particularly. A student with developed reading skills should:

- Decipher the script. In an alphabetic system, this means establishing a relationship between sounds and symbols. In a pictograph system, it means associating the meaning of the words with written symbols.
- Recognize vocabulary.
- Pick out key words, such as those identifying topics and main ideas.
- Figure out the meaning of the words, including unfamiliar vocabulary, from the (written) context.
- Recognize grammatical word classes: verbs, noun, adjective, etc.
- Detect sentence constituents, such as subject, predicate, object, etc.
- Recognize basic syntactic patterns.
- Reconstruct and infer situations, goals and participants.
- Use both knowledge of the world and lexical and grammatical cohesive devices to make the foregoing inferences, predict outcomes, and infer links and connections among the parts of the text.
- Get the main point or the most important information.
- Distinguish the main idea from supporting details.
- Adjust reading strategies to different reading purposes, such as skimming for main ideas or studying in-depth.

1.4. Writing is more complicated than it seems at first, and often seems to be the hardest of the skills, even for native speakers of a language, since it involves not just a graphic representation of speech, but the development and presentation of thoughts in a structured way. A person having good writing skills should:

- Use the orthography correctly, including the script, and spelling and punctuation conventions.
- Use the correct forms of words. This may mean using forms that express the right tense, or case or gender.
- Put words together in correct word order.
- Use vocabulary correctly.
- Use the style appropriate to the genre and audience.
- Make the main sentence constituents, such as subject, verb, and object, clear to the reader.
- Make the main ideas distinct from supporting ideas or information.
- Make the text coherent, so that other people can follow the development of the ideas.

- Judge how much background knowledge the audience has on the subject and make clear what it is assumed they don't know.

1.5. Applying 4 language skills in practice

In the course of daily activities, language teachers should provide learners with opportunities to develop each skill, for instance, pupils listen to the teacher who uses the target language, or to a song, poem, etc. Then they speak via pronunciation practice, greetings, dialogue creation or poem recitation, songs, substitution drills, etc. Thirdly pupils read various instructions from their textbooks, written grammar exercises, cards for playing games, flashcards, etc. Last, but not least they write- do different exercises in written form, work with fill-in-the-blank sheets, write sentences that describe a feeling, sight or experience, a dialogue script, etc.

All four skills work best when the activities that necessitate their use are designed to help pupils in the learning process, so methodologists have thought how to these four skills can be used simultaneously. Thus four approaches have been developed: the focal skill approach, content-based instruction, task-based instruction and the project-based approach.

The Focal Skill Approach goal is studying a foreign language in order to acquire it. This language curriculum stresses the balanced development of listening, speaking, reading and writing by measuring competency in each skill and then focusing on the development of the weakest skill. Resources like those developed by the International Centre for Focal Skills (ICFS) use placement tests to identify weak skill areas.

Content-based Instruction (CBI) approaches to CBI include theme-based & adjunct learning. *Theme-based* CBI focuses on a theme of high interest to students and develops a wide range of language skills around that theme. The learning of the content requires considerable exposure to a variety of forms of information, which, in turn, requires the use of all four modalities. In the *adjunct form* of CBI, language and content courses are taught separately but are carefully coordinated so that literacy, oral language development and thinking skills are positively enhanced. In this approach, the content teacher presents content to students while the language teacher brings vocabulary, grammar and sub-skill development to students' attention through typical exercises, all of which focus on the lexicon of the content.

Task-based Instruction (TBI) uses tasks or stand-alone activities which require comprehending, producing, manipulating or interacting in the target language. The amount of listening, speaking, reading and writing involved to complete the problem posed by the task is dictated by the task itself; however, most complex (multi step) real-life tasks that take learners into the world outside the classroom will utilize all four skills. TBI helps learners explore the multitude of communication opportunities provided in their surroundings. The tasks themselves are scaffolded according to the cognitive demand required to complete them and can be carried out individually, in pairs or in small cooperative groups.

Project-based approach concretizes the integration of not only the four skills but also language, culture, experience and learning strategies. With the careful selection of a final project that requires learners to demonstrate what they have learned through both oral and written production, the teacher plans backwards to identify what aspects of language, culture, experience and learning strategies are required to complete the end project.¹

1.6. Examples of activities integrating the four language skills

There are not so many activities that make use of all four skills in tandem, though we could use as a model and adjust to specific lessons two activities suggested on one of the sites. They are called *Self-introduction* and *Reading and Retell*.

1. Self-introduction takes the answers to a number of personal questions (name, age, home country, the house you live, family members, favourite sports, animals, colours, subjects, etc.) and sequences them into a self-introduction. Pupils are given large visuals to elicit each component of the self-introduction. The teacher can point to each picture while modelling a self-introduction (students are listening) and then invite learners to introduce themselves (speaking) to one or two of their peers. Some of the visuals can then be changed and the pupils can be invited to introduce themselves to others in the class to whom they have never spoken. This activity can be adapted to become a regular (daily, weekly) warm-up activity to get learners talking in the target language. Having covered

¹ Based on: Four Skills Activities: Reading, Writing, Speaking & Listening, retrieved from <http://www.educ.ualberta.ca/staff/olenka.bilash/best%20of%20bilash/fourskills.html>

listening and speaking in the oral self-introduction, a scenario can then be created wherein learners must write a self-introduction to a potential homestay host. The same picture cues can be used, reconfigured to show a salutation, closing and signature. The picture cues provide learners with support without giving them a text to memorize.

2. In multilevel classes, graded readers can be excellent springboards for another activity that integrates the four skills- a reading and retell. First, learners select a book or story at their own level and read it. Learners are then given a template to follow to summarize their thoughts about the story (writing). The summary is designed to help learners gauge the amount of detail required in a retell. After additional practice reading the summary silently and aloud several times, learners are asked to select two or three illustrations from the book to help them tell the story. They then practice telling the story by using the pictures and remembering what they wrote in the template. They find a partner who has not read the same story and retell (speaking) their story to one another using the selected illustrations. Partners not only listen to the retell but also complete a feedback checklist (writing) about the retell. After reading the feedback, partners switch roles.¹

II. The Role of L1 and L2 in FL Teaching

There have always been contradicting points of view about whether use the mother tongue of learners in the foreign language class. Many FL teachers stick to the opinion that “monolingual approach suggests that the target language ought to be the sole medium of communication, implying the prohibition of the native language would maximize the effectiveness of learning the target language”²

The adherent of the monolingual approach S. Krashen³ considers that people learning foreign languages follow basically the same route as they would acquire their mother tongue, consequently the use of the mother tongue in the learning process should be minimized. Experienced professionals in second language acquisition have become aware of the role of the mother tongue in the FL classroom. For example Nunan and Lamb⁴ contend that EFL teachers working with monolingual students at lower levels of English proficiency find prohibition of the mother tongue to be practically impossible.

It is indispensable that the chief medium of communication in the class should be English, but at the same time moderate and judicious use of the mother tongue can help and facilitate the acquiring and teaching of the target language. The crucial issue in using either L1 or L2 is not the amount of L1 that is used in the English as a Foreign Language class, but the purpose for using it. According to E. Auerbach it would be very helpful to use the mother tongue for the following activities⁵:

- Classroom management
- Language analysis
- Presenting rules that govern grammar
- Discussing cross-cultural issues
- Giving instructions or prompts
- Explaining errors
- Checking for comprehension, etc

Nobody denies the importance and necessity of using the native language, but at the same time the target language should have a leading position. Most of the information is acquired by means of listening. That is why language teachers should train their students' listening-comprehension skills. Unfortunately students often tend to ignore the importance of listening comprehension skills, because their attention is fixed on reading and writing and they fail to recognize the need for developing functional listening comprehension skills as a prerequisite. It is common knowledge that second-language learners, in order to study the target language, should first learn to understand the spoken language they hear. The main resources received by students come from the teacher who may use English as a communicating skill for instructions. In such a way, from the point of view of language learning and communicating in real-language situations, it is most beneficial for students in learning English the usage of English in class.

¹ Four Skills Activities: Reading, Writing, Speaking & Listening, retrieved from

<http://www.educ.ualberta.ca/staff/olenka.bilash/best%20of%20bilash/fourskills.html>

² Jinlan Tang, Using L1 in the English Classroom, English Teaching Forum, January 2002

³ Krashen, S.1981. *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon

⁴ Nunan, D. and Lamb C. 1996. *The self-directed teacher*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

⁵ Auerbach, E. 1993. Reexamining English only in the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly* 27, pp.9-32

According to A. Doff¹ “If the teacher uses English most of the time in class, it will give students more practice in listening and responding to spoken English. This will help them “pick up” words and expressions beyond the language of the textbooks. Besides, the language used, in the lesson itself, is often unnatural and artificial. The situations that occur in the classroom, however, give opportunities for real and natural English to be used. Also, if the teacher uses English to say real things to the class, it will give students the feeling that English is not just a language that belongs to the textbooks, but a real language used for communication. It is pretty certain, of course, that teachers should not use English all the time. There are many occasions obviously when it can be useful to use the students’ own language. How much a teacher uses English depends on the level of the class and the teacher’s own language ability.

There are two main ways, in which English can be used in class:

- 1) It can be used in *teaching the lesson itself*: introducing a text, asking questions, giving examples, etc.
- 2) It can be used *for activities which surround the teaching*, but which are not actually part of the teaching: checking attendance, chatting to students, controlling the class, etc.”

At the beginning of a lesson, the teacher can spend a few minutes chatting to the class about the topics of the lesson.

- The teacher can talk and ask questions, but get the students to give only short responses, which would be a good technique for a large class or with low level students.
- The teacher can prompt every student to talk more about things they have done.
- The teacher can get students to talk and ask questions, etc

Using English to chat with students in this way creates not only an opportunity for real language practice but also an English atmosphere in the class. More importantly, it establishes contact with the class and helps students to feel relaxed and ready to learn.

During the class, a teacher has to say many things to organize the lesson, such as starting or stopping an activity, getting students to do or not to do things, etc. Much of this consists of simple commands and instructions, which are repeated lesson after lesson. Therefore, if the teacher says them in English, students will learn what they mean quickly.

Recommended Readings:

1. Celce-Murcia, M. ed. (1991). *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, 2nd ed. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
2. Larsen-Feeman, Diane. (2000). *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Questions for Discussion:

1. What language skills do you know?
2. How can they be classified?
3. How can they be used together effectively?
4. During what stages of the lesson teachers should give preference to the target/native language?

Pair-work:

Discuss with your partner what language teachers should give preference to at different stages of the lesson. Make a list.

Project Work:

Develop an activity that integrates the four language skills.

Lecture # 3 Classroom Management

Goal:

- To introduce the notion of ‘classroom management’ and make students aware how to organise it.

¹ Doff A. 1988. *Teach English: A Training Course for Teachers (Trainer’s Handbook)*, Cambridge University Press.

- To familiarize students with classroom seating arrangements
- To highlight relevant classroom language

Plan:

1. Classroom management as a process.
2. Seating arrangements.
3. Classroom language.

I. Classroom Management as a process

Definition: *Classroom management [CM] is a set of techniques, organisational practices and skills that teachers can apply for classroom communication, organisation and practice.*

It is a term used to describe the process of ensuring that classroom lessons run smoothly despite some students' disruptive behaviour. It also implies the prevention of such behaviour. It is possibly the most difficult aspect of teaching for many teachers; indeed experiencing problems in this area causes some to leave teaching altogether.¹

It is common knowledge that classroom management and management of learners' behaviour are skills that teachers gain and perfect over time. Moreover, the skills that are associated with successful classroom management are only acquired with practice, feedback, and a wish to learn from mistakes. Most beginning teachers experience difficulties in effectively managing their classrooms, as there is no 'recommended best' solution for every problem or classroom situation.

In this area of English language teaching two important roles can be distinguished: the role of the physical environment and teacher's role. Environment refers to where the learning takes place. According to Stanisoara (2003:18) a primary focus is the visual dimension of the classroom. In the specific conditions of the classrooms in our schools its importance becomes even greater. That is why teachers should undertake the decorations and display their pupils' works (only it mustn't be exaggerated). Daniels (1989:124) claims 'to have a nice bright classroom with lots of good display work is one of the commonly held indicators of good teaching practice'. The classroom should be pleasant and comfortable and the teachers should take care of decorations, display, musical background, good ventilation, pictures, tables, and other visual aids. Commonly used classroom materials, e.g., books, the register, and student reference materials should be readily available.

The teacher has many roles in class. Now we would like to discuss how and how often the teacher should correct pupils' mistakes. Correcting errors is one of the most controversial classroom management skills. It depends, first of all, on what kind of work is corrected. Some stick to the opinion that all mistakes must be corrected, thus focusing on accuracy. Others, on the contrary, claim that error correction in oral tasks has negative effects on motivation and fluency. In fact, teachers should decide themselves what and how to correct, depending on whether the activity is accuracy or fluency oriented.

In the Handbook of Classroom Management: Research Practice and Contemporary Issues (2006) Evertson and Weinstein characterize classroom management as the actions taken to create an environment that supports and facilitates academic and social-emotional learning. Toward this goal, teachers must:

1. develop caring, supportive relationships with and among students;
2. organize and implement instruction in ways that optimize students' access to learning;
3. use group management methods that encourage students' engagement in academic tasks;
4. promote the development of students' social skills and self-regulation;
5. use appropriate interventions to assist students with behaviour problems.

Dr. Tracey Garrett also describes classroom management as a process consisting of key tasks that teachers must attend to in order to develop an environment conducive to learning. These tasks include:

1. organizing the physical environment,
2. establishing rules and routines,
3. developing caring relationships,
4. implementing engaging instruction and

¹ Based on: Classroom management, From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Classroom_management

5. preventing and responding to discipline problems.¹

Dr. Robert Kizlik suggests four things are fundamental for an effective classroom management.

1. Know what you want and what you don't want.
2. Show and tell your students what you want.
3. When you get what you want, acknowledge (not praise) it.
4. When you get something else, act quickly and appropriately.²

Kizlik considers while good classroom arrangement is not a warranty of pupils' good behaviour; a poor arrangement can create problems. The teacher must be able to observe all the pupils at all times and to monitor work and behaviour, that is why the teacher's position is also important. The teacher should also be able to see the door from his or his/her desk. Frequently used areas of the room should be passable and easily accessible. Pupils should be able to see the teacher and presentation area without too much turning or movement.

In Moldovan schools the teachers are expected to be standing in front or at the back of the classroom. Methodologists consider that assuming the teachers' role in the learning process, they should be more dynamic: sit in a group, working as a resource person, taking an active part in drama activities, etc.

Some more aspects should attention be paid to, for instance: voice, eye contact, ability to manage the lesson and the class. Teachers' speech should be audible and the tone and volume should vary according to need. Pronunciation should be distinct and clear.

As a conclusion, general class management involves not only the organisation of physical resources, meaning efficient management of furniture, equipment, teaching materials/ visual aids, but also general qualities of the teachers and general organising abilities able to ensure that the lesson proceeds as smoothly as possible.

Teacher's activity is indispensable in the language class, as s/he takes so many roles. According to Stanisoara, each role is accompanied by certain type of behaviour. For example if the teacher is a CONDUCTOR, s/he should be able to: organise the lesson; supply a series of goals; give instructions; explain; elicit; initiate rules and check concepts by questioning techniques; have learners repeat; handle aids; establish contexts; manage individuals and groups. If the teacher chooses to be an INFORMANT s/he should be able to: give input; provide extension; do revision; give explanations and remedial work; give advice and guidance. The role of the DIAGNOSER (assessor) requires to following skills: praise where due; handle mistakes in oral work; correct errors; give reinforcement. A MOTIVATOR (prompter) should have interest in learners as persons; prove competence and confidence; lower risk of fear; encourage productivity. The ORGANISER should deal with noisy learners; involve shy learners in full class activities; involve learners of different ability levels; organise pair-work and group-work. COMMUNICATOR OF KNOWLEDGE is expected to use the black/white/interactive board, visual aids; do non-verbal communication; use silence; lead into an activity; vary the sensory channels; and understand learners' difficulties.³ It is up to the teacher to decide what roles to take.

For quite a few years the students practice simulations of the English lesson, taking several roles: of a teacher, an expert and of a pupil. Having analysed the mistakes students usually make we came with the following suggestions naming them **Tips for Good Class Management**. They are not arranged in a certain, logical order, just at random.

1. Give pupils enough time to fulfil the tasks.
2. First tell the whole class the task, only after that name a pupil.
3. Give short, clear, simple instructions. Use short imperative sentences where appropriate.
4. Always explain the homework, and write the task on the board.
5. Make sure pupils write homework in their copybooks or agendas.
6. Give brief, clear explanation of the new material.
7. Write the date and theme on the board before the lesson.

¹ ibid

² Robert, Kizlik, Classroom Management, Management of Student Conduct, Effective Praise Guidelines, and a Few Things to Know About ESOL Thrown in for Good Measure, <http://www.adprima.com/managing.htm>

³ Stanisoara, Codruta, 2003. Interactive English Language Training Course for Students and not Only, Aramis, pp. 22-23

8. Speak distinctly (not too quickly).
9. Use a pointer (not your finger) to show something on the board, or table.
10. Make logical pauses.
11. Be serious, but pleasant- smile sometimes.
12. Be attentive with pictures, tables, visuals. Make sure you stick them properly; and be sure they are visible to every pupil.
13. Speak to the class not to the board, walls or the window.
14. Mind how and what you write on the board (spelling, size, content)
15. Mind your pronunciation.
16. Use classroom language appropriately.
17. Use the rules of Classroom management, preserve discipline.
18. Evaluate fairly and explain why they got a certain grade.
19. Correct pupils' mistakes positively.
20. Praise pupils.
21. Mind the time management- the lesson lasts only 45 minutes.
22. Use good, colourful (big enough) pictures/ photos.
23. Use distinct columns while writing new vocabulary on the board (word- transcription- translation).
24. Use colour chalks / markers.
25. Involve all pupils, even the weakest ones.
26. Prepare different /diverse activities for 1 lesson.
27. Pay attention to your body language and outfit.
28. Answer pupils' questions, if you don't know the answer at the moment- be honest and try to find a way out (either tell them next time, or try to elicit together the correct answer, or check up in a dictionary, textbook, etc.
29. Combine English and the native language.
30. Mind your pupils' level of language proficiency and adjust your language difficulty level.
31. Formulate questions correctly.
32. Stick to the topic.

II. Seating Arrangements

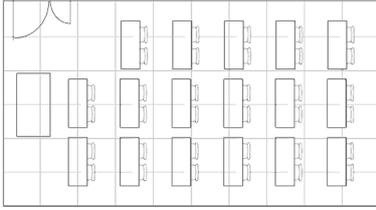
The arrangement of students' desks in language classrooms is an important factor for the lesson's success. In contrast to most of the curriculum's subjects, language classes do not give teachers much freedom for in-class games and activities, with lectures occupying at least part of the lesson. Hence, the classroom's setting must allow the teacher to get the students' attention, but also, when needed, make them part of the lesson.¹

Unfortunately the lay-out of the classroom in our schools is not flexible because of the old-fashioned furniture and the big number of learners that will not allow too many options group-work or interactive games.

Though, it is possible to move chairs around, or the learners could turn back to their classmates in order to accomplish group-work activities. A good teacher begins with classroom seating arrangements and an effective classroom organization plan. How an EFL classroom is arranged can make all the difference in helping students learn. Here are a few different ways to set up an English classroom so that students can get the most out of their time with their teacher and classmates.

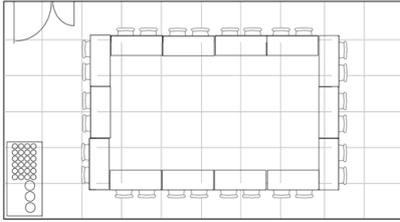
Rows:

¹ Tasos Vossos, Types of Classroom Settings in Language, http://www.ehow.com/info_7946867_types-classroom-settings-language.html



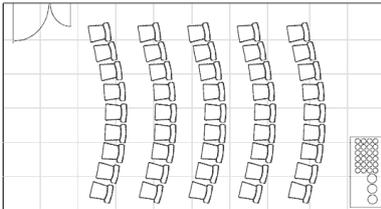
Rows are most conducive to lecture-style lessons and teaching. This might be best done for certain types of choral drills or so that everyone can see the teacher and the board during a grammar lesson. However, it is least conducive to class exercises where students are to perform role plays or other interactive activities.

Circle/Square:



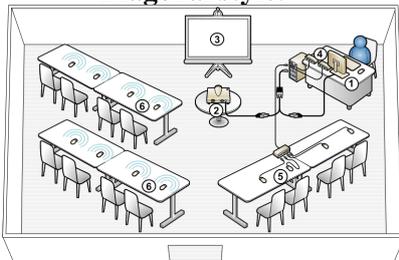
When chairs, tables or desks are placed in a circle or square, students can see each other and the teacher more clearly than if they are arranged in rows. This arrangement is best used for discussions and for activities where students are answering more open-ended questions. Pairs can easily work together on dialogues, too. Students feel that they are on more of an equal footing with each other and the teacher in this type of set-up.

Theatre style:



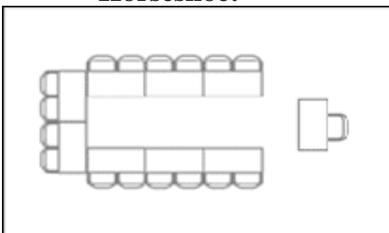
It is appropriate when teachers are planning to organize a concert, a theatrical play, a recitation contest, etc.

Diagonal style:



In the picture you can see a very efficient classroom seating arrangement, when teachers use ICT- interactive boards, computers, PowerPoint presentations, etc.

Horseshoe:



This arrangement is characterized by the equal status of all students and teacher, just as in the circular/square arrangement. It also facilitates easy viewing of the chalkboard or white board by all students should notes or explanations be written on them by the teacher. Discussions can also more easily take place in the horseshoe arrangement than in the row set-up. Students can see each other's faces, and they can interpret others' body language as they speak to get a better understanding of what is being said.

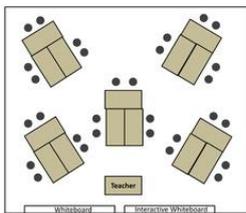
Back-to-Back:



When two chairs are placed back to back, students working in pairs are able to practice their listening skills. They cannot rely on body language or facial expressions to help them understand what is being said in English. This kind of activity can develop skills where it is necessary to understand and respond quickly to spoken English, such as answering the telephone.

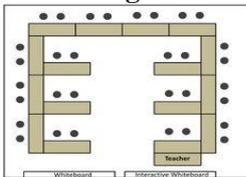
The different arrangements of students in a classroom facilitate different types of lessons and learning. The arrangement should be changed at regular intervals, though not too often. Students will learn to communicate and express themselves when they are seated in an arrangement that encourages them to self- and peer correct when they take part in pair and group activities designed to improve their English skills.¹

Group Tables² –



Group tables are considered to support students' self-organized learning. While they are great for group or project work they have their disadvantages because some students permanently have their backs to the front and it might prove difficult to get their attention. Also there might be effects on students' health if they constantly turn their heads to look to the front.

E-Arrangement



It is also the most space efficient one. When we first introduced notebook classes it seemed to be the easiest solution to simply keep the layout and adjust the power supply to the existing situation.

The following seating arrangements also seem interesting and useful.

The dance-floor seating chart³



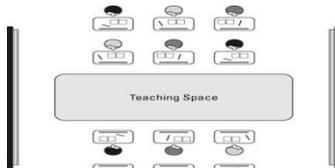
Holding class discussions and debates in this type of arrangement is easy because students are able to hold eye contact with one another without constantly having to swing around in their seats. However, this seating chart requires a room with a lot of space in it. Though comfortable and welcoming, this arrangement isn't the way to go with large classes.

The runway-model seating chart

¹ Based on: ESL Classroom Seating Arrangements, <http://voices.yahoo.com/esl-classroom-seating-arrangements-5140597.html>

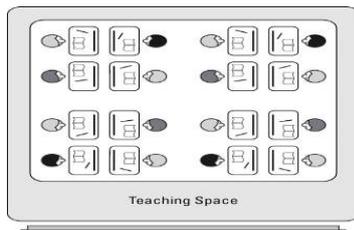
² <http://www.pinterest.com/source/thelinkproject.eu/>

³ Based on: Kelley, Michael , Rookie Teaching Technique: Choosing a Seating Arrangement, <http://www.dummies.com/how-to/content/rookie-teaching-technique-choosing-a-seating-arran.html>



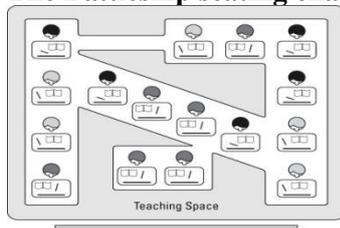
It is extremely effective in rooms that have blackboards on opposite ends of the room and it effectively fits more students into smaller spaces. This seating chart is the most practical way to arrange the chairs if class discussion is important, because students can always face at least half the class, and most can see the faces of about 75 percent of their classmates easily. The teacher should make sure that s/he limits the number of rows, because having three rows of five students is better than having five rows of three. To maximize class interaction, it is necessary to make the rows of students parallel to the centre lane as long as possible.

The independent-nation-state seating chart



If teachers assign a lot of group work or split the class into teams for games or competitions, they might employ the following seating chart. Through use of this seating arrangement, teachers are telling students that they want them to operate independently of the rest of the class, forcibly separating them into small clusters, so that their desks are pushed together and individual teams are able to face one another easily. Teachers should keep in mind that students still need to be able to see the chalkboard just by turning their heads to the right or left.

The Battleship seating chart



While this may not be a viable long-term seating chart, it illustrates an important point. If students are used to the row-and-column traditional style, and all of a sudden they walk into your room arranged in a crazy design, their interest will be instantly sparked. A little change does everyone some good.

III. Language for classroom management

Academic talk has always been part of the language classroom. Teachers are aware how important language is to transmit exact ideas. Teachers are supposed to share their knowledge with their pupils mostly in an oral form. Over the time teachers have developed a great number of statements appropriate for certain stages of the lesson. Classroom talk is habitually limited and is used to check understanding rather than develop thinking, and often teachers dominate classroom talk. Teachers rely mainly on questioning to check for understanding in which teachers initiate a question, a pupil responds, and then the teacher evaluates the answer. Classroom talk should be laconic, and to the point. Teachers must take into account their English language learners' current proficiency levels when planning instruction. Further you can get familiarised with some of the classroom language to be used in the EFL class.

- Make groups of four.
- Move your desks into groups of four people.
- Turn your desks around.
- Make a horseshoe shape with your desks.
- Make a circle with your desks.
- Make a line of desks facing each other.
- Make groups of four desks facing each other.

- Sit back to back.
- Work together with your friend
- Find a partner
- Work in pairs/threes/fours/fives.
- Work in groups of two/three/four.
- I want you to form groups.
- Form groups of three
- Here are some tasks for you to work on in groups of four.
- Everybody work individually
- Work by yourselves.
- Work independently.
- Ask your neighbours for help.
- Work on the task together.
- Have you finished?
- Do the next activity.
- Move on to the next activity.
- There are too many in this group.
- Can you join the other group?
- Only three people in each group.
- I asked for four people to a group.
- Ask other people in the group
- Ask others in the class.
- Interview someone else.
- Ask everyone in the class.
- Stand up and find another partner.

Organization¹

Giving instructions

- Open your books at page 52
- Come out and write it on the board
- Listen to the tape, please
- Get into groups of four
- Finish off this song at home
- Let's sing a song.
- Everybody, please.
- All together now.
- The whole class, please.
- I want you all to join in
- Could you try the next one?
- I would like you to write this down.
- Would you mind switching the lights on?
- It might be an idea to leave this till next time.
- Who would like to read?
- Which topic will your group report on?
- Do you want to answer question 3?

Supervision

- Look this way.
- Stop talking.
- Listen to what ... is saying.
- Leave that alone now.
- Be careful.

Sequencing

- First of all, today, ...
- Right. Now we will go on to the next exercise.
- Have you finished?
- For the last thing today, let's ...
- Whose turn is it to read?
- Which question are you on?
- Next one, please.
- Who hasn't answered yet?
- Let me explain what I want you to do next.
- The idea of this exercise is for you to ...
- You have ten minutes to do this.
- Your time is up.
- Finish this by twenty to eleven.
- Can you all see the board?
- Have you found the place?
- Are you all ready?

Interrogation

¹ <http://www.finchpark.com/courses/classeng/txt106.htm>

Asking questions

- Where's Min-su?
- Is Min-su in the kitchen?
- Tell me where Min-su is.
- What was the house like?
- What do you think?
- How can you tell?

Explanation

Metalanguage

- What's the Korean for "doll"?
- Explain it in your own words.
- It's spelt with a capital "J".
- Can anybody correct this sentence?
- Fill in the missing words.
- Mark the right alternative.

Responding to questions

- Yes, that's right
- Fine.
- Almost. Try again.
- What about this word?

Reference

- After they left the USA, the Beatles ...
- The church was started in the last century.
- This is a picture of a typically English castle.
- In the background you can see ...
- While we're on the subject, ...
- As I said earlier, ...
- Let me sum up.

Interaction

Affective attitudes

- That's interesting!
- That really is very kind of you.
- Don't worry about it.
- I was a bit disappointed with your efforts.

Social ritual

- Good morning.
- Cheerio now.
- God bless!
- Have a nice weekend.
- Thanks for your help
- Happy birthday!
- Merry Christmas!

Using English in class is worthwhile if it can be done successfully and without too much difficulty. Most importantly, it is best to give explanations in clear and simple English, and repeat some parts in students' own language to make the meanings clear.

Recommended Readings:

1. Harmer, Jeremy, 1995. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, Longman, p.1-9.
2. Rogova, Galina, 1983. *Methods of Teaching English*, Moscow, , p5-35
3. Underwood, M., 1998. *Effective Class Management*, Longman

Questions for Discussion:

1. What is Classroom Management?
2. How often and how should pupils be corrected?
3. How should a teacher behave during the lesson?
4. What should a good teacher be aware of during the lesson?

Pair-work:

Develop optimal seating arrangement(s) for an average English lesson in Moldovan schools.

Project Work:

In order to be successful at classroom management teachers should develop some essential classroom management skills. Read the list (Tips) analyse it, and make up your own to be presented in class.

Lecture # 4 Teaching Listening-Comprehensions

Goals:

- To help future teachers gain an insight into the listening-comprehension process
- To provide information about the methods and strategies to be used in listening activities
- To present samples of listening activities

Plan

1. Basic concepts used to describe listening skills. Potential barriers to listening.
2. Planning Listening Activities.

I. Basic concepts used to describe listening skills.

I.1. Definition, importance

Listening is a receptive skill that helps pupils to improve their understanding of spoken English. In the process of teaching listening comprehension teachers must be careful not to go into extremes, either by being concerned too exclusively with theories without thinking about their application to teaching, or by routines from textbooks and explaining new words, playing the tape recorder, and asking/answering questions. It is essential for a teacher to have an overall understanding of what listening is, why it is difficult for foreign-language learners, and what some solutions may be. "Listening is the language modality that is used most frequently."¹

Definition: "Listening is the ability to identify and understand what others are saying. This involves understanding a speaker's accent or pronunciation, his grammar and his vocabulary, and grasping his meaning".² An able listener is capable of doing these four things simultaneously.

The listening process has following features:

1. *Spontaneity:* listening to people speaking spontaneously and casually without prior rehearsing what they are going to say.
2. *Context:* is usually known in real life. The situation generally helps people predict what they are going to hear.
3. *Visual clues:* in the process of listening, the speakers' facial expression, gestures and other body language provide visual clues that foster understanding and prediction.
4. *Listener's response:* Most of the listening allows listeners to respond the speaker, no matter if they understand the message or not.
5. *Speaker's adjustment:* Speakers are able to regulate their speech according to the listener's reactions.

Willis³ lists a series of micro-skills of listening, which are called enabling skills. They are:

- predicting what people are going to talk about
- guessing unknown words or phrases without panicking
- using one's own knowledge of the subject to help one understand
- identifying relevant points; rejecting irrelevant information
- retaining relevant points (note-taking, summarizing)
- recognizing discourse markers, e.g. *Well; oh, another thing is; now, finally; etc.*,
- recognizing cohesive devices, e.g. *such as, and, which*, including link words, pronouns, references, etc.,
- understanding different intonation patterns and uses of stress, etc., which give clues to meaning and social setting
- understanding inferred information, e.g., speakers' attitude or intentions

Language teachers hope to train students who, even if they do not have complete control of the grammar or an extensive lexicon, can cope with various communication situations. For instance, the students can use listening strategies to increase their grasp of the oral message, identify related & non-

¹ <http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/listening/liindex.htm>

² Howatt, A. and J. Dakin. 1974. Language laboratory materials, ed. J. P. B. Allen, S. P. B. Allen, and S. P. Corder. Ur, P. 1984. Teaching of English as a second or foreign language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

³ Willis, J. 1981. Teaching English through English. London: Longman

relevant information, as well as accept less than word-by-word comprehension. Efficient language instructors teach their students how they can regulate their listening behaviour in order to cope with a range of difficulties during the listening process.

We need to have good listening skills for various reasons: listening to the news, understanding foreigners, understanding movies in English, singing English songs, studying, etc. In order to become a skilled listener the students should get enough listening practice.

There are two kinds of listening: *casual*, i.e. listening for no particular purpose, and *focused* listening, when we are looking for certain data.

By explicit rising of the students' awareness of listening as a receptive skill which employs active involvement, teachers help their students build up both the ability and the self-confidence to do well in any communication situations encountered beyond the classroom. Teachers should make their students aware of the mechanisms used to extract meaning from a listening text following four fundamental steps:

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

I.2. Barriers to Listening

In FL learning there are two receptive skills- listening and reading, but listening is considered more difficult than reading for the reason that:

- Speakers make the same sounds in different ways, i.e. they have diverse accents and dialects, intonation, word-stress, rhythm, and mispronunciation of words, often due to the interference of the native language.
- It is practically impossible to control the speed of the input of spoken material.
- As a rule one can hear only once what is said.
- The listener cannot stop the speaker in order to understand the meaning of what has been said.
- The interfering of the background noise (music, other people speaking, noise in the street, etc).
- Weak memory and repetition.

Listening barriers prevent effective listening/communication. There are many things that get in the way of listening and the students should be aware of such barriers in order to become a more effective listener. Barriers to efficient listening are present at every stage of the listening process. For instance, “at the *receiving stage*, noise can negatively influence understanding. At the *interpreting stage*, intricate or theoretical information may be tricky to relate to prior experiences, thus making it hard to comprehend. At the *recalling stage*, certain limits of the memory and lack of concentration can hinder remembering. At the *evaluating stage*, personal biases can lead us to block people out or assume we know what they are going to say. At the *responding stage*, a lack of paraphrasing and questioning skills can lead to misunderstanding.”²

Evidence shows that listening is difficult due to several issues: the message to be listened to, the speaker, the listener, and the physical setting. Teachers ask themselves what they can do to help students cope with these difficulties. In the communicative approach to language teaching, this means modelling listening strategies and providing listening practice in authentic situations: those that learners are likely to encounter when they use the language outside the classroom. Teachers can at least provide the students with suitable listening materials, background and linguistic knowledge, enabling skills, pleasant classroom conditions, and useful exercises to help them discover effective listening strategies.

¹ Strategies for Developing Listening Skills, retrieved from: www.nclrc.org/essentials/listening/stratlisten.htm

² Based on: Barriers to Effective Listening, retrieved from <http://2012books.lardbucket.org/books/a-primer-on-communication-studies/s05-02-barriers-to-effective-listenin.html>

II. Planning Listening Activities

2.1. Basic Principles to Teaching Listening

While designing listening tasks, teachers should keep in mind that listening exercises that are intended to train must be success-oriented and build up learners' self-confidence in their listening ability. The teachers should construct the listening activity around a contextualized task. Such listening activities are similar to real-life tasks and help the listeners to get an idea of the sort of information to anticipate and what to do with it before the actual listening. For example a contextualized task for beginners: *locate certain places on a map*, or *exchange names and address information*, etc. Intermediate level students, for instance, could follow exact directions for collect data or work in pairs/groups to make up a story to tell to the rest of the class, etc. In the process of planning a listening activity teachers must determine its instructional goal and type of response considering the following:

- **Identification:** Recognizing or discriminating specific aspects of the message, such as sounds, categories of words, morphological distinctions, etc.
- **Orientation:** Determining the major facts about a message, such as topic, text type, setting.
- **Main idea comprehension:** Identifying the higher-order ideas.
- **Detail comprehension:** Identifying supporting details.
- **Replication:** Reproducing the message orally or in writing.

It is also obligatory for teachers to check the level of difficulty of the listening text. Teachers should read the text designed for listening and decide how the information is organized and if it is easy to predict. If the text intended for listening has an informative title and the events are presented in chronological order, then such events are easier to follow. Another issue worth considering is how familiar the students are with the topic. Lack of background knowledge often creates comprehension difficulties. The number of characters is also important, as it is easier to understand a listening text if there are not too many characters in it, and the distinction between them is vivid. At the lower levels of language proficiency, listeners will definitely find short, simple messages easier to understand. Visual aids such as maps, diagrams, pictures, or the images in a video help contextualize the listening input and provide clues to meaning.

Teachers must consider several guidelines when selecting listening techniques and activities.

The following guidelines have been adapted from a variety of sources.¹

-Listening should be relevant, because learners listen with a purpose and listen to things that interest them, accounting for the goals and experiences of the learners will keep motivation and attention high. For example, if learners at a worksite need to be able to understand new policies and procedures introduced at staff meetings, in class they should be helped to develop the abilities to identify main ideas and supporting details, to identify cause and effect, to indicate comprehension or lack of comprehension, and to ask for clarification.

-Material should be authentic as the language should reflect real discourse, including hesitations, rephrasing, and a variety of accents. Although the language needs to be comprehensible, it does not need to be constantly modified or simplified to make it easier for the level of the listener. Level of difficulty can be controlled by the selection of the task. *-Opportunities to develop both top-down and bottom-up processing skills should be offered.*

As mentioned above, top-down oriented activities encourage the learners to discuss what they already know about a topic, and bottom-up practice activities give confidence in accurate hearing and comprehension of the components of the language (sounds, words, intonation, grammatical structures).

-The development of listening strategies should be encouraged. Predicting, asking for clarification, and using non-verbal cues are examples of strategies that increase chances for successful listening. For example, using video can help learners develop cognitive strategies. As they view a segment with the sound off, learners can be asked to make predictions about what is happening by answering questions about setting, action, and interaction; viewing the segment again with the sound on allows them to

¹ Brown, H.D. (1994). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents; Brod, S. (1996). *Teaching listening in the workplace English language training program at the Spring Institute*; Dunkel, P. (1991). Listening in the native and second/foreign language: Toward an integration of research and practice. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(3), 431- 457. , and others

confirm or modify their hypothesis.

-Activities should teach, not test. Teachers should avoid using activities that tend to focus on memory rather than on the process of listening or that simply give practice rather than help learners develop listening ability. For example, simply having the learners listen to a passage followed by true/false questions might indicate how much information the learners remembered rather than helping them to develop the skill of determining main idea and details. Pre- and post-listening task activities would help the learners to focus attention on what to listen for, to assess how accurately they succeeded, and to transfer the listening skill to the world beyond the classroom.

There are numerous activities for developing listening skills to choose from. Lund¹ has categorized them according to nine responses that can be observed as comprehension checks:

1. *Doing*: the listener responds physically such as in Total Physical Response (TPR);
2. *Choosing*: the listener selects from alternatives such as pictures, objects, texts, or actions;
3. *Transferring*: the listener transforms the message such as drawing a route on map, or filling in a chart;
4. *Answering*: the listener answers questions about the text;
5. *Condensing*: the listener takes notes or makes an outline;
6. *Extending*: the listener goes beyond the text by continuing the story or solving a problem;
7. *Duplicating*: the listener simply repeats or translates the message;
8. *Modelling*: the listener performs a similar task, e.g. gives instructions to a co-worker after listening to a model or;
9. *Conversing*: the listener is an active participant in a face-to-face conversation.

2.2. Steps in teaching listening.

In order to perform a listening activity successfully and facilitate the development of students' listening ability teachers must follow a basic methodological model that has 3 main stages: *pre-listening*, *while-listening* and *post-listening*.

1. Teachers should start with involving the students in *a pre-listening activity*.

It establishes the purpose of the listening task and encourages the learners to think and discuss what they already know about the content of the listening text. It provides the required background for understanding the text/dialogue, and it focuses students' attention on what to listen for. A pre-listening activity gives the students a reason to listen based on their own experience, considers learners' background knowledge of the topic and the language of the text, provides listeners with the basic information for comprehension, activates students' knowledge on the topic, makes clear the necessary cultural information, raises students' awareness of the type of the listening text and the purpose of listening, pre-teaches vocabulary they might not know, explains everything the learners might not understand about the topic/text, provides opportunities for pair/group or collaborative work and for class discussion activities. Listening activities at this stage vary according to the students' level. Here is a list of sample pre-listening activities:

- looking at pictures, maps, diagrams, or graphs and talking about them;
- reviewing vocabulary or grammatical structures;
- looking and discussing a list of items/opinions/ideas;
- making a list of possible suggestions/ideas, etc.;
- reading something relevant (a text, poem, riddle, joke, etc.);
- constructing semantic webs (a graphic arrangement of concepts or words showing how they are related);
- predicting the content of the listening text/vocabulary/ending, etc.;
- filling-in part of a chart/table/web;
- going over the directions or instructions for the activity;
- doing guided practice;
- asking students to propose their own questions to be answered;
- informal teacher talk and class discussion.

At this stage the teacher should apply the following principles: use of authentic listening material; encourage learners to listen to each other; use interesting texts; give clear instructions.

¹ Lund, R.J. (1990). A taxonomy for teaching second language listening. *Foreign Language Annals*, 23, 105-115

2. The second step is the **while-listening activity**. At this stage the students listen to a text and try to perform the task set by the teacher. It is required to match while-listening activities to the instructional goal, the listening purpose, and students' proficiency level. While-listening activities relate directly to the listening text, and students are to do them during or immediately after the time they are listening.

Here is a list of sample while-listening activities:

- listening with visuals and marking pictures with what is heard;
- marking/checking items in pictures;
- storyline picture sets;
- putting pictures in order;
- completing pictures;
- picture drawings;
- carrying out actions;
- filling in grids, graphs and charts;
- following a route on a map;
- checking off items in a list;
- labelling;
- using lists;
- performing true/false tasks;
- making models and arranging them in relevant patterns;
- following certain instructions;
- drawing maps;
- answering multiple choice questions;
- text completion- gap-filling;
- listening for the gist;
- searching for specific clues to meaning;
- spotting mistakes;
- predicting;
- seeking specific pieces of information;
- completing cloze (fill-in) exercises;
- performing actions;
- taking notes;
- distinguishing between formal and informal registers.

3. The third step is engaging learners in a **post-listening activity** that will help to evaluate success in carrying out the listening task and to integrate listening with the other language skills. The teacher should encourage discussing tricky items, word meanings, grammatical points, and expressions. There are two common forms that post-listening tasks can take. These are reactions to the content of the text, and analysis of the linguistic features used to express the content. *Reaction to the text*- Tasks that focus students' reaction to the content are most important. Again this is something that we naturally do in our everyday lives. Because we listen for a reason, there is generally a following reaction. This could be discussion as a response to what we've heard - do they agree or disagree or even believe what they have heard? , or it could be some kind of reuse of the information they have heard. *Analysis of language*- The second of these two post-listening task types involves focusing students on linguistic features of the text. This is important in terms of developing their knowledge of language, but less so in terms of developing students' listening skills. It could take the form of an analysis of verb forms from a script of the listening text or vocabulary or collocation work. This is a good time to do form focused work as the students have already developed an understanding of the text and so will find dealing with the forms that express those meanings much easier.¹ Here is a range of possible post-listening activities:

- asking/answering general or special questions;
- correcting wrong statements;
- making a plan;
- suggesting key words or key sentences;
- providing extended lists of expressions/words;

¹ A framework for planning a listening skills lesson. Retrieved on February 4, 2014 from <http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/a-framework-planning-a-listening-skills-lesson?page=1>

- giving the gist of the text;
- writing reproductions or dictations;
- performing role-plays and simulations;
- doing multiple-choice tests;
- preparing short oral or written reports on the topic;
- completing charts, graphs, tables;
- sequencing;
- extended notes in written responses;
- summarising;
- using information for problem-solving and discussion activities;
- jigsaw listening;
- identifying relationship between speakers;
- establishing the speaker's mood, attitude, behaviour, etc.

Here's a sample listening activity for primary school learners.

The Little Red Hen

The little Red Hen was in the farmyard with her chickens, when she found a grain of wheat.

"Who will plant this wheat?" she said.

"Not I," said the Goose.

"Not I," said the Duck.

"I will, then," said the little Red Hen, and she planted the grain of wheat.

When the wheat was ripe she said, "Who will take this wheat to the mill?"

"Not I," said the Goose.

"Not I," said the Duck.

"I will, then," said the little Red Hen, and she took the wheat to the mill.

When she brought the flour home she said, "Who will make some bread with this flour?"

"Not I," said the Goose.

"Not I," said the Duck.

"I will, then," said the little Red Hen.

When the bread was baked, she said, "Who will eat this bread?"

"I will," said the Goose

"I will," said the Duck

"No, you won't," said the little Red Hen. "I shall eat it myself. Cluck! Cluck!" And she called her chickens to help her.

I. Pre-listening activities:

1. The teacher holds up pictures of domestic birds and asks them to match the picture with the name.



2. The teacher pronounces the words and the pupils repeat in chorus and individually.
3. The teacher practises the plural form of these words: *Hen-hens; Goose-geese; Duck-ducks.*
4. The pupils look at the picture again and make up sentences.
5. The teacher asks the pupils to make 2/3 groups and using the words *hen, goose, duck, chicken, farmyard, wheat, to plant, bread, lazy, hardworking* to make a story.

II. While-listening activities:

1. The teacher reads the whole text aloud and checks comprehension via simple questions.
2. The teacher reads the text aloud, and then gives the pupils a copy of the text with gaps. The teacher reads the text again and the pupils complete the text with missing words:

The Red Hen

The little Red Hen was in the farmyard with her, when she found a grain of wheat.

"Who will this wheat?" she said.

"Not I," said the

"Not I," said the Duck.

"I will, then," said the little Red Hen, and she planted the..... of wheat.

When the wheat was ripe she said, "Who will take this wheat to the?"
 "Not I," said the Goose.
 "Not I," said the
 "I will, then," said the little Red Hen, and she took the wheat to the mill.
 When she brought the flour home she said, "Who will make some with this flour?"
 ".....," said the Goose.
 "Not I," said the Duck.
 "I will, then," said the little Red Hen.
 When the bread was baked, she said, "Who will this bread?"
 "I will," said the Goose
 "I will," said the Duck
 "....., you won't," said the little Red Hen. "I shall eat it Cluck! Cluck!" And she called her chickens to her.

3. Then they check the task.

III. Post-listening activities:

1. The teacher may ask the pupils to compare their story with the real story.
2. The pupils write out the key-words and make the plan of the text.
3. The pupils may respond at a multiple choice-test:

1. What colour is the hen?
 a) Red; b) Green; c) White; d) Black;
 2. Where was the hen with her chickens?
 a) in the forest; b) in the field; c) in the farmyard; d) in the cage;
 3. What does the hen found?
 a) money; b) a flower; c) a book; d) a grain of wheat;
 4. Who planted the grain of wheat?
 a) the hen; b) the goose; c) the duck; d) the chickens;
 5. Where did she take the wheat?
 a) to the mill; b) to the hairdresser's; c) to the shop; d) to the market;
 6. What was baked at home?
 a) the bread; b) the milk; c) the water; d) the cake;
 7. Who ate the bread?
 a) the goose; b) the chickens; c) the hen; d) the hen and the chickens;
4. The teacher asks the pupil's opinion about the text.
5. The teacher asks the pupil to write a reproduction on the theme: "...".

In conclusion we must emphasise once again that before setting a listening task, teachers should have a clear view of the educational aim that they have in mind; and then choose the most applicable technique in order to achieve that aim.

Recommended Readings

1. Adrian Doff,(2002) *Teach English, A Training Course for Teachers*, Cambridge University Press, p.198-208
2. Th. Kral, *Creative Classroom Activities*, English Teaching Forum, 1989-1993, Section 1. p. 25-28
3. English Teaching Forum, vol.1, # 1, Jan. 1997

Questions for Discussion:

1. Why is listening so difficult for students?
2. What do we listen to in everyday life?
3. What are the characteristics of the listening process?
4. What are the principles of teaching listening?
5. What are the common activities in teaching listening?

Pair-work

Choose a poem or dialogue for primary school pupils and develop appropriate listening activities.

Project Work

Develop a Listening Activity for gymnasium pupils. Choose a lesson, identify the topic, find or make up a story and develop pre/while and post-listening activities. Teach it in class. (simulation)

Lecture # 5

Teaching Pronunciation

Goals:

- to make future teachers aware of pupils' pronunciation difficulties
- to highlight the importance of correct pronunciation, stress, rhythm, and phonetic symbols
- to familiarize future teachers with modern methods of teaching pronunciation

Plan

1. The importance of correct pronunciation. Received Pronunciation.
2. How to teach pronunciation and to correct mistakes.

I. The importance of correct pronunciation. Received Pronunciation

Pronunciation is often one of the most difficult aspects of any foreign language to master. It deals not only with *individual sounds*; it also involves *word stress*, *sentence stress*, *intonation*, and *word linking*, as well as the peculiarities of people's pronunciation. Jeremy Harmer¹ considers that native speakers (or competent users of the language) know how to say a word that is how to pronounce it. This knowledge is made up of three areas- **sounds, stress and intonation**. On their own sounds of a language may well be meaningless... But if we put sounds together in a certain order we get different words. Some of the problems that speakers of English as a foreign language have are precisely because they have difficulty with individual sounds. Native speakers also know which part of the word should receive the heaviest emphasis. Stress in words also changes depending upon a word's grammatical function: 'perMIT' is a verb, but 'PERmit' is a noun. Native speakers of a language unconsciously know about stress and how it works. They know which syllables of words are stressed and they know how to use stress to change the meaning of phrases, sentences and question. Closely connected with stress is intonation. If a person says "It's raining, ↑isn't it?" with a rising intonation it means that the question is genuine and s/he wants to know the answer. But if a person pronounces the same question with a falling intonation, it means that s/he is seeking information of a fact about which is almost completely certain.

Intonation is clearly important and competent users of the language recognise what meaning it has and can change the meaning of what they say through using it in different ways. Learners of English as a foreign language get this knowledge through time consuming practice. It is very important to have a good pronunciation.

"Research shows that limited pronunciation skills can undermine learners' self-confidence, restrict social interactions, and negatively influence estimations of a speaker's credibility and abilities".²

English pronunciation is very hard to acquire, as it involves too many 'hidden' difficulties to overcome in order to get rid of a foreign accent. Teachers should devote much attention to teaching pronunciation.

There is a tendency in our schools to teach Received Pronunciation (RP).

Received Pronunciation: British English pronunciation that was originally based on the speech of the upper class. It was also characteristic of the English spoken in public schools, as well as at Oxford and Cambridge Universities. Until recently it was the standard form of English used in British broadcasting and was referred to as "BBC English", or as "the Queen's English". Both terms remain in use today, though less frequently than in past decades. It is still the standard accent of the Royal Family, Parliament, the Church of England, the High Courts, and other national institutions; but less than 3 per cent of the British people speak it in a pure form now. ³ (Crystal, 1995)

Many educated people use an accent that is a combination of RP and different regional characteristics that is called *modified RP*. However RP still retains a significant position, as it is still the main British accent taught to foreigners. That is why it is more widely used abroad than in the UK. We consider it is necessary to teach RP at the Beginning and Intermediate levels. But advanced learners can be familiarised with Estuary English, General American and Standard Mid-Western English as well.

¹ Harmer Jeremy, (1995), *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, Longman, p.11-12.

² Morley, J. (1998). Trippingly on the tongue: Putting serious speech/pronunciation instruction back in the TESOL equation. *ESL Magazine*, January/February, 20-23.

³ Crystal, David, (1995). *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of the English Language*. Cambridge University Press

Estuary English is 'a variety of British originating in the counties adjacent to the estuary of the River Thames...'¹ It is a mixture of RP and some South Eastern accents, particularly from the London and Essex area. Some people think it will eventually replace Received Pronunciation as the *Standard English* pronunciation.

General American is the supposed standard system of American English pronunciation, though it was never the accent of the entire nation, and is spoken particularly by many newscasters.

Standard Midwestern is the accent used by many American network television broadcasters. The Standard Midwestern pronunciation is not thought of as a *standard pronunciation*, but is used because it is perceived as accentless by most Americans.

II. How to teach pronunciation, and to correct mistakes

Teaching pronunciation is a rather complicated area of EFL teaching. Most English language teachers agree that the learner's first language influences the pronunciation of the target language and is a significant factor in accounting for foreign accents. The interference or negative transfer from the first language usually causes errors in aspiration, intonation, and rhythm in the target language. Every language has its own phonic system. It is normal that in English there are sounds, which are not to be

found in Romanian or Russian. For example **ʒ: θ ð**, etc.

A.Doff² suggests that pronunciation problems will vary greatly from one country to another. He provides the following examples:

- Difficulty in pronouncing sounds which do not exist in the students' own language, for many students the consonant /ð/ in 'the', and the vowel /ɜ:/ in 'bird';
- Confusion of similar sounds, e.g. /I:/ and /I/; or /b/ and /p/;
- Use of simple vowels instead of diphthongs
- Difficulty in pronouncing consonant clusters, e.g. /desks/
- Tendency to give all syllables equal stress, and a 'flat' intonation

Another challenge resulting from differences in the first language is the inability to hear certain English sounds that the native language does not contain. Often these are vowels, as in '*ship*' and '*sheep*,' which many learners cannot distinguish, etc. For problems such as these, listening is very important because students are not able to produce a sound they cannot hear. Descriptions of the sound and mouth position can help the learners to increase their awareness of sound differences.

e.g. You have to explain the articulation of the sounds /t/ and /d/. Tell the pupils to spread their lips, place the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge (in the region immediately behind the teeth), and repeat after you.

Many ELT teachers are confused when it comes to teaching pronunciation to young learners, especially when it is the learners' first experience with English. Often, young learners have just begun to read, write, and spell in their mother tongue, and they are starting to discover the sound-spelling relationships that exist in their own language. Most methodologists consider that sound-spelling relationships are more effectively learned through **explicit phonics lessons** as well as interactions between the teacher and students. This is very efficient both, in the first language classroom and in the second language classroom.

The **Phonics Approach**³, a beginning reading approach based on phonics, teaches children to recognize letters and their sounds. Children are first introduced to single sounds at the beginning of words (**b/p**) through recognition activities (such as matching initial letters and objects) and then go on to blends (**st/tr**), clusters (**str**), digraphs (**sh/th**) and final letters in words (**book**). By learning phonics, young learners are learning to decode (read) and code (write) language. The close relationship that exists between pronunciation, reading, and writing suggests that:

- Young learners benefit from a **visual context** to increase comprehension of meaning when hearing and decoding new words. Teachers should be careful to choose **high frequency vocabulary** (e.g.,

¹ Crystal, David, (1999). The Penguin Dictionary of Language, second edition, Penguin Books, p. 109.

² Doff Adrian, (2002) *Teach English, A Training Course for Teachers*, Cambridge University Press, p113

³ Kaye Wiley and Gary Apple, *Newcomer Phonics Teacher's Guide*, Longman

when studying the short vowel / æ /, words such as *Dad*, *nap*, and *cat* have a higher frequency and are more useful to learn than say, *pack*, *sap*, and *flat*).

- in order to make decoding easy, it is important to start with the most frequent, **highly regular sound-spelling relationships**, (e.g., *no*, *stop*, *go*, *sweet*) without however neglecting high frequency irregular words, such as *who* and *has*.

In Moldova pupils start learning English in the 2nd form, and during the planning stage, the teachers have to consider what and how to teach, using both the native and the target languages. This process should be as natural as possible. Teachers, mainly beginners, ask themselves how to introduce a new sound correctly. Although there is no need to introduce all the sounds, as pupils can imitate them individually, there are some which should be properly explained and trained. Methodologists have suggested many techniques, but the one described in G. Rogova's "Methods of Teaching English" seems very efficient.¹ "The following procedure in teaching pronunciation should be observed:

Pupils hear a sentence then they hear a word or words in which a new sound or new sounds occur and, finally, they hear a sound and the teacher's explanation how to produce it."

Teacher's Work	Pupils' Work
<i>Stage I.</i> The teacher pronounces a sentence. E.g. <i>It is the first of May</i> "	<i>Stage I.</i> Pupils pronounce the sound /3:/
<i>Stage II.</i> The teacher pronounces the word ' first '	<i>Stage II.</i> Pupils pronounce the word ' first '
<i>Stage III.</i> The teacher pronounces the sound /3:/	<i>Stage III.</i> Pupils pronounce the sentence ' <i>It is the first of May</i> '
<i>Stage IV</i> The teacher explains the articulation of the new sound	

The pupils need to practice new sounds/words/sentences a lot, until they are articulated and pronounced correctly. They should first repeat them in chorus, after that individually, and in chorus again. It is very effective, mainly while working with beginners, to practice the 'gymnastics of the tongue and lips'. It helps the learners train and better-retain the position of lips (e.g. spread your lips) and the tongue.

In order to train sounds teachers use numerous phonetic exercises, Nursery Rhymes and Tongue Twisters. They can also be trained at the beginning of every lesson during the '*phonetic drill*'. The following examples could be used in the class.

Phonetic Exercises:

ʊ _ u: _ ʊə

aɪ _ eɪ

ɪ _ ə _ eɪ

ɪə _ ʊə

æ - ʌ - ɑ:

aʊə _ aʊ

Nursery Rhymes:

1. Daffy Down Dilly
Has come to town
In a yellow petticoat
And a green gown.
2. Rain, rain, go away,
Come again another day.
Little Johnny wants to play;
Rain, rain, go to Spain,
Never show your face again!

To find more rhymes visit the sites:

¹ Rogova, G. "Methods of Teaching English", 1983, p.120-121

<http://www.rhymes.org.uk/>
<http://www.smart-central.com>
<http://www.indianchild.com/nursery%20rhymes.htm>
<http://www.nurseryrhymes.org/nursery-rhymes.html>

Tongue Twisters

- I saw Susie sitting in a shoe shine shop.
Where she sits she shines, and where she shines she sits.
- How can a clam cram in a clean cream can?
- The thirty-three thieves thought that they thrilled the throne throughout Thursday
- Can you can a can as a canner can can a can?
- Roberta ran rings around the Roman ruins

Visit the following sites to find rich collections of tongue twisters.

<http://www.uebersetzung.at/twister/en.htm> http://www.indianchild.com/tongue_twister_poems.htm
http://www.indianchild.com/tongue_twisters.htm

Teaching pronunciation should be combined with other activities. Teachers should practice separate training of certain sounds, but that should have a practical value and the students have to be aware of that. It is perfect if the teacher manages to raise her/his pupils' awareness of the communicative value of intonation and placement of emphatic and contrastive stress within sentences. They should be encouraged to experiment with phrases to see how the meaning changes with different patterns of intonation and emphasis.

How to correct mistakes

English teachers try to do their best improve their pupils' pronunciation, and there are numerous techniques of correcting pupils' pronunciation mistakes. For instance, while teaching a dialogue English teachers could consider the following strategy.

Step 1: When noticing that a pupil has difficulty producing a particular word, the teacher must stop and isolate the word.

e.g. Teacher: The weather is fine today
Pupils: The _____ is fine today

Step 2: The teacher pronounces the word and asks the class to repeat it.

e.g. Teacher: The weather
Pupils: The wea_____

Step 3: If the word is mispronounced again the teacher isolates the syllable in which the mistake is made.

e.g. Teacher: /ðə/
Pupils: /ðə/

Step 4: The teacher pronounces the syllable several times and the pupils repeat it until they do it automatically without any effort.

e.g. Teacher: /ðə/
Pupils: /ðə/

Step 5: The teacher adds additional syllables [one at a time] until the pupils are able to pronounce the word without difficulty.

e.g. Teacher: / wɛ-ðə /
Pupils: / wɛ-ðə /

Step 6: The teacher pronounces the sentence again and the pupils repeat it several times until they can say the word in context.

e.g. Teacher: The weather is fine today
Pupils: The weather is fine today

Step 7: The teacher asks the pupils who made the mistake to repeat sentence.

Pronunciation should be permanently trained and improved.

Teachers' role in teaching good pronunciation is really essential; as they should make sure their pupils have got a 'comprehensible accent'.

Recommended Readings:

1. P.Hubbard, H. Jones , A Training Course for TEFL(The teaching of Pronunciation), p.207-241, Oxford University Press, 1994
2. D. Jones, Everyman's English Pronouncing Dictionary
3. N. Ursachi, 2004, Teaching 'th' Pronunciation, in the book book "*Language Development and Teaching*", *Materials of the International Conference*, Balti, p.38-40
4. D.Chitoran, Ghid de Pronuntie a Limbii Engleze, Bucuresti, 1989

Questions for Discussion:

1. Why is pronunciation an important aspect of language learning?
2. Do you consider the use of phonetic symbols useful in teaching English? Give reasons.
3. Can you name the areas worth considering while teaching pronunciation? Prove your point of view.
4. Which are the main problems pupils encounter while learning English pronunciation? Provide solutions.

Pair-work

Prepare a set of phonetic symbols to be used in the process of teaching English sounds. [As a model use *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*]

Project work

Suggest activities how to teach:

1. Sound discrimination
2. Stress
3. Intonation

Lecture # 6

Developing Speaking Skills

Goals:

- To make future teachers aware of new tendencies in teaching speaking.
- To make them realize the importance of real communication.
- To familiarize future teachers with correcting errors strategies.

Plan

1. Goals and Trends in Teaching Speaking
2. Strategies for Developing Speaking Skills
3. Developing Speaking Activities

I. Goals and Trends in Teaching Speaking

Speaking is the main goal of almost all language learners, and they regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. They define fluency as the ability to communicate with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language, and regard speaking as the most important skill they can acquire. People are expected to produce speech that has a logical flow and in most of the cases they have no time for planning or rehearsal). In addition to this, as most talk is constructed between two or more participants, participants in a conversation have to pay attention to what the other says in order to make a response that makes sense in relation to what was said before. It is known that “speaking exists in two forms: dialogue and monologue.¹ Communicative competence is a concept introduced by Dell Hymes² and discussed and redefined by many authors. Hymes' original idea was that speakers of a language should have more than grammatical competence in order to be able communicate effectively in a language; they also need to know how language is used by members of a speech community to accomplish their purposes. Language learners need to recognize that speaking involves three areas of knowledge:

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

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

Language input comes in the form of teacher talk, listening activities, reading passages, and the language heard and read outside of class. It gives learners the material they need to begin producing language themselves. In its turn language input may be *content* oriented or *form* oriented.

- *Content-oriented* input focuses on information, whether it is a simple weather report or an extended lecture on an academic topic. Content-oriented input may also include descriptions of learning strategies and examples of their use.
- *Form-oriented* input focuses on ways of using the language: guidance from the teacher or another source on vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar (linguistic competence); appropriate things to say in specific contexts (discourse competence); expectations for rate of speech, pause length, turn-taking, and other social aspects of language use (sociolinguistic competence); and explicit instruction in phrases to use to ask for clarification and repair miscommunication (strategic competence).

¹ Rogova G, 1983, Methods of Teaching English, Prosv; p.168

² Hymes, D. (1972), On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride and J. Holmes(Eds.), Sociolinguistics, Harmondsworth: Penguin Books

In the presentation part of a lesson, an instructor combines content-oriented and form-oriented input. The amount of input that is actually provided in the target language depends on students' listening proficiency and also on the situation. For students at lower levels, or in situations where a quick explanation on a grammar topic is needed, an explanation in English may be more appropriate than one in the target language.

Structured output focuses on correct form. In structured output, students may have options for responses, but all of the options require them to use the specific form or structure that the teacher has just introduced. Structured output is designed to make learners comfortable producing specific language items recently introduced, sometimes in combination with previously learned items. Instructors often use structured output exercises as a transition between the presentation stage and the practice stage of a lesson plan. Textbook exercises also often make good structured output practice activities.

In *communicative output*, the learners' main purpose is to complete a task, such as obtaining information, developing a travel plan, or creating a video. To complete the task, they may use the language that the instructor has just presented, but they also may draw on any other vocabulary, grammar, and communication strategies that they know. In communicative output activities, the criterion of success is whether the learner gets the message across. **Accuracy is not a consideration unless the lack of it interferes with the message.**

“In order to get a better understanding of what speech is we are to consider the structure of oral language activity, the psychological and linguistic characters of speech.[...] Here follow the four psychological factors to be taken into account when teaching speech.

1. ***Speech must be motivated***... Teachers should ensure conditions in which a pupil will have a desire to say something in a foreign language, to express his thoughts, his feelings, and not to reproduce someone else's as is the case when he learns the text by heart... Oral speech in the classroom should be always stimulated.
2. ***Speech is always addressed to an interlocutor***... Teachers should organize the teaching process in a way which allows pupils to speak to someone... The speaker will hold his audience when he says something new, something individual. Teachers must try to supply pupils with assignments, which require individual approach on their part.
3. ***Speech is always emotionally coloured***... pupils should be taught to use intonational means to express their attitude, and feelings about what they say. This can be done by giving such tasks as: *reason why you like sth., prove sth., give your opinion on sth., etc.*
4. ***Speech is always situational***... While teaching speaking real and close-to-real situations should be created to stimulate pupils' speech.”¹

II. Strategies for Developing Speaking Skills

Students often think that the ability to speak a language is the product of language learning, but speaking is also a crucial part of the language learning process. Unfortunately, speaking lessons often tie in pronunciation and grammar, which are important aspects for effective oral communication. Or a grammar or reading lesson may incorporate a speaking activity. Either way, students will need some preparation before the speaking task. This includes introducing the topic and providing a model of the speech they are to produce. Then the students will practice with the actual speaking activity. The content of communicative situations should be practical and usable in *real-life situations*. Teachers must avoid too much new vocabulary or grammar, focus on speaking with the language the students have, and they should consider the following issues:

“a) **Quantity vs. Quality:** Address both interactive fluency and accuracy, striving foremost for communication. Get to know each learner's personality and encourage the quieter ones to take more risks.

b) **Conversation Strategies:** Encourage strategies like asking for clarification, paraphrasing, gestures, and initiating ('hey,' 'so,' 'by the way').

c) **Teacher Intervention:** If a speaking activity loses steam, you may need to jump into a role-play, ask more discussion questions, clarify your instructions, or stop an activity that is too difficult or boring”

¹ Based on Rogova G, 1983, *Methods of Teaching English*, Prosv; p.174-176

The best way to practise speaking is to encourage and guide them to speak as much as possible on various topics, and in different situations. It is rather difficult to train beginners, because “speech is a process of communication by means of language. For example, (1) a pupil tells the class a story about something which once happened to him; (2) the teacher asks questions on the story related by the pupils at home and starts a discussion; (3) pupils speak on the pictures suggested by the teacher, each tries to say what others have not mentioned; etc.[...] Oral exercises are mostly drill exercises ... For example, reciting a rhyme or a poem is considered to be an excellent oral exercise for drilling pronunciation and for developing speech habits. Making up sentences following the model is an excellent oral exercise for fixing a sentence pattern and words which fit the pattern in the pupils’ mind... Oral exercises are quite indispensable to developing speech. However, they only prepare pupils for speaking and cannot be considered to be ‘speech’ ...”¹ The above-mentioned activities can help beginners improve their speaking skills.

A very good and efficient way to train speaking is to teach and encourage students to think in English. That could be on their way to or from the University, while cooking or having meals, in the process of planning the day, etc. This technique helps students “practise” various language structures without feeling embarrassed of making mistakes, and being mocked by colleagues. Ask your students to think in English, and in case they cannot remember the English variant of some words/word-combinations/expressions, etc., encourage them to think that “structure” in their native language, and to check it up later in a dictionary, textbook, or ask colleagues or teachers.

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

Some communication situations are associated with a predictable set of spoken exchanges - a model. Greetings, apologies, compliments, invitations, and other functions that are influenced by social and cultural norms often follow various patterns. So teachers should design such activities as *obtaining information* and *making a purchase*, *asking the way*, where the relationship between a speaker's turn and the one that follows can often be anticipated. That will facilitate speaking, esp. for weak students. In such a way English teachers can help their students develop speaking ability by making them aware of the samples for different situations so that they can predict what they will hear and what they will need to say in response. Through interactive activities, instructors can give students practice in managing and varying the language that different scripts contain. Experienced teachers have rich collections of various sample dialogues on different topics.

Language learners are often too embarrassed or shy to say anything when they do not understand another speaker or when they realize that a conversation partner has not understood them. Instructors can help students overcome this reticence by assuring them that misunderstanding and the need for clarification can occur in any type of interaction, whatever the participants' language skill levels. Instructors can also give students strategies and phrases to use for clarification and comprehension check.²

Grice’s Maxims In 1975, the philosopher of language H.P.Grice published a seminal article entitled "The Co-operative Principle" that created quite a stir on the linguistic scene and generated a large number of linguistic publications that built on Grice's postulates. The basic assumption is that any discourse, whether written or spoken, is a joint effort. Both the speaker and the addressee have to follow certain pragmatic, syntactic, and semantic rules in order to communicate effectively. They have to co-operate. Grice's Co-operative Principle consists of several maxims that appear very simple, straightforward, and common-sensical at first sight

Grice's Maxims read as follows:

1. Maxim of Quantity

a) Make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the

¹ Ibid. p.173-175

² Lynch T., Anderson K. 1992, Study Speaking, CUP

exchange.

b) Do not make your contribution more informative than is required. This maxim means that the speaker has to include all the information that the addressee requires to understand. If the speaker leaves out a crucial piece of information, the addressee will not understand what the speaker is trying to say. This means that the speaker has to use all the means in order to create a clear and complete image in the listener's mind of what he is trying to accomplish at the moment.

2. Maxim of Quality

a) Do not say what you believe to be false.

b) Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

The meaning of this maxim is that the speaker should avoid including unnecessary, redundant information in his contribution. If the speaker says nothing new or informative, the addressee will lose interest in the discourse very quickly and stop paying attention.

3. Maxim of Relevance

Be relevant (i.e., say things related to the current topic of the conversation).

Relevance is an extremely important principle in linguistics, and entire books have been written just on the role of relevance in language. In the context of H.P. Grice's Co-operative principle, the demand for relevance simply means that the speaker should only include information in his communication that is relevant to the discourse topic

4. Maxim of Manner

a) Avoid obscurity of expression

b) Avoid ambiguity

c) Be brief (avoid unnecessary wordiness)

d) Be orderly

When one tries to be *as clear, as brief, and as orderly as one can* in what one says, and where one avoids obscurity and ambiguity.

"In short these maxims specify what the participants have to do in order to converse in a maximally efficient, rational, co-operative way: they should speak sincerely, relevantly and clearly whilst providing sufficient information."¹ It should be made very clear here that the breaking of any of the *maxims* of the *cooperative principle* does not mean that there is invariably a total breakdown of communication. Following these rules should result in good communication. However, sometimes it can be difficult to follow Grice's Maxims, because it may be unclear what is informative, what is relevant, and even what the truth is. Those uncertainties may lead someone to speak inappropriately.

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

1. The use of incomplete sentences (ellipses) in responses...
2. The use of contracted forms: doesn't, aren't...
3. The use of some abbreviations....
4. The use of conversational tags...
5. Besides to carry on conversation pupils need words, phrases to start a conversation, to join it, to confirm...e.g. *well, look here, I say...*"²

III. Developing Speaking Activities

"There are two forms of speaking: monologue and dialogue[...] In teaching monologue we can easily distinguish three stages according to the levels which constitute the ability to speak: 1. the statement level; 2. the utterance level; 3. the discourse level.

No speech is possible until pupils learn how to make up sentences in the foreign language and how to make statements.[...] Pupils are taught how to use different sentence patterns in an utterance about an object, a subject offered. First they are to follow a model, then they do it without any help.[...] After pupils have learnt how to say a few sentences in connection with a situation they are prepared for speaking at discourse level. Free speech is possible provided pupils have acquired habits and skills in

¹ <http://www.les.aston.ac.uk/lsu/diss/abest-ch3.html>

² Based on Rogova G, 1983, *Methods of Teaching English*, Prosv; p.177-178

making statements and in combining them in a logical sequence.[...] The three levels in developing pupils' speaking should take place throughout the whole course of instruction, i.e., in junior, intermediate, and senior forms.”¹

“Traditional classroom speaking practice often takes the form of drills in which one person asks a question and another gives an answer. The question and the answer are structured and predictable, and often there is only one correct, predetermined answer. The purpose of asking and answering the question is to demonstrate the ability to ask and answer the question.

As it has been mentioned, the purpose of real communication is to accomplish a task, such as conveying a telephone message, obtaining information, or expressing an opinion. In real communication, participants must manage uncertainty about what the other person will say. Authentic communication involves an information gap; each participant has information that the other does not have. In addition, to achieve their purpose, participants may have to clarify their meaning or ask for confirmation of their own understanding. All the participants in a conversation or discussion need to listen carefully to hear the potential gap in the talk to take the next turn. Missing the gaps gives rise to interruptions or lapses in the conversation - both undesirable. 'Ums' and 'errs' often act as a device to hold the floor while we summon up the ideas/words to take the turn and is therefore a natural feature of speaking. Too many 'ums' and 'errs' and over-long pauses are, however, tiresome on the listener and will usually result in the hesitant speaker losing their turn to someone else present or simply in the conversation being abandoned.

A competent speaker will “include the logical structure of an utterance, clarity and fluency, use of visual aids, non-verbal communication, etc. His/her interlocutor, who is not so competent will try to enter in a discussion (eye-contact with the speaker, fillers – “er”, “um”), indicating non-comprehension, questioning, asking for clarification, etc.

It will be valuable to provide prompts – posters with the most common language needed to enter / participate in a discussion, such as:

- ... *ah yes, and / but...*
- *Excuse me!*
- *Can I just come in at this point?*
- *Can I just make a comment about that?*
- *Just in this regard I was wondering...*”²

There are cases when giving a mini-presentation, the speaker is “required to take a longer than usual turn. To help the listener(s), words or phrases sometimes referred to as 'discourse markers' are used to organize this larger than usual chunk of talk. For example, 'Firstly,..... Secondly....., Thenand finally...'. These help break down the chunk and signal to the listener that a new piece of information is coming or that the end of the turn is coming”.

It is perfect if the students are aware of the importance of *responding* and *initiating* during a communicative act. Most reasons to talk require both participants to take an active role in terms of initiating a new idea or sub-topic as well as responding. Skill and knowledge is required in both identifying the appropriate place to do so and in knowing words and phrases that signal a change in direction of the conversation, for example 'And what do you think about XXX?' or 'By the way....'. as well as having the confidence and ideas with which to do this. Without this ability the talk can sound one-sided or may actually fail in its purpose (e.g. *making arrangements to meet for coffee*). Materials and activities used in the conversational class should be relevant and varied to enable a combination of skill getting and skill using activities. “It is important to design activities with information gaps or jigsaw features which involve sharing of information. They create a real 'need' to communicate, but also activate useful language skills for negotiating meaning, asking and giving opinions. If we remind students of this, activities have the dual purpose of developing language learning and developing speaking skills: conversational strategies such as paraphrasing, circumlocution, as well as giving practice in openings, turn taking, interrupting. Communication games such as: *describe and draw, find the difference* can develop these skills as well as adding fun to the learning situation. Sequencing

¹ Ibid.

² Jordan R, 1997, English for Academic Purposes, CUP

communicative tasks systematically, building on what students know to extend their repertoire gradually, is also important for learning to be effective.”¹

For beginners teachers often use the so called ‘non-communicative’ activities. They are more accuracy oriented. For example:

- ✓ Mechanic drills- when language is practiced in a controlled way.
- ✓ Choral drills- when a model is given.
- ✓ Individual drills with feedback.
- ✓ Substitution drills- when the pupils use another word of the same class instead of the underlined one.
- ✓ Transformation drills- when pupils have to change from affirmative to negative, etc
- ✓ Reduction drills- shortening a sentence / part of a phrase, etc.
- ✓ Integration drills- joining 2 short sentences to make one.
- ✓ Contextualised (meaningful) drills help learners to increase their motivation.

There are numerous speaking activities. Below are presented some of them (based on Stanisoara’s book Interactive English):

1. Reading a text.
2. Doing a pattern drill.
3. Telling a joke provided by the book or teacher.
4. Practicing a dialogue from the book.
5. Doing a matching exercise.
6. A grammar exercise.
7. Completing sentences.
8. Doing a minimal pair pronunciation exercise.
9. Identify/locating functional usage, e. g. Why don’t you...?
10. Doing a Jazz Chants
11. Reciting a poem.
12. Singing a song.
13. Describing a picture.
14. Brainstorming about the topic (contextualising)
15. Making a list.
16. Describing a picture to identify differences.
17. Choosing from a range of functional language: e. g. –I am thirsty. – So.....
18. Playing a language game.
19. Relating the events of a story or extract.
20. Telling a picture story.
21. Preparing a dialogue from a model and practicing it.
22. Choosing from a list.(e.g. survival game)
23. Doing a role play.
24. Information gap exercises.
25. Situational role play when learners are asked to imagine themselves in a real-life situation.
26. Telling a joke of own choice.
27. A problem-solving exercise.
28. A simulation (with roles designated by information on cards)
29. Discussion of a topic/feedback to teacher or on flipcharts.
30. Talking about a favourite book/film/play/game, etc.
31. Giving a talk.
32. Songs and mime.
33. Dramatizing texts.
34. Puppet theatre.
35. Interviews.
36. Problem-solving activities.

¹ http://www.developingteachers.com/articles_tchtraining/speaking_sandra2.htm

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

- **Prepare carefully:** Introduce the activity by describing the situation and making sure that all of the students understand it
- **Set a goal or outcome:** Be sure the students understand what the product of the role play should be, whether a plan, a schedule, a group opinion, or some other product
- **Use role cards:** Give each student a card that describes the person or role to be played. For lower-level students, the cards can include words or expressions that that person might use.
- **Brainstorm:** Before you start the role play, have students brainstorm as a class to predict what vocabulary, grammar, and idiomatic expressions they might use.
- **Keep groups small:** Less-confident students will feel more able to participate if they do not have to compete with many voices.
- **Give students time to prepare:** Let them work individually to outline their ideas and the language they will need to express them.
- **Be present as a resource, not a monitor:** Stay in communicative mode to answer students' questions. Do not correct their pronunciation or grammar unless they specifically ask you about it.
- **Allow students to work at their own levels:** Each student has individual language skills, an individual approach to working in groups, and a specific role to play in the activity. Do not expect all students to contribute equally to the discussion, or to use every grammar point you have taught.
- **Do topical follow-up:** Have students report to the class on the outcome of their role plays.
- **Do linguistic follow-up:** After the role play is over, give feedback on grammar or pronunciation problems you have heard. This can wait until another class period when you plan to review pronunciation or grammar anyway.

Discussions, like role plays, are successful when the instructor prepares students first, and then gets out of the way. To succeed with discussions:

- **Prepare the students:** Give them input (both topical information and language forms) so that they will have something to say and the language with which to say it.
- **Offer choices:** Let students suggest the topic for discussion or choose from several options. Discussion does not always have to be about serious issues. Students are likely to be more motivated to participate if the topic is television programs, plans for a vacation, or news about mutual friends. Weighty topics like how to combat pollution are not as engaging and place heavy demands on students' linguistic competence.
- **Set a goal or outcome:** This can be a group product, such as a letter to the editor, or individual reports on the views of others in the group.
- **Use small groups instead of whole-class discussion:** Large groups can make participation difficult.
- **Keep it short:** Give students a defined period of time, not more than 8-10 minutes, for discussion. Allow them to stop sooner if they run out of things to say.
- **Allow students to participate in their own way:** Not every student will feel comfortable talking about every topic. Do not expect all of them to contribute equally to the conversation.
- **Do topical follow-up:** Have students report to the class on the results of their discussion.
- **Do linguistic follow-up:** After the discussion is over, give feedback on grammar or pronunciation problems you have heard. This can wait until another class period when you plan to review pronunciation or grammar anyway.”¹

How are speaking skills assessed?

¹ Based on- <http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/speaking/developspeak.htm>

As a rule “two methods are used for assessing speaking skills. In the *observational* approach, the student's behavior is observed and assessed unobtrusively. In the **structured** approach, the student is asked to perform one or more specific oral communication tasks. His or her performance on the task is then evaluated. The task can be administered in a one-on-one setting -- with the test administrator and one student -- or in a group or class setting. In either setting, students should feel that they are communicating meaningful content to a real audience. Tasks should focus on topics that all students can easily talk about, or, if they do not include such a focus, students should be given an opportunity to collect information on the topic.”¹

Teachers often ask themselves when and how to correct spoken mistakes. It requires discretion and skill. Mistakes should be corrected **immediately** when teachers want to ensure accuracy, or when fluency is not the key factor. In this case make sure that students do repeat the corrected form. It is not enough for the teacher to correct - students must repeat the correct form orally and practise it. This usually occurs when presenting the language. Teachers can show that an error has been made by giving a surprised look. Sometimes simply shaking their head is enough to indicate a mistake. Error correction may be **delayed** as well. Teachers could wait until the student has finished speaking but return quickly to the error to ensure correct usage. In such cases teachers are advised to take notes and choose an appropriate time to correct. But there are cases when error correction can be delayed for a longer period of time. Sometimes the activity is so interesting that the dynamics are more important than accuracy. If teachers feel that correction will take away from the energy of the event, then s/he should be subtle and incorporate the corrections in tests, games or warm-ups without stressing where the mistakes came from.

Here are some tips to follow:

1. Get your class to repeat the correct form of a structure.
2. Isolate the problem. If most of the class is making the same mistakes, then you may need to go back, clarify and repeat what you have taught.
3. Be positive and patient. Rather than viewing mistakes as a failure of your teaching ability, see them as helpful signposts where more attention needs to be put.
4. Use pair-work. Let students resolve problems for themselves.

Recommended Readings:

1. P. Watcyn-Jones, Top Class Activities
2. J. Willis, Teaching English through English,
3. J. Harmer, The Practice of ELT, Longman, p.122-153

Questions for Discussion:

1. Can you name the problems students may have with speaking in a foreign language?
2. What types of speaking activities are most beneficial? Why?
3. What is the importance of ‘communicative’ activities for language learning?

Pair-work

Discuss with your partner ways of assessing speaking and correcting speaking mistakes.

Project work

Develop several speech drill activities.

¹ http://www.ericfacility.net/databases/ERIC_Digests/ed263626.html

Lecture # 7

Teaching Vocabulary

Goals:

- To establish the importance of teaching new vocabulary
- To introduce basic techniques for presenting new words
- To train future teachers in elaborating different activities

Plan

4. On vocabulary acquisition- views and trends.
5. Practical Approach to Vocabulary Acquisition.

I. On vocabulary acquisition- views and trends.

In order to be able to communicate in English the learners must possess a great command of the language being able to operate with words, i.e. to have a rich vocabulary. It seems almost impossible to overstate the power of words. The ability to function in today's complex world is affected by our language skills and word knowledge. The importance of vocabulary knowledge has long been recognized, as learning vocabulary is basic to the learning of a foreign language. "Language is subconsciously acquired - while you are acquiring, you don't know you are acquiring; your conscious focus is on the message, not form" (Krashen, 1989, p. 440).¹ Vocabulary is not an exception, as it is basic to communication, and often seen as the greatest source of problems by learners of a foreign language. The more extensive a person's active vocabulary is, the more educated s/he is considered. Perhaps that is why language learners are inclined to enrich their active and passive vocabulary. Expanding vocabulary is extremely important for FL learners, as they often do not have the possibility to live in a FL environment, thus having the opportunity to enrich their vocabulary naturally, i.e. listening how native speakers use words, in what context or meaning. Vocabulary is beginning to play an increased role. "Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed."² English language teachers are aware that the beginning stages of language communication are better served by vocabulary than grammar.

The acquisition of vocabulary is necessary for effective language acquiring because, without it, learners are not able to use the studied structures and functions. Now most learners of a FL require vocabulary specific to certain fields or topics. These factors, together with others, have contributed to the view that vocabulary is of increasing importance in the classroom, at all stages of learning, including the earliest. Lewis considers: "Vocabulary teaching has rarely been systematic. Frequently it is assumed, either explicitly or more covertly, that students will 'pick up' the necessary vocabulary by reading, and while concentrating on the serious business of mastering the grammatical system. Formal vocabulary teaching has tended to be either random, in response to a particular student question for a particular word or based on formal presentation of the words associated with a particular topic or field. A lexical approach requires a much more principled system of introducing and exploiting lexis, and even simple vocabulary, in the classroom."³

Competent speakers of the language know the lexis of a language- although that knowledge will vary depending, for example on their education and occupation.[...] Competent speakers of a language follow what is happening to their language and how words change their meaning- and sometimes cross grammatical borders.[...]They know what words mean both literally and metaphorically. They know how words operate grammatically and they are sensitive to changes in word value. Without this lexical knowledge they would be not able to use the grammar to generate sentences with meaning.⁴ English speakers not only know words, they know word-forming elements, etc. Students acquiring English must learn the lexis of the English language, how it is used and what it means. Teachers should do their best to drill and introduce to students vocabulary needed for their level, and the words should be trained in sentences, i.e. in context, and real-life situations.

¹ Krashen, SD 1989, *We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the Input Hypothesis*. The Modern Language Journal, 73, 440-464.

² Wilkins, P. 1972. *Linguistics and language teaching*. London: Edward Arnold: p.111

³ Lewis, M. (1993) *The lexical approach*. LTP. p.117

⁴ Harmer, *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, Longman, 1995, p.14

‘Word knowledge is an essential component of communicative competence, and it is important for production and comprehension in a second language’¹ (Coady & Huckin, 1997). According to J. Harmer knowledge of a word implies:

W o r d s	MEANING	Meaning in context
		Sense relations
	WORD USE	Metaphor and idiom
		Collocation
		Style and register
	WORD INFORMATION	Parts of speech
		Prefixes and suffixes
		Spelling and pronunciation
	WORD GRAMMAR	Nouns: countable, uncountable, etc
		Verb complementation, phrasal verbs, etc.
		Adjectives and adverbs: position, etc.

”Vocabulary knowledge is the size of the vocabulary and the depth of vocabulary, which includes knowledge of pronunciation, spelling, multiple meanings, the contexts in which the word can be used, the frequency with which it is used, morphological and syntactical properties, and how the word combines with other words”²

Foreign students should first concentrate on high frequency vocabulary. Once these words are adequately understood, students are ready to learn and apply word attack strategies in order to unlock the meaning of unknown, less frequently occurring words. The "golden rule of sensory-motor learning is much repetition"³ - the more patterns are repeated, the more frequent they are, the better they are acquired.

Reading creates a perfect setting for the implicit gaining of orthography, as well as guessing the meanings of words from contexts. The vocabulary should be selected very carefully by teachers. “The words selected should be:

- ✓ Frequently used in the language
- ✓ Easily combined (nice room, nice girl)
- ✓ Unlimited from the point of view style (oral, written)
- ✓ Included in the topics the syllabus sets
- ✓ Valuable from the point of view of word-building (use, used, useful, useless,)⁴

II. Practical Approach to Vocabulary Acquisition

Methodologists and FL teachers permanently try to optimize vocabulary training. Numerous technologies and strategies have been developed. As vocabulary is the basis supporting academic language proficiency, methodologists recognize the critical importance of vocabulary learning, thus debating the best methods for teaching vocabulary. Learners need a balanced approach to vocabulary teaching that involves the expansion of sight vocabulary, meaning vocabulary, phonetic analysis, structural analysis, and contextual analysis. Understanding new vocabulary is important to the understanding of the language. First of all the learners have to acquire high-priority lexis, which must be selected and included into learning materials and class activities.

There are some of the guiding principles of teaching vocabulary.

37. Pre-teach key words to improve comprehension.
38. Provide more than definitions.
39. Combine definitions and contextual examples.
40. Minimize rote copying of definitions.

¹ Coady, J. (1997). *L2 Vocabulary acquisition a synthesis of the research*. In M. H. Long & J. C. Richards (Series Eds.) & J. Coady & T. Huckin (Vol. Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition*. The Cambridge applied linguistics series. (pp. 273-290). New York: Cambridge University Press

² Qian, D.D. (1999). *Assessing the roles of depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge*. Canadian Modern Language Review, 56, 282-307

³ Seibert, LC 1927, *An experiment in learning French vocabulary*. Journal of Educational Psychology, 18, p. 294-309

⁴ Rogova, G. (1983), *Methods of Teaching English*, p.132

41. Introduce new words in related clusters.

42. Provide brief, periodic review.

According to G. Rogova while teaching vocabulary teachers should:

- ✓ Introduce words in sentence patterns in different situations of intercourse. Words should be presented keeping with the structures to be taught.
- ✓ Present the word as an element, i.e., in a sentence pattern first.
- ✓ Fix the new word in the pupils' memory through different exercises in sentence patterns and in phrase patterns
- ✓ Pronounce the new word her/himself in a context
- ✓ Ask pupils to pronounce the word both individually and in unison in a context.
- ✓ Establish a memory bond between new word and those already covered.¹

There are numerous strategies and techniques aiming at enriching learners' vocabulary. As it has been mentioned language units should be learned in context. Such learning is preferable, because acquiring vocabulary is not just memorization of lexical units; they must be integrated into the learners' linguistic repertoire, so that they are immediately available when needed.

Vocabulary usage is not the same as vocabulary knowledge, so it is teacher's responsibility to activate these items in a classroom. A multi-step procedure follows-up:

- 1) Checking comprehension of new vocabulary in context;
- 2) Providing more practice;
- 3) Revision;
- 4) Consolidation.

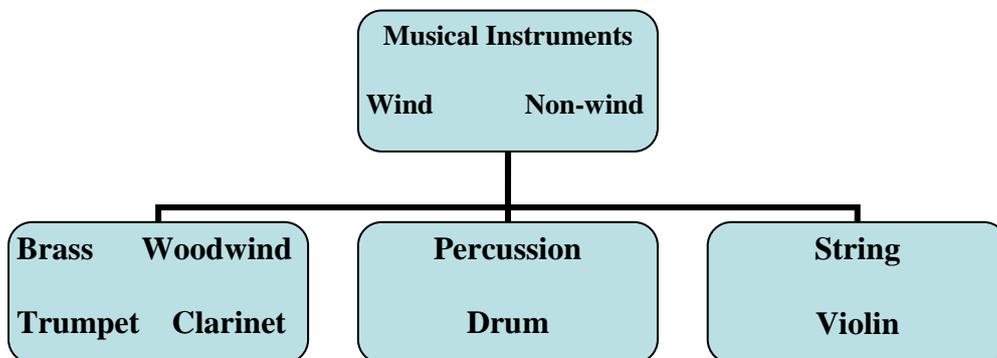
Thus, revision and consolidation must take place after an interval of time. Teachers should instruct learners using all available techniques to develop all 4 language skills. We could identify *visual(graphic) techniques*, *verbal techniques* and *translation* (in fact translation should be the last option). Depending on the learners' level teachers can use some of the following tools:

1. teaching word families
2. matching pairs
3. sorting exercises
4. drawing a picture
5. picture story
6. realia
7. various problem solving tasks
8. values clarification
9. discussion
10. role-play
11. oral presentations (explanation in plain English)
12. writing summaries
13. Word Wall e.g. students write one word/phrase and then read / Say aloud each new word/phrase
14. a series of words related to topic or letter pattern
15. acting out the meaning (mime and gesture)
16. scrabbling, Up words, Boggle...
17. using analogies
18. visualizing
19. dictation
20. Word Games- e.g. Bingo, Alphabet Game
21. suggesting other words they know
22. spelling and recognize patterns
23. defining – use dictionary
24. think pair share
25. contrasts and opposites (synonyms, antonyms)
26. glossary
27. model
28. read-alouds

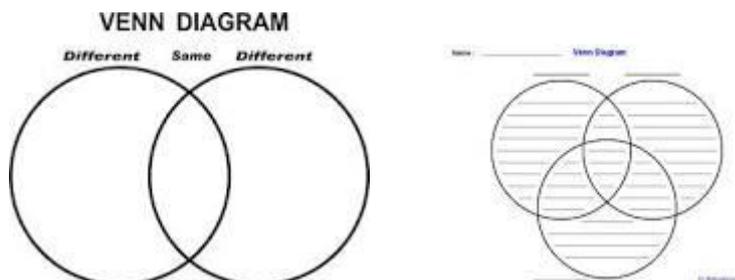
¹ Rogova, G.,(1983), *Methods of Teaching English*, p.134-136

29. semantic feature analysis
30. graphic Organizers
31. List-Group-Label
32. semantic Maps (word webs)
33. Word Lines
34. Word Sorts
35. possible sentences
36. sociograms
37. blends (motel, brunch)
38. acronyms (scuba = self-contained **u**nderwater **b**reathing **a**pparatus)
39. mnemonics (memory tricks that help us recall a fact)
40. magazine cut-outs
41. posters
42. picture cards
43. word cards
44. vocabulary network, etc.

A graphic organizer is a diagram that shows how key terms are related. They help kids “see” abstract content; there is little to read; they are easy to construct and discuss; technical terms can be taught in clusters; they enhance recall and understanding, and they have an impressive research base. For example **Tree Diagrams**. In a tree diagram, we deal with clear-cut categories. Concepts lie cleanly on one branch or another. It shows how large concepts can be subdivided into components. They are called trees because they have branches, but in reality they appear to grow upside-down!



Venn Diagrams: In a Venn diagram, however, a concept might fall into more than one category at the same time. Venns are useful for displaying these overlapping classifications. In a Venn diagram, however, a concept might fall into more than one category at the same time. Venns are useful for displaying these overlapping classifications.



Using Etymology Knowledge of the roots helps learners grasp the meaning of words before they look them up in the dictionary. With nearly 50% of the English language being derived from

Latin-based words and many others derived from Greek (Smith, 1995), some English teachers chose etymology as a word-attack strategy which focused primarily on Latin-based vocabulary.¹ The use of etymology is an efficacious word attack strategy regardless of the student's original language background. Though Latin-based students will have an initial advantage due to their vocabulary schema, knowledge gained through direct instruction will ultimately produce relatively equal results. So, at a beginning level those learners of English whose native language is Romanian will have advantages in retaining Latin-based vocabulary. Later the discrepancy will fade away. Etymology does not refer to the study of word origins, but refers to comprehending vocabulary through the knowledge of roots and affixes

Using Dictionaries A very effective strategy in teaching learners to enrich vocabulary is to familiarize them to use dictionaries systematically. At a beginning stage they could use translation dictionaries: English –Romanian/Russian Dictionaries, A Picture Dictionary for Children. Intermediate and Advanced learners are advised to use English-English Dictionaries: Oxford's Advances Learner's Dictionary, Webster's Dictionary, Dictionaries of Synonyms and Antonyms, Phraseological Dictionaries, etc. With the time it becomes a habit that leads to better retention of the vocabulary (spelling, transcription, translation, or extensive definitions, synonyms, antonyms, collocations, etc). This is a natural starting point for encouraging learners to use dictionaries. The dictionary can easily be incorporated into various activities. Learning vocabulary in isolation or from an alphabetical list is unlikely to be successful. It is generally accepted that words are easier to remember if they are learned in related groups, with meaningful links established between them. Although the dictionary is an alphabet list, it can be used as a source for expanding students' vocabulary by providing additional vocabulary which can be linked to familiar words. Some strategies for increasing vocabulary might be:

- Learning the words for parts of a particular item, or learning related vocabulary within a topic often provided by pictures in dictionaries. Usage notes often group words of similar meaning together.
- Learning pairs of opposites, as words commonly come up in the same context as their opposites and it can make sense to learn the pairs together.
- Learning a group of morphologically-related words (such as an abstract noun, verb, concrete noun, adjective and adverb which all have the same stem).
- Learning new meanings of words that are already familiar.

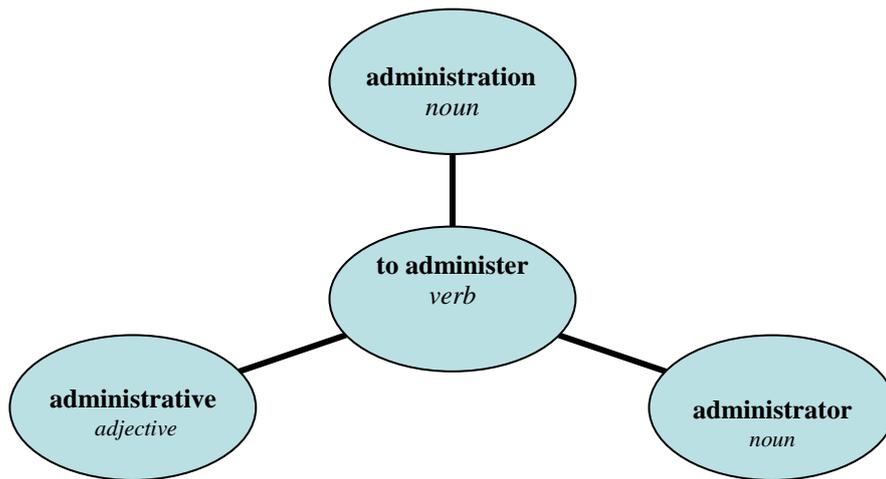
-Guessing and explaining. Before giving the students a text which contains a number of new vocabulary items, teachers could give them a list of the words and a list of definitions for intermediate and advanced learners, and translations for beginners, from the dictionary. Then students are asked to try to match the words with the definitions, or translations, first by guessing from clues such as the part of speech, associations with known words, breaking down words with affixes, etc. Once they have finished, they should check in the dictionary. This activity could be done in pairs, in groups, or individually.

-Gathering material The class is told that the teacher is going to be looking at a text, dialogue, situation on a particular topic and ask them, with the help of their dictionaries, to make a list of 10 words that they think they might find in it.

-Choosing the right word Starting from the very beginning learners feel confused what words to choose, when they seem synonymic; e.g. *request* or *ask for*, *bank* or *coast*, etc. Most learners will prefer a more formal word than is appropriate. To help them avoid such mistakes teachers may wish to bring the dictionary into the discussion and focus on the information it gives about register. Once students realize how it can help them to choose more confidently among the various options, they will be more inclined to make using a dictionary part of their routine for choosing their words.

-Word webs are a good way to encourage learners to build on the knowledge that they already possess, so that when they learn or revise an item of vocabulary, they look in the dictionary for the words that belong to the same word family. For instance, the teacher could draw the web with the parts of speech and the word "*administer*" at the centre and ask the learners to look up in the dictionary to fill the other bubbles.

¹ Smith, E. L. (1995). *Contemporary vocabulary*. (4th ed.). New York: St. Martin's Press



Then ask the students to draw their own diagrams for other words related to the topic of the lesson. If teachers include such activities on a regular basis, the students will get into the habit of looking in their future reading for opportunities to increase their vocabulary in a systematic and practical way.

What's more usual? Teachers could use the following examples and then ask them to look up the words in the left-hand column and match them with the more usual expression.

- | | |
|--------------|---------------|
| 1. interface | a) capability |
| 2. know-how | b) excursion |
| 3. outing | c) piece |
| 4. scrap | d) boundary |

"Match the Definition" Activity

12 words with the roots of SID/SESS, FIN and FER.	Match the twelve definitions below to the vocabulary words on the left.
1. ____ referee	a. - To supply with money or capital; to obtain money or credit for.
2. ____ definition	b. - Approaching without interest or concern; not caring; apathetically; having no bias or preference.
3. ____ resident	c. - To convey or remove from one place, person or position to another.
4. ____ presidency	d. - Meeting for consultation or discussion; a league; convention.
5. ____ unfinished	e. - To bring to a pure state; to purify; to become more elegant or polished.
6. ____ conference	f. - A person who lives or dwells permanently or for a considerable time in a place.
7. ____ refine	g. - The act of making distinct, clear or precise; the formal statement of the meaning of a word.
8. ____ finance	h. - An arbitrator; judge; one to whom something is given or assigned (for a settlement or decision).
9. ____ possess	i. - Not brought to an end; incomplete or unaccomplished; lacking some special surface treatment, as polish or paint.
10. ____ subsid	j. - To have as belonging to oneself (a faculty, quality, etc.); to have as property; to own.
11. ____ indifferently	k. - The office, function or term of the highest administrative office.
12. ____ transfer	l. - To sink to a low or lower level; to become quiet, less active or less violent.

Figurative meanings An interesting way of enriching advanced students' vocabulary is to have them look at the figurative senses of expressions that they may know only in their concrete meanings. A possible approach is to take a group of words and phrases from a particular semantic area, such as those below, and ask the students to find out from their dictionaries in what other ways these expressions can be used.

On the farm

plough something back

sow (*verb*)

take root

blossom (*verb*)

bloom (*verb*)

cross-fertilize

reap

harvest (*noun*)

wither

Around the house

on ice

spice (*noun*)

grill (*verb*)

bake

polish (*verb*)

rusty

embroider

thread (*noun*)

Multiple Meanings: There are so many words in English that have multiple meanings. Sometimes for children and adult learners this can be very confusing. Common words with multiple meanings are: *tied, run, act, step, arm, hand, type*, etc. There are hundreds of them. Multiple meanings can be taught explicitly. Such activities involves students brainstorming the meanings of words that are given by teachers (ones that have multiple meanings), and then locating the words in the text and deciding which meaning makes the most sense. They can do this as a pre-reading activity, discover while they are reading, or do this after they have read.

Use of Realia: One of the best ways to bring words to life is to have an actual, concrete representation of those words is the use of realia. For example the teacher has to introduce vocabulary on the topic "Schooling". It is a good idea to bring into the class some realia connected with the topic to look at and touch. The students could also be asked to bring their own diverse realia related to the topic. This activity is very effective for beginners.

Semantic Maps: Connecting words in relational patterns improves vocabulary comprehension, and relating these patterns to the students' experiences can be done using semantic maps. Semantic maps are diagrams in which a main idea is surrounded by supporting concepts. The concepts are arranged in categorical patterns. The purpose of using a semantic map is to use context clues, the children's background knowledge, and concrete examples to increase their reading vocabulary. In this activity, the teacher may choose a central idea, and will invite the students to build the map by giving related words. This type of graphic organizer is very useful in reinforcing vocabulary. Children may develop their own maps, or they may develop them within small cooperative groups.

Teaching vocabulary using a multisensory approach is also more dynamic, more fun and more effective, for example, than rote memorization of isolated vocabulary words. Enthusiasm and movement, rhythm and music, and activities with visual aids, or realia, can bring about very positive results in vocabulary acquisition. Vocabulary development occurs best through the use of meaningful contexts: dialogues, jokes, short stories, etc. To ensure progress in vocabulary development it is advisable to use contexts with techniques, experiences and opportunities for authentic use. It is also very effective to enrich vocabulary using the following technique: On separate cards students could write down words to be memorized. On the other side they should write the transcription and the translation. For intermediate and advanced learners teaches could advise them instead of translation put down the definition from the dictionary, synonyms, antonyms and some expressions, etc.

While introducing new vocabulary the teacher should:

- ✓ Use new words lots of times in different structures/situations
- ✓ Ensure that s/he defines new words clearly and display good definitions in class
- ✓ Mind spelling particularities (accents, apostrophes, hyphens)
- ✓ Write the transcription of words with a difficult pronunciation
- ✓ Try to explain a word without using too much additional technical or recently learned information
- ✓ Write new words up, represent them visually if possible

- ✓ Make them as real and concrete as possible
- ✓ Relate new lexis to other words - '*it's the opposite of, it looks like, it resembles...*
- ✓ Group with other related key words
- ✓ Recapitulate as much as possible
- ✓ For younger students, recap new words as games, in crosswords or games
- ✓ Link the word across subjects and curriculum areas or lessons.
- ✓ Make students repeat new vocabulary several times in unison and individually
- ✓ Use cassette-recorders for learners to get used to other people's pronunciation
- ✓ Think about the context in which the word is introduced
- ✓ Use pictures, drawings and other materials, etc.

As learners become more proficient in decoding and recognizing newly introduced words, vocabulary acquisition focuses more on meaning than recognition. It is a well-known fact that direct instruction is an important aspect of vocabulary acquisition. In the process of assimilation new vocabulary children try to integrate new words with their prior knowledge. Many teachers stick to the opinion that an important component of vocabulary development is social interactions and interventions in the classroom. Various discussions with intermediate and advanced students can include rich conversations about new words and their meanings. Students can find it motivating to work collaboratively to define new words using creative means, and traditional methods, such as a dictionary or other media sources. Teachers can use modern technologies in introducing and training vocabulary, as an aid to vocabulary development by exploring the abundant opportunities available on the World Wide Web.

Recommended Readings

1. Doff, 2002, *Teaching English. A Training Course for Teachers*, Cambridge University Press, p. 11-22
2. J. Harmer, 1991, *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, Longman, , p. 153-181
3. French Allen, *Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary*, Oxford University Press
4. T. Ciorba, 2004, "*Explicit Vocabulary Building Activities*, International Conference "Language Development and Teaching", May 14-15, Balti, p.63-64.
5. N. Moraras, 2004, *Improving Vocabulary Skills Through Reading*, , International Conference "Language Development and Teaching", May 14-15, Balti, p.69-72
6. G.Rogova,1983, *Methods of Teaching English*, Moscow, p.131-148
7. Wright, Penny Ur, *Five Minute Activities*, A Resource book of short activities, Cambridge University Press

Questions for Discussion:

1. Why is vocabulary knowledge important in FL acquisition?
2. Express your attitude toward translation while introducing new vocabulary.
3. How would you write new vocabulary on the board? Why?
4. What strategies and techniques would you use while introducing new vocabulary?

Pair-work

Work in pairs and name the techniques you would choose for conveying the meaning of the following words: *information, strategy, farm; to cry, beautiful, ugly, turkey, dark-haired child, to take care of someone; quickly, cat, grass*. Design visuals to introduce it.

Project work

Choose a topic, select core vocabulary and design various visual aids (diagrams, scales, Vens, etc)

Lecture # 8

Teaching Grammar

Goals:

- To provide information about the content of teaching grammar
- To familiarise the students with modern approaches, strategies and techniques in teaching Grammar

Plan

1. The role of grammar in learning a foreign language.
2. Difficulties Pupils Have in Assimilating English Grammar.
3. Implicit vs. Explicit Approaches to Teaching Grammar.
4. Developing Grammar Activities and Presenting Grammar.
5. Types of Grammar Exercises and Correcting Errors.

I. The role of grammar in learning a foreign language

I.1. Grammatical competence is an obligatory part of FL acquisition: “*it is the capacity to distinguish and produce the characteristic grammatical structures of a language, as well as to use them effectively in communication*”. However, people often associate grammar with mistakes and accuracy.

“Grammar is central to the teaching and learning of any language. It is also one of the most difficult aspects of language to teach well. Many people, including language teachers, hear the word “grammar” and imagine a fixed set of word forms and rules of usage. They associate “good” grammar with the prestige forms of the language, such as those used in writing and in formal oral presentations, and “bad” or “no” grammar with the language used in everyday conversation or used by speakers of non-prestige forms.”¹

The teaching of grammar has arisen numerous controversies and methodological discussions concerning the teaching of languages. Teaching grammar should encompass language structure or sentence patterns, meaning and use. No one can ignore grammar, as it plays a central role in the acquisition of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and vocabulary to establish communicative tasks. As a rule, acquiring grammar is quite challenging for young learners. To solve this problem it is preferable to use a greater number of activities that will be ‘attractive’ for pupils, so that they can learn grammar without even realising it.

Vizental A. writes in her book *Metodica Predarii Limbii Engleze: Strategies of Teaching and Testing English as a Foreign Language* “what went wrong with traditional teaching was the fact that teachers focused exclusively on vocabulary and grammar and ignored the complex network of skills, the functional capacity of the Language, and the interactive nature of communication. True, in order to be able to communicate in a certain language one must first of all know the language itself. Nevertheless, as shown before, apart from the basic ability to decode and encode meaning, true ‘knowledge of the language’ also requires skills, such as ability to interact with other members of the social group, to negotiate meaning, or use linguistic strategies so as to achieve the desired effect.... The language skills are taught in an integrated way. However, the teaching of language functions cannot replace the teaching of the language itself: for correct and thorough acquisition of the language, the lexical patterns and grammar structures need to be studied and practiced in isolation”.²

In language teaching and learning grammar plays an important part which is often over-emphasized by both teachers and learners. It is also a major influence in syllabus and course-book design, for local point of many classroom activities, a parameter for measuring accuracy and success in the process of language learning and an important part of the examination system in the Republic of Moldova. Grammar normally can provide a methodical framework for language learning and teaching. Sometimes its role is even over-estimated by teachers in their attempt to orientate the pupils to generate only ‘correct’ sentences in English. The disadvantage would be the de-motivation of the learners because of an non-natural exposure to the language, especially with regard to fluency and

¹ Teaching Grammar, (2004) The National Capital Language Resource Center, Washington, DC, retrieved from <http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/grammar/grindex.htm> in March, 2014

² Vizental, A., (2008) *Metodica Predarii limbii Engleze*, Collegium, Polirom, p. 177.

communication, ignoring the learners' preferred style of learning and last but not least inhibition of the learners' progress: they have to learn numerous abstract rules and constantly practice the structural patterns because according to traditional grammar, language is seen only as a system of patterns and structures by a set of restrictive rules to which they have to conform. Nowadays, there is much more to say about grammar teaching and learning, as most teachers consider modern perspectives on grammar acquisition. A good command of English as is envisaged by the school syllabus cannot be ensured without the study of grammar. Pupils need grammar to be able to listen, speak, read, and write in the target language. Learning English grammar for many pupils can be a long, boring process of ever lasting exercises with rules that always seem to have some kind of an exception. Pupils should remember that difficulties in learning English must not *prevent* them from learning the language.

It is evident that all languages are governed by a set of grammatical norms, and accordingly grammar is present in all teaching-learning situations of a foreign language. Even if students find several unknown words in a sentence, good grammar proficiency and knowledge of the structure of the English language will help them to easily understand it. English teachers should manage to explain their students the benefits good knowledge of grammar can bring. The main problem teachers meet is the way in which the grammatical elements of the language should be taught. Either it should be taught through memorizing normative rules, which are then applied to exercises of direct and inverse translation, or using structural exercises or drills which practise a particular structure, but without specific reference to the underlying general rule. Teachers should not limit themselves to presenting a series of grammatical rules without concern for how these are registered and productively assimilated in the student's mind. "However, with an extra focus on communication the teaching of grammar was very often overlooked entirely, the result being that students' communication is very inaccurate. [...] The promotion of communication between students should not be done to the detriment of the quality of this communication, as it is impossible to deny that to be communicatively competent means to speak accurately"¹.

The goal of grammar instruction is to enable students to carry out their communication purposes. This goal has three implications:

1. Students need overt instruction that connects grammar points with larger communication contexts.
2. Students do not need to master every aspect of each grammar point, only those that are relevant to the immediate communication task.
3. Error correction is not always the instructor's first responsibility.

Dr. Iulia Ignatiuc considers that while teaching grammar to students, it is necessary to try not only to have them achieve formal accuracy but also to have them use structures meaningfully and appropriately. This can be achieved if we take into account all three dimensions of language: form (morphology and syntax), meaning and pragmatics (the use of forms). It is not possible to follow one pattern of teaching grammatical structures although in each case we deal with all three dimensions. The question is which one should be devoted most time to and this should be known prior to the planning. This is particularly important now when the number of hours allotted to grammar practice is considerably low. Hence if the teacher spends too much time on teaching the form and meaning he/she will do it to the detriment of teaching the pragmatic aspect. As a result, the students may not be able to use certain grammatical structures though they have studied them.² Galina Rogova suggests that teaching grammar should be based upon 5 principles:

1. *Conscious approach*-i.e. in sentence patterns teaching points are determined so that pupils can concentrate their attention on some elements of the pattern to be able to use them as orienting points when speaking or writing the target language[...] Teachers should realize the difficulties the sentence pattern presents for pupils. Comparative analysis of the grammar material might be helpful. Teachers must be aware that they have to use the shortest and simplest way of presenting the new grammar item.

¹ Ignatiuc I, (2004), *On Teaching Grammar*, International Conference , Language Development and Teaching, Balti, p.85

² Ibid.

2. *Practical approach* – i.e., pupils learn those grammar items, which they need for immediate use either in oral or written language. Pupils should be taught correct grammar usage, and not grammar knowledge.
3. *Structural approach*- i.e., grammar items are introduced and drilled in structures or sentence patterns. Pupils should assimilate the grammar mechanism involved in the sentence pattern and not the sentence itself.
4. *Situational approach*- i.e., Pupils learn a grammar item used in situations, which should be thoroughly selected.
5. *Different approach* –i.e. the teaching of active grammar (grammar for conversation) and passive grammar (grammar for reading). Grammar items needed for conversation are taught by the oral approach- pupils and them, perform various oral exercises, finally see them printed, and write sentences using them. But if pupils need the grammar item for reading, start with reading and writing sentences in which the grammar occurs.¹

In the process of getting ready for classes English teachers should consider:

- ✓ How to convey the meaning of grammar item- either through situations, or with the help of the mother tongue
- ✓ What rule to use
- ✓ What exercised to do, their types, number
- ✓ Sequence in which pupils should work to overcome difficulties
- ✓ How to present the grammar item: orally, in writing, or reading
- ✓ The planning of pupils' activity- individual/group work, etc.

II. Difficulties Pupils Have in Assimilating English Grammar

Different learners often have diverse problems and difficulties in acquiring English. We are aware of the connection between learners' native language and certain difficulties in acquiring and using English and the types of mistakes learners typically makes in pronunciation, grammar or vocabulary due to the native language interference. Pupils frequently find it difficult to listen and to understand the English language, as well as they find English pronunciation quite hard to mater. Learners are not similar; they learn a language in different ways, and at different speeds. English grammar is another barrier. Compared to Romanian or Russian grammars, the English one is much easier. However, this does not mean that learners meet no difficulties in learning it. The main impediment is the great number of tenses in the Active Voice. It regularly takes time to learn how to master them properly. But English grammar *is teachable* and *learnable*, so the teachers should do their best to help them learn it. There are many variations of the English language including dialects with specific grammar rules governing their use. In Moldova we mostly deal with what is known as Standard English although the manuals point out some differences between British and American English as well.

The principal difficulty in learning a new language is that of changing from the grammatical mechanism of the native language to that of the new language. Without a doubt, every language has its own way of fitting words together to form sentences. In English, word order is more important than in Romanian or Russian. Very often foreign students 'produce sentences that sound weird to the native's ear because the order of the words in the sentences is wrong. The basic pattern for English statements is: subject-predicate-objects-adv. modifiers of place-time. Sentences do not have to have all of these parts, but if all of the parts do occur, they most likely will occur in this order. If a sentence has both a PLACE and a TIME, one of these is frequently moved to the front of the sentence A change in basic sentence order can make an English sentence nonsensical or make it mean something completely different. The word order in Mary gave Hanna a book indicates what was given (a book), to whom (Hanna), and by whom (Mary). If we change the word order and say Hanna gave Mary a book, we shall change the meaning of the sentence. In Romanian and Russian, due to inflexions, that are very important in this language, we can change word order without changing the meaning of the sentence.

The inversion of subject and finite verb in *Are you...?* indicates the question form. In speaking English, Romanian and Russian pupils often violate the word order which results in bad mistakes in expressing their thoughts.

¹ Rogova G,(1983) *Methods of Teaching English*, Prosveschenije, p. 155-158

English *countable* and *uncountable nouns* can be quite confusing for Romanian and Russian learners. If a noun is countable, then it can have a plural form, e.g. book- books. If it is uncountable, it does not have a plural form. For instance, nouns denoting abstractions, ideas, ideals, emotions, gasses, fluids, materials with particles too small to be conveniently counted, and fields of study are uncountable in English. However in Romanian and Russian some of these nouns may be countable and they can take a plural form. For example, the English word *knowledge* is uncountable, while its Romanian and Russian equivalents are countable- *cunoștințe* and *знания*. The uncountable English noun *information* is countable in Romanian *informații*, but it is uncountable in Russian- *информация*.

It might look odd, but the verb *to do* may also present difficulties to young learners, and not only to them. In English it is used in different forms- *do, does, did, done*, in at least four diverse ways:

1. As a notional verb: **I did** my homework yesterday.
2. As a means of emphasis: **I do** read poetry.
3. As a question auxiliary verb in general questions that must be placed in front of the subject that is never translated into Romanian or Russian: **Do** you speak English?
4. As a substitute in order to avoid repetition of another verb phrase or verb: They like reading book, and so **do** I.

The English tense system also presents a lot of trouble to Romanian and Russian-speaking pupils because of the difference which exists in these languages with regard to time and tense relations. The four 'official' tenses for expressing the present in English are represented in Romanian and Russian by just 1, while the English modal 'can', for example, has 5 different derivatives in Romanian just for the present tense. Speakers of Russian understand with difficulty the difference between Present Perfect and Past Simple. For example, the pupil cannot at first understand why we must say *I have seen him today* and *I saw him yesterday*. For him the action is completed in both sentences, and he does not associate it in any way with *today* or *yesterday*.

Two-word verbs as another impediment for foreign learners. They consider that 'some actions in English are expressed by phrases that consist of a verb and a preposition or adverb. The action is not expressed by the verb alone. For example, GET means 'to obtain, to acquire, to receive, etc.' while GET OVER means 'to recover from an illness,' and GET UP means 'to arise from a reclining position.' There are hundreds of such phrases in English. They are a problem for ESL students because they are often not listed in the dictionary in a separate form and their meaning is hard to find. Besides not appearing as separate entries in the dictionary, these two-word verbs present one other problem. Some of them **must** have their two parts together in a sentence while others may have their parts separated by other things in the sentence.

The sequence of tenses is another difficult point of English grammar for Romanian and Russian speaking pupils because there is no such phenomenon in their mother tongue. Why should we say *She said she was busy* when she is busy? The use of modal verbs in various types of sentences is very difficult for the learners. They should differentiate the use of can and may while in Russian the verb may cover them both. Then they should remember which verb must be used in answers to the questions with modal verbs. For instance, *May I go home? No, you mustn't. May I take your pen? Yes, you may. Must I do it? No, you needn't.*

The most difficult point of English grammar for Russian- speaking pupils is the article because it is completely strange to them. The use of the articles and other determiners comes first in the list of the most frequent errors. Pupils are careless in their use and consider them unimportant for expressing their thoughts when speaking English. English grammar must begin, therefore, with pupils' learning the meaning of these structural words, and with practice in their correct use. For example: *This is a pen. The pen is red.*

English prepositions are often a serious problem to foreign learners because different languages use different prepositions to state the same idea. For example in the sentence, I usually go skiing **on** Sunday, the preposition **on** is not translated into Romanian while in Russian it is translated as 'B'. It might be rather helpful not to teach too many prepositions at one time, and to put the prepositions in context.

III. Implicit vs. Explicit Approaches to Teaching Grammar

It is known that learners perceive grammar instructions differently. Numerous educators wonder if grammar could be taught another way. Diverse theories and researchers share various approaches, strategies and techniques for grammar teaching. There was a time when the form of

grammar instruction called descriptive or transformational grammar was popular. Both the whole language method and descriptive grammar instruction focused on encouraging students to read and write freely ‘naturally’ to acquire and demonstrate linguistic skills. Teachers often consider 2 approaches to effective grammar teaching: *deductive (explicit)* and *inductive (implicit)*. Which is the difference between deductive and inductive grammar teaching? Deductive grammar teaching is based on facts and statements; it is also based on prior logic. Therefore the learners are told the grammatical rule and will work from that. On the other hand, inductive grammar teaching is based on trial and error, experiments. The learners gain knowledge from trying different things, seeing what works and what does not work so well, i.e. they figure out the grammatical rules through experimenting.

Most methods for teaching grammar are based on a deductive approach where the grammar rule is given to the pupils and then they apply it in their speech. Modern methodology, however, encourages teachers to introduce a new grammar rule by an inductive method, meaning that learners are able to discover the rule on their own by making a mistake first. The dilemma with teaching grammar is that teachers are never quite sure whether it is effective or not: its outcomes are vague and difficult to assess. Michael Swan claims “Research on methodology is inconclusive, and has not shown detectable and lasting effects, for instance, for implicit versus explicit instruction, for inductive versus deductive learning, or for separated-out study of structure versus incidental focus on form during communicative activity. Understandably, teachers are unsure how much importance they should give to grammar, what grammar they should teach, and how they should teach it.” In Swan’s view grammar teaching has been called into question for several reasons that include:

- ✓ A resurgence of the long-standing disappointment with the results of heavily grammar-oriented approaches, i.e. learner knows the rules, but cannot apply them in practice.
- ✓ The associated rise of more ‘communicative’ meaning-centred approaches involving situational, functional, notional or task-based syllabuses, and a consequent shift of focus away from grammar.
- ✓ The idea associated mainly with Krashen, that ‘learning’, i.e. the conscious absorption of information about language organization, cannot lead to ‘acquisition’, that is- the growth of the unconscious capability to create the relevant structures spontaneously.
- ✓ Another opinion that, while conscious attention to language structure may after all be essential, this will only lead to acquisition if it matches the communicative use of language, so that the separate study of grammar, separated from communication, is unproductive.
- ✓ The advance of large electronic corpora, leading to an explosion of interest in lexis, an enlarged perception of the lexis-grammar interface, and a feeling in some teachers’ minds that all of grammar therefore reduces to vocabulary: ‘We don’t do grammar any more. We follow the lexical approach’.

Teachers all over the world have their own considerations of the above-mentioned issues.

Numerous non-native speaking teachers still continue teaching grammar as they used to, without setting clear-cut communicative goals. At the same time, native-speaking teachers are often influenced by modern Applied Linguistic theory. At the same time, Michael Swan, who is considered a much respected expert in English language teaching, thinks about the need of teaching grammar. In his article he takes the position that, in general, ***grammar does need to be taught to foreign-language learners***. Swan provides the following reasons:

1. Languages have structural features that are complicated and hard to learn. For learners to master them, adequate experience, understanding and use of these features are necessary. Where time is limited and learners have little out-of-class exposure (as in most language-teaching situations the world over), this can only be brought about with the help of pedagogic intervention: explicit teaching and systematic practice informed by a syllabus of known problems.
2. Grammar has not gone away because we have rediscovered lexis. And while children arguably learn the grammar of their mother tongues by starting with lexical ‘chunks’ which are later analyzed and generalized from, there is no good evidence that this is a generally viable strategy in second-language learning. So, to summarize Swan assumes, without further argument that we need to teach grammar. If this is so, what exactly should we teach, how much priority should we give it, and how should we teach it?¹

¹ Swan, Michael, *Teaching grammar: Does Grammar teaching Work?*, (2008). 17 Apr., 2012. <<http://www.mikeswan.co.uk/elt-applied-linguistics/teaching-grammar.htm>>

Teachers could provide explanations that give students a descriptive understanding (declarative knowledge) of each point of grammar. Teachers may:

- ✓ Teach the grammar item in the target language or the students' first language or both. The main goal is to facilitate understanding.
- ✓ Limit the time they 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.

Another important part of grammar instruction is providing appropriate examples. It is extremely important to plan 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.

To sum it up, *explicit knowledge is learnable*; for example, when grammatical items are given to pupils, they learn the items first in a controlled learning process. Explicit knowledge is also obtained through the practice of error correction, which is thought to help learners come to the correct mental representation of a rule. This works if there is enough time to operate it; the speaker is concerned with the correctness of her/his speech/written production; and s/he knows the correct rules. Some grammar structures should be explicit because they might seem illogical to foreign learners. That is why in cases where features of English grammar are entirely different from the manner of expression in the pupil's native language, explicit teaching may be required. On the other hand grammar teaching should be **implicit**. By providing grammar in context, i.e. in an implicit manner, teachers expose their pupils to substantial doses of grammar study without pushing them away to the learning of English. They claim that no instruction is needed to learn grammar, claiming that *grammar should be learned deductively*: it aims to mimic the immersion environment without placing any emphasis on mechanical drills or explicit grammar instruction. Implicit knowledge is automatic and easily accessed and provides a great contribution to building communicative skills. Implicit knowledge is unconscious, internalized knowledge of language that is easily accessed during spontaneous language tasks, written or spoken. Implicit knowledge is gained in the natural language learning process. It means that a person applies a certain grammatical rule in the same way as a child who acquires her/his first language (for example, mother tongue).

Finally let's compare these two methods.

INDUCTIVE METHOD	DEDUCTIVE METHOD
It gives new knowledge	It does not give any new knowledge.
It is a method of discovery.	It is a method of verification.
It is a method of teaching. Child acquires firsthand knowledge and information by actual observation.	It is the method of instruction. Child gets ready made information and makes use of it.
It is a slow process.	It is quick process.
It trains the mind and gives self-confidence and initiative.	It encourages dependence on other sources.
It is full of activity.	There is less scope of activity in it.
It is an upward process of thought and leads to principles.	It is a downward process of thought and leads to useful results.

IV. Developing Grammar Activities and Presenting Grammar

“Oxford Practice Grammar” by John Eastwood and “Round Up” by Virginia Evans are the most text-based of the grammar books available in our area. They provide very useful material for teaching grammar, which I supplement using authentic texts that contain the target structures. When teaching a grammar structure, I try to base the explanation and the exercises on how native speakers use the given structure. This is possible only when using natural contexts in which the target form is being used. Most of the English tenses, especially the progressive, perfect and perfect progressive, are highly context-dependent forms. Thus only the context can tell us whether the action takes place at a

given moment, before it or after it. These tenses often occur with time adverbials, but not always. Sometimes the meaning of time is contained in the previous sentence. The discourse context, the semantics of the entire verb phrase and any accompanying temporal adverbials are all part of the meaning conveyed by the tenses.”¹

There are various ways of introducing grammar to pupils. We could suggest the following sequence of tasks:

- *Listening task* (i.e. the pupils had to listen to a text that they practice for meaning).
- *"Noticing" task* (i.e. the pupils had listen to the same text, which was then gapped, and fill in the missing words).
- *Consciousness-raising task* (i.e. the pupils were helped to discover how the target grammar structure worked by analyzing the "data" provided by the listening text).
- *Checking task* (i.e. the pupils completed an activity to check if they had understood how the target structure worked).
- *Production task* (i.e. the pupils were given the opportunity to try out the target structure in their own sentences). The aim of the production task is to encourage pupils to experiment with the target structure, not its mastery.

Introducing New Grammar Structures

We will consider several ways in which children can be introduced to new language structure. When teachers present grammar through structural patterns they tend to give pupils tidy pieces of language to work with. In primary classes they introduce grammar, which can easily be explained and presented. There are many different ways of doing this, which do not only involve the transmission of grammar rules, but we have to be aware that real language use is often very disorderly and cannot be automatically reduced to simple grammar patterns. Learners have to be aware of language and how it is used. That is why reading and listening are so important, and that is why discovery activities are so valuable since by asking pupils to discover ways in which language is used that helps raising their awareness about the creative use of grammar - amongst other things. The teachers should be prepared to use a variety of techniques to help pupils learn and acquire grammar. Sometimes this involves teaching grammar rules; sometimes it means allowing them to discover the rules for themselves. When introducing new grammar items, the teacher's job at this stage of the lesson is to present the pupils with clear information about the language they are learning. They must also show them: what the language means and how it is used; what the grammatical form of the new language is; and how it is said and/or written. What we are suggesting here is that the pupils need to get an idea of how the new language is used by native speakers and the best way of doing this is to present language in context. Many useful contexts have the new language being used in a written text or dialogue that is interesting for the children. Moreover, a good context will provide the background for a lot of language use so that students can use the information not only for the repetition of model sentences but also for making their own sentences. We would like to provide some suggestions about teaching grammar:

Step 1: The grammar structure

Teachers should start with examples of the new grammar structure. Then he should elicit a few sentences in which it appears, tell a short story or act out a telephone conversation. At this point, the teacher shows the structure and the pupils perceive it. Then he isolates the structure and explains it. After he writes it up on the board and explains the rules that govern leaving this on the board for the whole class. If necessary he would write it on the board again at the next lesson. The explanation should be clear, concise and short. An alternative to this is to get pupils work out the rule for themselves.

Step 2: Practise the structure

There are numerous types of practice activities to fix the structure in learners' short-term memory: using questions and answers, or let learners work out parallel examples. Teachers can extend to an activity that permits the learners to use the form in games, role-plays, interviews, aiming to put the new grammar structure into use in active communication. If something does not work, the teacher must go back to the explanation stage, but this time it should be done in a more detailed way.

¹ Ignatiuc I, (2004), *On Teaching Grammar*, International Conference , Language Development and Teaching, Balti, p.86

Step 3: Notes and writing At this stage the teacher should give time for pupils to take notes and memorise the new grammar structure. He should organize practise to consolidate and fix the language in their longer-term memory. Repetition should be varied, including fun activities.

It is advisable for the teachers to stick with the grammar point they are teaching, rather than mixing it with other structures. They must use:

- Visual aids such as graphs, clocks, time-charts, etc.
- Real examples that relate to students' lives.
- Games, competitions and role-plays.

At the same time they should make sure the pupils have acquired the new grammar structure making them talk to each other, using the structure as a way of extending into conversation. It is a good idea to practise questions and negative forms of the structure too. Teachers should also move from controlled practice of the new structure to free practise. Homework must be considered as additional practice.

On the other hand teachers should never:

- Get caught up in long explanations, it is much more useful to use examples.
- Explain half rules.
- Use complicated vocabulary that may distract from the task.
- Insist too much. If it does not work, then the teacher must change tactics.

However, the question still remains- how grammar should be taught. According to Michael Swan, first of all pupils' level is crucial: the more learners know, the more effectively grammar work can be integrated into other more communicative activities; the lower their level, the more likely they are to benefit from separated-out syllabus-based explanations and practice. We should reject nothing on doctrinaire grounds: deductive teaching through explanations and examples, inductive discovery activities, rule-learning, peer-teaching, de-contextualized practice, communicative practice, incidental 'focus on form' during communicative tasks, teacher correction and recasts, grammar games, corpus analysis, learning rules and examples by heart – all of these and many other traditional and non-traditional activities have their place, depending on the point being taught, the learner and the context. Swan claims that the purpose of grammar explanations is not simply to describe structural features; it is to build bridges from the learners' present knowledge to the knowledge we want them to have. Given too much information, learners won't assimilate it. Explanations do not have to give the whole truth: they must be true enough to be useful, but also short, simple, and clear enough to be taken in, remembered and acted on.

It should also go without saying that explanations should be in the mother tongue if possible. The old dogma that the mother tongue should never be used in language teaching has not been taken seriously by linguists for decades. And, as far as grammar is concerned, it defies common sense. Corpus examples are generally hard to interpret taken out of the context that gives them their authenticity, and are full of nuisance vocabulary that distracts attention from the relevant grammar point. What we need, surely, is not corpus authenticity but classroom authenticity: not 'real' examples, but realistic examples which serve our pedagogic purposes.

Jim Scrivener in his article *Debate: Is it possible to teach grammar?* argues on different opinions concerning grammar teaching. He proposes his "theory" how to teach grammar stating that the real learning of grammar goes on very slowly over a long period of time requiring:

1. **Exposure** – a lot of exposure to spoken and written language.
2. **Noticing** – an enquiring mind to notice and pick out things that are going on within this language.
3. **Help** – of various kinds – to draw attention to features, errors and interesting attempts, as well as summarizing, explaining and clarifying.
4. **Memory** – a good memory to store (and later recall) what has been noticed.
5. **Practice** – lots of practice – trying again and again – with all the chaos and mistakes and muddles that this involves.
6. **Owning** – after this long process, slowly a new item becomes integrated with all the other language that the learner knows and becomes something that the learner can use fluently and freely at will to express meanings they want to convey. [Ellis, 7]

Having studied numerous resources, we came to the conclusion that there is no well-defined approach to the teaching of grammar. This is due to the different views of grammar in language teaching. The diverse language teaching approaches, which emerged over the years, have placed different emphasis on grammar in language teaching. Teachers themselves are to decide which

approach to grammar teaching to use. Perhaps there will never be a solution to the debate on the value of teaching grammar, because language teaching and learning contexts vary so greatly. It should be noted that learning grammar itself is not the ultimate goal of learning English. The understanding of how to teach grammar is as controversial as that of the value of teaching grammar. We believe that both mechanical practice and meaningful practice are necessary. In conclusion we would like to provide some suggestions about teaching grammar. Teachers should:

- Teach only those rules that are easy and typical;
- Teach constructive and essential grammar points;
- Teach grammar structures in context;
- Use visible tools such as diagrams, tables, maps, charts, drawings, and realia to support better understanding;
- Avoid complicated grammatical terminology;
- Allow sufficient opportunities for practice;
- Tolerate the pupils' mistakes and errors.

Traditional Explanation vs. Alternatives in Presenting Grammar.

Traditional explanation technique:

G. Rogova suggests her vision of teaching grammar. She proposes to use 20 steps grouped in 4 stages:

STAGE I

Step 1. Pupils listen to simple sentences with a new grammar phenomenon constituting a structural group. The teacher checks pupils' comprehension.

Step 2. Pupils listen to the sentences again and learn to understand them both in teacher's speech and recording

Step 3. Pupils perform drill exercises individually and in chorus.

Step 4. They use the structure in speaking Teacher- Class, Teacher- Pupil.

Step 5. Pupils use the structure in conversation.

STAGE II

Step 6. Pupils use the familiar words in the new structures.

Step 7. The teacher presents new words if necessary for pupils to use the structures they assimilate.

Step 8. Pupils are taught how to use the structures they learn alongside of those they have assimilated earlier.

Step 9. Pupils perform various exercises in speaking.

Step 10. They assimilate the grammar phenomenon in reading.

Step 11. The grammar rule is deduced.

STAGE III

Step 12. Pupils listen to a text containing the structures under study.

Step 13. They perform drill exercises with the structures in monologues and dialogues.

Step 14. Pupils use the structures in speaking with the help of "props".

Step 15. They use the structures in describing various situations and events with the help of "props".

Step 16. Pupils use the structures in monologues and dialogues without "props".

STAGE IV

Step 17. Pupils utilize the grammar structures in speaking in new situations within the topics.

Step 18. They retell the contents of the story they have read.

Step 19. Pupils carry on a conversation about a text, a film.

Step 20. They use the structures in communication with a study purpose or in a natural context.¹

Alternative explanation techniques:

Instead of detailed explanations of rules (as in traditional grammar instruction), try to present grammar in a communicative context. Repetition of grammatical structures in a meaningful context will make the grammar point more easily understood and remembered. When presenting a new grammar point, use known (not new) vocabulary to make it easier for students to focus on the form.

I. You will learn about **PACE**, a special way of teaching grammar.

¹ Rogova G,(1983) *Methods of Teaching English*, Prosveschenije, p. 166-167

Presentation - Introduce the grammar point in a communicative context: tell a story, illustrate with pictures or realia.

Analysis - Provide a succinct summary of the grammar point: e.g. paradigms, examples, glosses where relevant.

Confirmation - Verify, by means of a communicative exercise with a few students, that the students understand the grammar point.

Exemplification - Allow all students to practice the grammar point (in pairs or groups) with an exercise from the book or other communicative activity.

II. Creative grammar teaching strategies

In the teaching of grammar, technique-resource combinations are often modified to structure-discourse match and if well developed, they can be used effectively for all phases of a grammar lesson. In order to make a grammar lesson effective, beneficial, and interesting a teacher should use some well-developed and fascinating techniques in the classroom, such as the use of songs, verse, games, and problem solving activities.

✓ **Using Songs.** Since the meaning is an important device in teaching grammar, it is vital to contextualize any grammar point. Songs are practically the best resources that can easily be used in language classrooms. Songs offer a change from routine classroom activities. They are precious resources to develop students' grammar abilities as well. They can also be used to teach a variety of language items such as sentence patterns, vocabulary, pronunciation, rhythm, adjectives, and adverbs. Learning English through songs also provides a non-threatening atmosphere for students, who usually are tense when speaking English in a formal classroom setting.¹

“There are many advantages of using songs in the classroom. Through using contemporary popular songs, which are already familiar to teenagers, the teacher can meet the challenges of the teenage needs in the classroom. Since songs are highly memorable and motivating, in many forms they may constitute a powerful subculture with their own rituals. Furthermore, through using traditional folk songs the base of the learners' knowledge of the target culture can be broadened. Correctly chosen, traditional folk songs have the dual motivating attack of pretty tunes and interesting stories, plus for many students- the added ingredient of novelty”².

In consequence, if selected properly and adopted carefully, teachers could benefit from songs in all phases of teaching grammar. Songs may both be used for the presentation or the practice phase of the grammar lesson. They may encourage extensive and intensive listening, and inspire creativity and use of imagination in a relaxed classroom atmosphere. While selecting a song the teacher should take the age, interests of the learners and the language being used in the song into consideration. To enhance learner commitment, it is also beneficial to allow learners to take part in the selection of the songs. There are various ways of using songs in the classroom. The level of the students, the interests and the age of the learners, the grammar point to be studied, and the song itself have determinant roles on the procedure. Apart from them, it mainly depends on the creativity of the teacher. For beginners the best songs would be those that are either familiar to the children or those, though maybe not familiar, which have an international nature, such as Old MacDonald. Since there is not a strict teaching procedure, teachers can mainly concentrate on what to teach rather than on how to teach. In order to make the songs more meaningful and more enjoyable, motions can be added to the song which parallel the words of the song. At the primary level of singing a song, the main features of the language is emphasized. At the higher levels, where the practice of grammar points is at the foreground, songs can be used with several techniques. The teacher's selection of a technique or a set of techniques should be based on his or her objectives for the classroom. After deciding the grammar point to be studied, and the song and the techniques to be used, the teacher should prepare an effective lesson plan. Since songs are listening activities, it is advisable to present them as a listening lesson, but of course it is necessary to integrate all the skills in the process in order to achieve successful teaching. Before listening to the song, it is also beneficial to let the students know which grammar points should be studied. At this stage, pictures may also be used to introduce the theme of the song. In the listening stage the gap filling is the most widely used technique. Through such gaps, the vocabulary, grammar, or pronunciation might be highlighted. This stage can be developed by the teacher according to the

¹ Lo, R. & Fai Li, H.C. (1998). Songs enhance learner involvement. English Teaching FORUM, 36/3:8-11

² Hill, D.A. (1999). Traditional folk songs in class. MET, 8/2:28-33

needs of the students and the grammar point to be studied. By leading the students into a discussion, the grammar point could be practiced orally and, in a way, naturally. Exploitation of songs for grammatical structures can be illustrated through several examples. For present tense 'Let It Be' by the Beatles, for past tense 'Yesterday' by the Beatles, for present progressive 'Sailing' by Rod Stewart, for present perfect 'Nothing Compares to You' by Sinéad O'Connor, etc.

- ✓ **Using Poems.** "Poems, like songs, contextualize a grammar lesson effectively. Since poetry is often spoken, repeated, dealt with, and considered, it acts as an effective tool for practicing a specific grammatical structure. Through repeating and considering the poem, the grammatical structures become more deeply internalized. Thus, poetry not only provides a rewarding resource for structured practice of grammar, but also a proper basis for review. If a poem that exemplifies a particular structure is also a good poem, it engages the eye, the ear and the tongue simultaneously while also stimulating and moving us; this polymorphic effect makes poetry easier to memorize than other things for many students"¹

Teachers must choose poems which are syntactically and thematically appropriate to the level, age and the interests of the students. It is advisable to select a poem from 20th century poets. As older poems often provide a more difficult lexicon and syntax, and as they reflect some old-fashioned ideas, it is more convenient to use contemporary poems than older ones.

✓ **Using Games and Problem-Solving Activities**

The latest concern of the foreign language teachers is to make the students use the language communicatively. Games and problem-solving activities, which are task-based and have a purpose beyond the production of correct speech, are the examples of the most preferable communicative activities. Such activities highlight not only the competence but also the performance of the learner. Yet they are the indispensable parts of a grammar lesson, since they reinforce a form-discourse match. In such activities the attention is on the discourse context. Both games and problem-solving activities have a goal. Games are organized according to rules, and they are enjoyable. Most games require choral responses or group works, whereas problem-solving activities require individual response and creative solutions. Games and problem-solving activities are generally used after the presentation, in the **practice part**, because such communicative tasks can only be handled after mastering sufficient grammar and lexical points. Through well-planned games, learners can practice and internalize vocabulary, grammar and structures extensively. While playing grammar games, the learners' attention is on the message, not on the language. In a way, students acquire language unconsciously since their whole attention is engaged by the activity. By providing personal, social, and cross-cultural issues to define, they sometimes simulate real life situations. Many grammar games can be found books or on-line. One of the best books available in Moldova is "More Grammar Games" by Mario Rinvoluceri and Paul Devis.

Here are some grammar games elaborated by Greg Cossu. The first activity is called the **Picasso Game**.² For example, I want to practice the structure 'That's a _____'. I would divide the class into two teams. I would have one student from each team come to the front of the room. I would show them a picture of a target word and the two students then draw the item on the board. The first team to guess the word using the structure 'That's a _____' gets one point. I then have two different students come to the board and draw a different item. The team with the most points is the winner. This activity involves the whole class and students always enjoy drawing on the board.

Through *problem solving activities* students' utmost attention is to the detail and to the meaning. The solution part of the problem can be used to generate any specific grammar point. In such activities a teacher should act as a facilitator rather than a director. It is also possible to integrate all skills in such activities. It is also advisable to keep in mind that such activities provide entertaining opportunities to practice thinking clearly while focusing on the form unconsciously. In sum, games and problem solving activities provide favourable usages for extended communicative practice of grammar. They are both motivating and challenging, also they encourage students to interact and communicate. Through such activities students match the discourse with the context of the game or the

¹ Celce-Murcia, M. & Hilles, S. (1988). *Techniques and resources in teaching grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. P.123

² http://www.eltnews.com/features/kids/004_gc.shtml

problem solving activity using a certain grammar item. So these activities create a meaningful context for language use.

V. Types of Grammar Exercises and Correcting Errors.

Textbooks usually provide one or more of the following three types of grammar exercises: mechanical; meaningful and communicative. However they imply recognition exercises, drill exercises [repetitive drills, substitution drills, completion drills, answering the teacher's questions tasks], creative exercises (speech exercises); grammar tests, etc.

To use textbook grammar exercises effectively, teachers need to recognize which type they are, devote the appropriate amount of time to them, and supplement them as needed.

Examples of tasks for grammar exercises:

1. Listen to the dialogue and raise your hands whenever you hear verbs in Past Simple.
2. Finish the sentence using the right tense
3. Identify and correct the grammar mistake
4. Fill in the gaps using the correct preposition/article, etc
5. Choose the correct variant
6. Substitute the noun by a pronoun

Error Correction

“One of the most frequently posed questions is how and when to correct learners’ errors. Many student errors in speech and in writing performance are grammatical which makes it impossible to ignore them. We should first try to discern the difference between global and local errors. Whereas local errors may sometimes be left uncorrected as long as the message is clear, the global ones should be treated in some way. Experience has provided a lot of proofs that attention to and treatment of grammatical errors, have an impact on students. Error correction is considered to be a necessary element of pedagogical practice. The matter of how to correct errors is exceedingly complex and it is up to each teacher to choose the best way of doing it in every particular situation.”¹

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. It is best to 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. In cases when students are doing structured output activities that focus on development of new language skills, teachers should use error correction to guide them. For example:

Student (*in class*): I *buy* a new car yesterday.

Teacher: You *bought* a new car yesterday. Remember, the past tense of buy is bought. **Student:** I *bought* a new car yesterday.

When students are engaged in communicative activities, teachers should correct errors only if they interfere with comprehensibility. Respond using correct forms, but without stressing them.

Example:

Student (*greeting teacher*): I *buy* a new car yesterday!

Teacher: You *bought* a new car? That's exciting! What kind?

Sample Grammar Activity

It is designed for pupils from the 3rd form, Module 2, Lesson 2. The grammar topic is *Present simple-3rd person singular*. We have tried to develop an activity using the *inductive (implicit)* approach. We have used easy, known vocabulary, so that the pupils do not have impediments while trying to understand it.

¹ Ignatiuc I, (2004), *On Teaching Grammar*, International Conference , Language Development and Teaching, Balti, p.86

Level: Basic User

Material needed: pictures of children doing different activities, cards with frequency adverbs; cards with verbs; flipchart and markers (board and chalk), and magnet board.

Procedure:

The teacher asks the pupils to listen very attentively.

1. Pupils, today you are going to listen to a very interesting story. In fact we are going to make it up together. Look (*the teacher shows the picture of a boy.*)



www.AsVector.com

- This is a boy. What's his name? (*Pupils give their variants*). So, his name is Dan. He is a very



good boy, as he ***always*** helps his Granny, when he visits her.

Let's see what he ***usually*** does.

- *The teacher shows the pictures of a boy working round the house, doing different things.*
 - *The pupils say what he usually does.*
 - *The teacher pins / sticks the pictures on the board.*
- Dan ***usually*** comes on weekends.



www.shutterstock.com - 09153937

- He ***often*** brings her flowers.



- He ***always*** picks up the nuts,



- weeds the lawn,



- carries heavy baskets,



- and brings water from the well.



- **Sometimes** he climbs the trees



- and eats apples and plums.



- He even catches the chickens when they run away



- Dan **seldom** watches TV.



- He gets tired and falls asleep early.

2. Then the teacher repeats the story placing cards with verbs in the 3rd person singular under each picture.

[Visits; comes; brings; picks up; weeds; carries; brings; climbs; eats; catches; watches; gets tired; falls asleep]

The pupils listen attentively, and repeat each sentence after the teacher.

3. The teacher repeats the story, paying attention to frequency adverbs. Teacher places the adverbs on the board. The pupils repeat the story after the teacher.

[Always, usually, often, sometimes, seldom]

4. The pupils are asked to make up the story again, looking at the prompts (they do it either in chorus or each makes up a sentence following the pictures on the board.)

5. The teacher explains the formation of the 3rd person singular in Present Simple - affirmative form.

6. Pupils are asked to write the story into their copybooks.

Recommended Readings

1. A. Doff, Teaching English. A Training Course for Teachers, Cambridge University Press.
2. J. Harmer, The Practice of English Language Teaching, Longman, 1991
3. P. Hubbard, H. Jones, A Training Course for TEFL, Oxford University Press, 1994, p.12-14.
4. R.&M. Baudains, Alternatives, Games, Exercises and Conversations for the Language Classroom, Longman
5. Rinvolucris M, Davis P, *More Grammar Game*”, Cambridge University Press, 1995

Questions for Discussion:

1. Why is grammar important in FL acquisition?
2. Do pupils need to be given details of grammar rules?
3. What should teacher's attitude to errors be?
4. Should grammar be taught in the same way to all levels?
5. Which approaches to grammar teaching would you choose? Why?

Pair-work

Choose a grammar topic and design visuals.

Project work

Choose a grammar topic from the textbooks (Forms 3-7), and prepare activities to teach them inductively and deductively.

Lecture # 9 Teaching Reading

Goals:

- To make future teachers aware of the importance of reading
- To provide insight into recent research in teaching reading

Plan

1. Content of teaching reading.
2. How to teach reading and correct reading mistakes.
3. Reading-comprehension.

I. Content of teaching reading.

Reading as a Process

Reading is one of the most important skills, which should be acquired in the process of mastering a FL. It is a multifaceted activity that involves both perception and thought. It consists of two correlated processes: word recognition and comprehension. Word recognition refers to the process of perceiving how written symbols correspond to one's spoken language. Comprehension is the process of making sense of words, sentences and connected text. The text presents letters, words, sentences, and paragraphs that encode meaning. The reader uses knowledge, skills, and strategies to determine what that meaning is. Reader knowledge, skills, and strategies include

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

Learning to read is an important educational goal. A person reads in order to gain information or verify existing knowledge. Learning to read is a different process because it involves learning about a symbolic system (writing) used to represent speech. Before children begin to learn to associate the written form with speech, they need to learn the vocabulary, grammar and sound system of the oral language. Research has shown that there is a close connection between oral vocabulary and early reading ability. The ability to attend to the individual sounds within words (phonological and phonemic awareness) is also an oral skill that is closely associated with reading ability.

Phonological and phonemic awareness

Phonological and phonemic awareness are closely associated with reading ability. It refers to the ability to attend to the sounds of language as distinct from its meaning. Phonemic awareness is especially important because the letters of the alphabet map onto individual sound units (phonemes). At the same time, learning to read alphabetic script also develops phonological and phonemic awareness. Regardless of the writing system, there appears to be a universal phonological principle in reading. Phonics is based on the systematic teaching of sound and letter relationships, as well as sound and spelling patterns. This is very productive while beginning English reading instruction. Teaching children to identify phonemes with or without the use of letters is effective. Teachers can develop children's phonological skills through a wide variety of activities. Rhymes, alliteration (words which start with the same sounds) and poetry can be used to draw children's attention to individual sounds in the language. For example:

- ✓ The teacher introduces a new poem by reading it to the class.
- ✓ Then s/he passes out the poem and has the children follow along as s/he rereads it to them.
- ✓ Later they read the poem chorally with the teacher as the leader to keep the class together.
- ✓ If there is new vocabulary in the poem that is crucial to comprehension, teachers discuss it the first day the poem is introduced.
- ✓ As poems become "old" poems, they are used to work on word skills. These can be done orally, or as pencil and paper activities.
- ✓ Children are allowed to read individual character parts during the group choral reading.
- ✓ The teacher reads "old" poems as mini-Reader Theatre scripts. This should be done after the children are very familiar with the poem. A child is assigned to each of the character/narrator parts or to a particular stanza of the poem. The group of children presents the poem at the front of the classroom.

Teachers can also focus on individual syllables and sounds in language in the context of book reading. It does not have to be taught in total separation from other reading activities.

Types of Reading

We distinguish reading *aloud* and *silent* reading. Among the many purposes of reading aloud, a primary one is to motivate the child to read independently for pleasure. Reading aloud can be an effective tool to help children monitor their own comprehension for several reasons. First, a child literally hears him/herself reading and is therefore gaining instant feedback. Second, it takes longer to read words aloud than to read them silently. Consequently, there is more time to process what one reads. So it is not unusual for young children to prefer reading aloud as they are trying to become more proficient in the reading process. A student's performance when reading aloud is not a reliable indicator of that student's reading ability. A student who is perfectly capable of understanding a given text when reading it silently may stumble when asked to combine comprehension with word recognition and speaking ability in the way that reading aloud requires. In addition, reading aloud is a task that students will rarely, if ever, need to do outside of the classroom. As a method of assessment, therefore, it is not authentic: It does not test a student's ability to use reading to accomplish a purpose or goal. However, reading aloud can help a teacher assess whether a student is "seeing" word endings and other grammatical features when reading. Teachers also use reading aloud to check word recognition, fluency, correct pronunciation of words, correct logical pauses, etc. It is mainly used while working with beginners, as it might be less interesting for intermediate and advanced learners. Students do not learn to read by reading aloud. A person who reads aloud and comprehends the meaning of the text is coordinating word recognition with comprehension and speaking and pronunciation ability in highly complex ways.

There are some ways to use reading aloud productively in the language classroom. 1) Teachers could read aloud to students as they follow along silently. Teachers have the ability to use inflection and tone to help them hear what the text is saying. Following along as teachers read will help students move from word-by-word reading to reading in phrases and thought units, as they do in their first language. 2) Language teachers could use the "read and look up" technique. With this technique, learners read a phrase or sentence silently as many times as necessary, then looks up (away from the text) and tell what the phrase or sentence says. This encourages students to read for ideas, rather than for word recognition. Also this procedure allows the student to process the text, and permits teachers see the results of that processing and know what elements, if any, the student is missing.

An important aspect of reading is *fluency*. It refers to a student's speed, smoothness, and ease of oral reading. Fluent readers read more quickly and can skip decoding in favour of comprehension. In addition, fluent readers enjoy reading more than students who read haltingly. There are fluency practicing techniques, which could be systematically used by teachers in class. For example: The teacher reads a 1 minute long passage to students so that they can hear fluent reading. Then one of the students reads the passage. If s/he gets stuck on a word, the teacher reads the word and has her or him repeat it. Repeated one-on-one readings will increase smoothness and expression. Sometimes teachers practice counting the number of words read per minute. During the 1-minute reading, teachers should resist the urge to correct mistakes. That will be done later. If the student has extreme difficulty, teachers have to stop the reading, make him/her practice a bit, then try again.

Some methodologists call *silent reading*- recreational reading, quiet or independent reading. This reading can be practiced not only in class, but outside it too. In some classrooms, students select from a predetermined reading list. But most teachers give students the freedom to choose a book that they think they'll enjoy. Often teachers encourage students to select books that aren't too difficult. Many teachers train students in the "five-finger test" as a method of determining readability. In the five-finger test, students are asked to select a page from the book to read to themselves. They hold up all five fingers on one hand as they begin to read. Each time the student encounters a word that is hard to read, he or she puts down one finger. If all five fingers are in the down position before a student finishes reading the page, the book is probably too difficult. The student probably should put the book back on the shelf and look for one that won't be so hard.

II. How to Teach Reading and Correct Reading Mistakes

Teaching reading can be an arduous task as it is often difficult to teach reading in the native language, not mentioning a foreign one. According to the phonic approach, you teach the *sounds* of the letters of the alphabet (*a, b, c ...*), then you decipher simple words like *cat, dog, hen ...*, then you

learn *digraphs* like *ay, all, ew, tion* ... adding greatly to the vocabulary with each digraph. Phonics¹³⁵ is a word-attack skill in which you "sound-out" difficult words by using the common sounds of letters in the word. It is often the first reading skill taught to people and is considered one of the "basic skills". Knowledge of phonics is most helpful in linking the words one knows through simply hearing them with the actual written word.

Pupils should be taught reading rules and accent rules as well.

According to Rogova teaching reading begins with presenting a letter to pupils, or a combination of letters, a word as a grapheme. The use of flashcards and the blackboard is indispensable. Flashcards allow to:

1. present a new letter(s)
2. make pupils compose a word
3. check pupils' knowledge of letters or graphemes
4. make pupils recollect the words beginning with the letter shown
5. make pupils show the letter(s) which stand for different sounds.¹

Correcting Reading mistakes

In the beginning stage, the whole reading process can be haltingly slow and filled with errors and mispronunciations. The best approach is one of balance — helping children when they truly get stuck and allowing them to plod along without the teacher's intervention when they are able to cope themselves. First, teachers should correct any instances in which children substitute a word for a printed word or omit a word that changes the meaning of the sentence or causes it not to make sense. Second, teachers should help young learners with any hard words that are key to understanding the sentence as well as pronouncing for them any unfamiliar words or terms (like the names of animals, people, or things) that are likely to occur repeatedly in the passage. It is effective when teachers try to let most other instances go without correction unless the children ask for help. In such a way, teachers promote reading aloud as an enjoyable time for both teachers and class, and it gives children the confidence they need as they try to cope with the most difficult tasks. This also means encouraging children to keep going and supporting them when they encounter difficult words or sentences. If the process is interrupted too many times in the effort to get it perfect, comprehension as well as the enjoyment itself will be lost. But if the teacher hears the same mistake several times it is a good idea to stop and explain the rule of reading, etc. The optimal method of correcting reading mistakes is when the pupil himself manages to do it independently. If s/he fails- then the class should try to help identify and correct the mistake, and the pupil should repeat the correct variant. In case nobody manages to correct it, then it is the teacher's turn to do it. Rogova suggests the following *techniques* may be suggested:

1. The teacher writes a word on the blackboard, underlying the sound in which the mistake has been made. Then s/he asks the pupil who has made the mistake to say what sound these letters convey. If the pupil cannot answer the question, then the teacher asks the classmates. They help the pupil to correct his mistake and he reads the word. If nobody knows- then the teacher gives the correct variant and all the children repeat it in unison.
2. One of the pupils asks "What is the English for "xxx"(the word the pupil made the mistake in)? If the pupil repeats the mistake, the "corrector" pronounces the word properly and explains the rule. The pupil then reads it correctly.
3. The teacher or one of the pupils say "Find the word xxx(in the native language) and read it. The pupil finds it and reads it either correctly, or s/he repeats the mistake. The teacher tells him/her to recollect the rule and read the word correctly.
4. The teacher corrects the mistake himself. The pupil reads it correctly, and the teacher asks him to explain to the class the rule.
5. The teacher tells the pupil to write the word in which he had made the mistake and underline the letters, which have been mispronounced. Then he explains how the word is read.

Teachers often ask themselves when it is better to correct the reading mistake- immediately it was made, or later when the pupil finishes the sentence/passage/text. "The mistake should be corrected at once while the pupil reads the text if he has made it in a word which will occur two or more times in

¹³⁵ <http://www.preksmarties.com/reading/reading3.htm>

¹ Rogova G. (1983), *Methods of Teaching English*, p.204-205

the text. If the word does not appear again, it is better to let the pupil read the paragraph to the end. Then the mistake is corrected".¹

III. Reading Comprehension

The purpose for reading and the type of text determine the specific knowledge, skills, and strategies that readers need to apply to achieve comprehension. Reading comprehension is thus much more than decoding as it results when readers know which skills and strategies are appropriate for the type of text, and understand how to apply them to accomplish the reading purpose. According to the reader's purpose in reading and type of reading used, different types of reading comprehension are often distinguished. As Jack Richards puts the following are commonly referred to²:

- ✓ *Literal comprehension*: reading in order to understand, remember, or recall the information explicitly contained in a passage.
- ✓ *Inferential comprehension*: reading in order to find information which is not explicitly stated in a passage, using the reader's experience and intuition, and by inferring.
- ✓ *Critical or evaluative comprehension*: reading in order to compare information in a passage with a reader's own knowledge and values.
- ✓ *Appreciative comprehension*: reading in order to gain an emotional or other kind of valued response from a passage.

The text may be understood at different levels. Jean Bodman states that there are 3 levels of comprehension skills:

I. Literal Comprehension Skills:

- Find the facts
- Find the details
- Find the sequence of events
- Understand pronoun referents
- Understand signals of syntax
- Read punctuation, capitalization
- Understand vocabulary in context

II. Interpretive Comprehension Skills

- Identify main ideas
- Make generalizations
- Make analogies
- Make assumptions
- Make inferences

III. Evaluative Comprehension Skills

- Determine the authenticity of a message
- Determine the relevance and validity of argument
- Identify persuasive techniques
- Assess logic and strength of arguments
- Distinguish between facts and opinions
- Identify style (tone, structure, intent)³

In the reading comprehension class teachers can practice a variety of exercises, to make sure students understood the text, and retained the vocabulary. Here are some reading tasks:

- 1) Answer the questions
- 2) True-False
- 3) Match
- 4) Multiple choice
- 5) Fill in
- 6) Compare
- 7) Facts and opinions

¹ Rogova G. (1983), *Methods of Teaching English*, p.207-208.

² Richards, J.C. (1990) *The Language Teaching Matrix*. Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press

³ Bodman, Jean W, (1988), *Spaghetti Forever. A Low-Intermediate Reader in English*, Macmillan Pub., Co., New York, U.S.A.

- 8) Interpret
- 9) Discourse markers
- 10) Related words (it, which, who)
- 11) Figures
- 12) Arguments
- 13) Classifying
- 14) Paraphrasing
- 15) Synonyms, antonyms, homonyms
- 16) Prepositions and verb+ postpositions
- 17) Keywords for retelling
- 18) Inference

III. 3. Teaching reading can be divided into 3 levels:

1. **Pre-reading**, or **Before-reading** is to interest students in the reading material. It aims at inference on the basis of titles, pictures, key words, phrases. While planning *Pre-reading* activities teachers should set a purpose or decide in advance what to read for; decide if more vocabulary or background knowledge is needed; determine how to start reading. During *Pre-reading* teachers may:

- Evaluate pupils' background knowledge of the topic and the vocabulary of the text
- Give pupils information necessary for understanding the text, or activate the existing knowledge they already possess.
- Explain any cultural data which may be indispensable to comprehend the text.
- Make pupils aware of the type of the text they are going to read and the purpose for reading it.
- Offer possibilities for group/pair work and for class discussion activities.

Here follow examples of pre-reading activities:

- Reviewing core vocabulary or grammatical structures.
- Using the title, the beginning and the end of the text to predict content and organization or sequence of the actions.
- Looking at pictures, maps, diagrams, or graphs, etc., and predicting what the text is about.
- Talking about the writer's background, writing style, and connecting it to the text.
- Skimming to find the theme or main idea and eliciting related prior knowledge.
- Answering the teacher's guiding questions and try to predict the content.
- Reading over the comprehension questions to focus attention on finding that information while reading.
- Constructing semantic webs (a graphic arrangement of concepts or words showing how they are related).
- Doing guided practice with guessing meaning from context or checking comprehension while reading.

Pre-reading activities are very important at earlier stages of reading instruction. As pupils become more skilled at using reading strategies, teachers will reduce the amount of guided pre-reading and allow pupils to do them independently (in pairs or groups).

2. **While-Reading** or **During-reading** is monitoring comprehension of the text. Teachers check predictions, decide what is (not) significant to understand; make pupils reread to check understanding and ask for help. *While-reading* activities can be classified into 3 parts:

- **Extensive** stands for the first reading. It is for general reading comprehension (getting the general idea of the text, detecting the main characters, the main events)
- **Intensive** (the second reading) aims at full understanding of the text, details of the text in particular.
- **Final** (the last reading) should help provide the retelling of the text.

In while-reading activities, pupils check their comprehension as they read. They may answer comprehension questions. In order to achieve this goal Doff¹ suggests the following:

- ✓ “Teachers should ask a series of short, simple questions which help to ‘break down’ the meaning of the text and make it easier to understand.
- ✓ Students should be required to give short answers in order to check comprehension, not to get them reproduce the text

¹ Doff, A., (1998), Teach English, Oxford University Press, p. 63

- ✓ Students should keep their books open, so that they can refer to the text to answer the question.
- ✓ Even if the textbook contains good comprehension questions, it is often a good idea for the teacher to ask his own questions first because he can modify questions if the students did not understand”.

Teachers could divide the text into paragraphs, cut them and mix. Each pair/group gets a set and tries to arrange them logically. Or teachers could stop at the end of each paragraph to review and check their predictions, restate the main idea and summarize it.

Another technique might be filling-in the table while reading the text/paragraph. Teachers may also ask low-level pupils to fill in charts/grids/ columns/ boxes/ tables, etc., as it will help focus their attention on the main points of the text, and make it easier for them to organize the information in their minds.

3. **Post-reading** or **After-reading** develops natural speech on the basis of topics not directly related to the material read. There are numerous types of post-reading activities. For instance:

- ✓ Answering questions.
- ✓ Fill-in the table.
- ✓ Multiple choice tests/questions.
- ✓ Matching exercises.
- ✓ True/false statements.
- ✓ Discussion points.
- ✓ Reproducing the text orally or in written form.
- ✓ Role play.
- ✓ Gap-filling exercises.

After reading texts, teachers evaluate understanding of the text. They may evaluate comprehension of a specific task or area and decide if the used strategies were applicable for the purpose and for the task. Teachers can use one technique more. They divide the text into logical paragraphs, and use pre/while and post reading activities for each stage. It is very effective and pupils better retain the content of the text. By engaging students in pre- guided and post-reading activities, teachers not only support students' understanding of content, but also provide them with opportunities to improve their comprehension, vocabulary, and study skills without interrupting content learning. Teachers should make decisions how they will use such activities, depending on their purposes for teaching, the difficulty of the text, and how well their students can read texts.

Recommended Readings

1. A. Doff, 2002, *Teach English, A Training Course for Teachers*, Cambridge University Press, p.56-65
2. Ana Gorea, 2004, *Helping Students Become Critical Thinkers in Reading Class* , in “Language Development and Teaching”, Materials of the International Conference, Balti, p.198-200
3. J. Harmer, 1995, *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, Longman, p.190-211
4. Th. Kral, (English Teaching Forum 1989-1993), Section 3- Activities for Teaching Reading, p.104-120 *Creative Activities*
5. G. Rogova, 1983, *Methods of Teaching English*, p.199-217

Questions for Discussion:

4. What are the purposes for using reading in class?
5. Do pupils need to read aloud in class? Why?
6. What are the possible ways of working with a reading text in class?

Pair-work

Discuss and decide which type of reading activities would be the most/least useful for beginners/ intermediate/ advanced learners.

Project work

Choose a text from one of the school textbooks. What activities would you suggest for each stage?

Unit # 10

Teaching Writing

*"Good writing does not just happen.
The best writers spend a great deal of time thinking, planning, rewriting, and editing."
Elizabeth West*

Goals:

- To introduce the main approaches to teaching writing
- To familiarize students appropriate techniques and strategies in teaching writing
- To introduce some criteria to evaluating writing

Plan

1. Writing as a Skill.
2. Strategies for Teaching Writing.
3. Writing Tips and the Writing Process.
4. Evaluating Writing.

I. Approaches to Teaching Writing. Writing as a Skill.

Writing is a productive skill and is often considered a classroom priority. Writing is a complex process that allows writers to explore thoughts and ideas, and make them visible and concrete. It encourages thinking and learning for it motivates communication and makes thought available for reflection. When thought is written down, ideas can be examined, reconsidered, added to, rearranged, and changed. Writing involves a different kind of mental process. There is more time to think, to reflect, to prepare, to find alternative and better solutions.

Being a very useful skill, writing helps learners to retain English letters and sounds, as well as its vocabulary and grammar. Teachers are aware that writing should be as communicative as possible. Although written English should certainly support and be integrated with grammar and vocabulary learning, the teaching of writing should be recognized as a special part of language teaching with its own aims and techniques.

Much of the writing produced by young learners is an opportunity to provide language practice in selecting and using words and structural patterns, spelling, organising ideas and practicing handwriting and layout. However, teachers often consider writing to be an 'unnatural' activity, not redundant, with delayed feedback, controlled, focused on accuracy, punctuation being paid much attention to, etc.

During the writing process, students engage in *pre-writing, planning, drafting, and post-writing activities*, though not necessarily engage in these activities in that order. Writing is the reproductive skill and our students commit many mistakes organizing words in a sentence, sentences into a paragraph. Writing is closely related to the other language skills. Effective writing therefore depends on one's ability to structure and organize words and sentences into a meaningful whole. On the first steps in the teaching writing we may use sentences whose words have been scrambled. They will serve as illustrations of how the teachers explain grammar, vocabulary, and writing mechanics while teaching organizational writing.

"The practical value of writing is great because it can fix patterns of all kinds (graphemes, words, phrases and sentences in pupils' memory.

Writing includes *penmanship, spelling and composition*. Since writing is a complicated skill it should be developed through the formation of habits such as:

1. the habit of writing letters of the English alphabet
2. the habit of converting speech sounds into their symbols- letters and letter combinations
3. the habit of correct spelling of words, phrases, and sentences
4. the habit of writing various exercises which lead pupils to expressing their thoughts in connection with the task set.

In forming writing habits the following factors are of great importance:

1. *Auditory* perception of a sound, a word, a phrase, or a sentence, i.e., proper hearing of a sound, a word, a phrase, or a sentence.
2. *Articulation* of a sound and pronunciation of a word, a phrase, and a sentence by the pupil who writes.
3. *Visual* perception of letters or letter combinations, which stand for sounds.

4. The *movement* of the muscles of the hand in writing.

II. Strategies for Teaching Writing.

II.1. A conscious approach to teaching and learning a foreign language can ensure pupils' progress in writing.¹ Methodologists consider that it is a good idea to teach individual letters to young learners from the very beginning, because the sooner they start writing, the better the other skills are. It is rather easy to teach handwriting when the native language has the same writing system as English. For example Romanian and English both use the Latin alphabet. As for native speakers of Russian it is more difficult for them due to different alphabets. Mainly young learners might get confused with the letter "p", or "r", although having a similar shape they convey different sounds, etc.

As Adrian Doff states "the style of writing used as a model is 'simple cursive' i.e., with letters joined but retaining the same basic shape as in printing. This style of writing is now used by most adults in Britain and is taught to British schoolchildren; it is also the style adopted in recent English language textbook in most countries."²

There are several types of handwriting. Doff³ emphasizes 3 of them:

1. **Printing style:** the letters are separate, and they look the same as in printed books. This style is the easiest to learn.
2. **Simple cursive style:** most letters are joined, but they keep the same basic shape as in printing. The basic shape of each letter is quite clear, and it is easy to see how to join the letters.
3. **Full cursive style:** all the letters are joined, and many have different shapes from printing. Many people in Britain still use this style, especially older people. In this style the loops make it difficult to see the basic letter shape.

It is not necessary to introduce the letters in alphabetical order. Mind the possible order in which the teacher could introduce letters:

- Letters with similar shapes are taught together. This helps students see important differences between them (e.g. 'n' and 'h')
- Vowels are introduced near the beginning. This is useful as they are common, and can be joined to other letters to make words.

II. 2. Generally, training in *penmanship* includes the following:

- Visual perception of the letter
- Observation accompanied by the teacher's explanation
- Practice in class
- Independent practice at home

Steps in teaching penmanship:

1. Write the letter clearly on the board
2. Describe how the letter is formed
3. Say the name of the letter
4. Give the sound of the letter
5. Students repeat the name of the letter
6. Students repeat the sound
7. Students draw the letter in the air
8. Students draw the letter in their notebooks⁴

Teachers should be aware that "it is very useful to describe the letter, to help students how it is formed- this can be done in simple English, or the students' own language. It is important to give the usual sound of the letter, so that students can connect sound with spelling. But there is no need to get students to repeat the sound: the aim is to practice writing, not pronunciation.

Knowing the name of the letter is useful, for example when spelling the words aloud, but is not really necessary for writing. Giving the name of the letter at this stage could be confusing, especially if the name is different from the sound (e.g. vowels).

¹ Rogova G, 1983, Methods of Teaching English, Prosv; p.222-223

² Doff A, 2002, Teach English, A Training Course for Teachers, Cambridge University Press, p.127

³ Ibid. p.128

⁴ Ibid. p.130

Some teachers find it useful to get students to practice forming the letter in the air before they write it down; this helps students to 'feel' the shape of the letter[...] When students have learnt a new letter they can practise joining it to other letters they know already... The letter joins can be taught in the same way as individual letters. It is very important to show clearly how we make joins from the end of one letter to the beginning of the next... Once they have learnt enough letters, they can start writing words and simple sentences.

II. 3. A) Copying is a simple and most controlled form of the written practice. As the motor skills for writing are still being developed in very young learners, so plenty of copying is a good way to begin. Young learners enjoy experimenting with writing and having opportunities to practise. Copying is a useful skill, and young learners need to be trained to copy correctly. You will need to give the younger learner plenty of time to copy. Monitor them carefully, to see that they are doing it correctly; provide guidance by showing them how to spell words correctly or telling them how well they are doing. This is important because it will motivate them and give them confidence

- For students who have to learn English script, copying is a useful exercise; students do not have to produce words of their own, so the focus is entirely on handwriting.
- Simply copying words or sentences from the board can be a very mechanical activity. Students can easily do it without really thinking, and it soon becomes very boring.

One way to make copying more challenging is to use a technique called 'delayed copying'. The teacher writes a word on the board (or shows it on a card), and the students read it; then the teacher erases the word, and the students write it. In this way, students have to think what they are writing, and they have to think of the word as a whole, not just as a series of letters.

1. Write a word on the board. Ask pupils what it says. Spell the word. Students should not write anything yet.
2. Erase the word from the board. Students write it from memory. The teacher should go round and check if they are joining the letters together.
3. As a check ask individual students to come and write the words on the board.

Another way to make copying more interesting is by including a simple task for students to do. For example, we can ask students to match words together, match words with pictures, put words in the correct order, etc. This makes sure that students think about what they are copying and understand what the words mean; it also gives a reason for writing the words.¹

II. 4. Writing Activities

- To help with letter formation skills, teachers use body spelling (where children 'write' with their fingers on each other's backs) or air spelling (where they 'write' in the air with their arms)
- Teachers give the students short gapped sentences, which they have to complete with numbers, such as:

A dog has _____ legs. (4)

I've got _____ head. (1)

or pictures, such as:



- They may ask questions about short texts, with answers that only have to be copied from the text, e.g.:
Maria lives in London. She goes to school every day at half past six and then goes home at twelve o'clock.

¹ Doff A, 2002, Teach English, A Training Course for Teachers, Cambridge University Press, p. 131-134

Where does Maria live?
 What time does she go to school?

- They can do short warmer activities at the beginning of the lesson by writing anagrams of words they know on the board.
- Another warmer is to give mini-dictations of individual words. You could do this in teams and have a running race to see which group can write the words correctly on the board first.
- Teacher can use words on flash cards to develop copying skills. They put the cards face down and each pair turns over a card, copies the word, and then moves on to another word until they finish.
- Teachers can also make 'Spelling Cards' with the class. The children draw a picture to represent a word and draw blanks to indicate the number of letters, giving the first letter to help the others. Swap cards, and students in pairs write their answers in their notebooks. The right answer is on the other side of the card so they can self-correct.



At higher levels, more sophisticated pictures can be used.

B) Another type of exercises which can be suggested is **dictation**.

It is much more difficult than copying “Dictation is a valuable exercise because it trains the ear and the hand as well as the eye: it fixes in the pupil’s mind the division of each sentence pattern, because the teacher dictates division by division. Dictations can vary in forms and in the way they are conducted:

- ✓ **Visual dictation-** (which resembles a bit the above-mentioned copying) as a type of written work is intermediate between copying and dictation. The teacher writes a word, a sentence on the board. The pupils are told to read it and memorize its spelling. Then it is erased and the pupils write from memory.
- ✓ **Dictation drill-** aims at consolidating linguistic material and preparing pupils for spelling tests. The teacher dictates a sentence. A word with a difficult spelling either is written on the blackboard, or spelt by one of the pupils. Then the pupils are told to write the sentence. The teacher walks about the class and watches them writing. S/he asks one of the pupils who has written correctly to go to the blackboard and write the sentence for the other pupils to correct their mistakes if they have any.
- ✓ **Self-dictation-** Pupils are given a text to learn by heart. After they have learned the text at home the teacher asks them to recite it. Then they are told to write it in their exercise- books from memory. So they dictate it to themselves. This type of written work may be given at junior and intermediate stages.”¹

It is very important that students are taught how to write an English sentence correctly. There are numerous ways of teaching how to write sentences. It would be useful for the teachers to train their pupils in writing sentences correctly (from short to longer ones), explaining them how important Word Order is. Here are some practical activities.

Exercise 1

Organize the words into sentences		Restructured as:	
1	Instructor-is-not-an-Jane	1	Jane is not an instructor.
2	Moldovans-are-we	2	We are Moldovans.
3	You-Russian-are-?	3	Are you Russian?
4	It-is-who-?	4	Who is it?

¹ Based on : <http://uz.denemetr.com/docs/768/index-72171-1.html?page=4> retrieved in March, 2014

5	An-engineer-am-I	5	I am an engineer.
6	Good-my-writer-is-father	6	My father is a good writer.

Exercise 2

Organize these words into sentences		Restructured as:	
1	Do-study-where-you-?	1	Where do you study?
2	Does-what-language-speak-Mary Ann-?	2	What language does Mary Ann speak?
3	What-sister-does-do-your-?	3	What does your sister do?
4	When-have-classes-students-the-do-?	4	When do the students have classes?
5	Meet-do-you-frequently-people-new-?	5	Do you frequently meet new people?
6	He-music-does-like?	6	Does he like music?

The teacher can teach many other conventions of punctuation, depending on the structure of the sentence under consideration. It is also very helpful to write sentences on a given pattern. Teachers can suggest the following types of exercises:

- “Substitution: Nick has *a sister*. The pupils should use other words instead of *a sister*.
- Completion: e.g. How many..... are there in the room? He came late because.....
- Extension: e.g. Ann brought some flowers. (The pupils are expected to use an adjective before *flowers*”¹

II. 5. There is little doubt that academic writing can be very challenging for learners of English as a Foreign Language as they must overcome the personal challenges associated with academic writing (generating ideas, organization, and mechanics) in order to develop the skills requisite for genre specific, coherent, and readable essays.

Once students understand sentence order, the teacher can move to sentence arrangement in a paragraph. The organization of any text depends greatly on the literary genre it represents [for instance, if a text is a narrative, or a commentary, or analysis, each genre requires and organizational format. In an analysis, the writing must be logically organized whereas narratives require a chronological ordering; and a commentary presents an opinion with supportive facts]. Whatever the case, organizing a paragraph or a text requires an understanding of rhetorical markers. The student should watch for the following.

Organizing a paragraph or a text requires an understanding of rhetorical markers:

- Semantic markers.* They indicate how ideas are being developed. Examples of these semantic markers include firstly, secondly, finally, etc. We use widely these markers in "brief summary".
- Markers for illustrations and examples* such as, for instance, for example, etc.
- Markers that introduce an idea that runs against what has been said earlier:* but, nevertheless, yet, although, by contrast, etc.
- Markers showing a cause and effect relationship between one idea and another.* They include, so, therefore, because, since, thus, consequently.
- Markers that show the speaker’s intention to sum up his message.* Some of these phrases are to summarize, in other words, it amounts to, etc.
- Markers indicating the relative importance of different items,* e.g, it is worth nothing, it is important to note that, the next point is, etc.
- Markers that express a time relationship,* e.g, then, next, after, while, when.

Paragraphs and texts that contain sentences with the above rhetorical markers are much easier to organize than those without them. For example:

- English is a subject at the university because the students need it to read scientific books in that language.
- A university student has to pass many examinations. In other words s/he has to student hard.

¹ Rogova G, 1983, Methods of Teaching English, Prosv; p. 229

3. To consult magazines for scientific work, some steps are necessary: first, scan the table of contents to select some articles; next skim through the articles selected, lastly study the articles and take notes.
4. Science demands effort, systematic work and self-control. In short, it demands discipline. Here are some activities that focus on communication and self-expression students will be encouraged to write if writing tasks motivate them and keep them interested. Pictures are a good starting point for writing narratives. One method is to collect about twenty photographs of people of different ages from various magazines. Then the teacher tapes these to the board and tells students that they should choose a picture of one person and try to write a narrative imagining that they are that person. They have to concentrate on details like job, hobbies, whether single or married, children, and so on. The teacher also tells them to avoid describing the person's physical appearance and to use first person singular pronouns throughout. After they have finished writing they take reading their imaginary autobiographical narratives out loud while the other students have to look at the board and guess which of the people is "talking". As there is no description of physical features, the students have to listen closely to try and identify the right person. Using the first person helps to make the narratives sound authentic and convincing. This activity emphasizes the importance of writing as communication because any lack of clarity means that the listeners will not be able to recognize the "speaker". It combines writing and listening. To make the second stage more exciting it's also possible to divide the students into teams and award points for each person correctly identified.¹

We hope that the following writing tips will help teachers improve their students' writing skills.

Activity: Thinking about writing

Aim: This lesson looks at a few techniques for 'thinking' about writing. There are 3 tasks but you do not need to do all 3.

Time: approx. 40 minutes (but this depends on how many of the tasks you want to do in one lesson).

Materials: None – the materials will be dependent on your class/students. However, you may wish to use the examples below the first time you try these techniques.

If possible it would be useful to bring in examples of different types of 'long' writing (i.e. letters, articles, reports, essays etc). These do not necessarily have to be 'real' examples (although those can be useful) but could be from course books, the Internet, or even from other students (clearly these would need to be 'good' models).

Explanation: We often spend time on the nuts and bolts of writing such as sentence or paragraph structure, cohesion, appropriate language and style etc, but often neglect the pieces we want to bolt together. This lesson aims to address this 'problem'.

Instructions:

Task 1 – Brainstorming

- ✓ Usually brainstorming is done in two ways: either students are put into small groups, given the topic and a time limit and told to write their ideas down – then all the groups ideas are collated; or the brainstorming is done as a whole class activity with students shouting out their ideas and the teacher writing these ideas on the board.
- ✓ For this task we would like you to try a different technique for brainstorming. Start by writing the topic (or question) on the board. Sit your students in a circle (if possible) and tell them you will give each student 4 seconds to give you an answer. Start at the left of the circle and if the student gives you a response write it on the board and move on to the next student. If a student doesn't say something within 4 seconds ask the student to move their chair slightly back and move on. Go round the whole class and then start again and repeat the process. On the third round any student who didn't say anything (in any round) is 'out'.
- ✓ This brainstorming technique ensures that a) most students participate, and b) that the pace remains high.
- ✓ Although the first time you use this brainstorming technique you may get little response once the students are used to it (and its rules) you will find that it is quite productive.

¹ Based on: Rusenko, L., Developing writing skills, retrieved from <http://www.monografias.com/trabajos14/devel/devel.shtml>, in March 2014

Task 2 – Speed writing

Note: For this activity students do the actual writing individually.

- ✓ Make certain that all the students can see the ‘brainstorming’ board.
- ✓ Tell the students you are going to give them only 15 minutes (you could give as little as 10 minutes but don’t give more than 20) to write.
- ✓ They should concentrate on ideas, not on language, grammar or punctuation.
- ✓ They write as quickly as possible and should not stop.
- ✓ They cannot cross anything out or correct mistakes during this time.
- ✓ If they cannot think of a word or a phrase they should leave a blank space or write it in their own language.
- ✓ Once the time is up, shout ‘stop’.
- ✓ Students should now work in pairs or small groups and read out what they have written.
- ✓ At this stage all the students should just listen.
- ✓ Next, as a group (or pair) the students should work through the text correcting mistakes, changing punctuation, translating words or phrases into English, or fill in the blanks.

Task 3 – Loop writing

- ✓ Loop writing is a way of ensuring paragraphs link together forming a coherent text.
- ✓ The aim of the lesson is developing coherence and cohesion. This task is a continuation of that theme but builds upon the brainstorming and speed writing tasks (stages) in this lesson.
- ✓ During the speed writing you will find that students have generated lots of ideas, but that most of these will be at a sentence level or possibly paragraph level. This means that these ideas now need to be structured into a complete text.
- ✓ The task can be done either individually or in small groups (3 or 4)
- ✓ In groups ask the students to choose 1 piece of writing.
- ✓ Now ask them to read through it and link ideas together that have a similar sub-topic.
- ✓ Now they should decide which idea (or sentence) will start the piece of writing.
- ✓ Using this idea (and the ones that go with it in the same paragraph) they should write the first paragraph.
- ✓ Next, they should summarise the first paragraph in one sentence. This sentence is then used to start the second paragraph. Follow the steps used to create the first paragraph and then summarise the second paragraph.
- ✓ Use the sentence that summarises the second paragraph as the start of the third paragraph. Continue with these steps until you have completed the writing.
- ✓ Read through again and check as a ‘whole’ text.

If the task is done individually the same steps are followed but there is no discussion between students about what should go where.¹

IV. Evaluating Writing.

As we have said, there are numerous opportunities to help students develop the writing skill. Writing assists the listener, reader or observer in achieving a better understanding of what facilitates recall of facts as well as oral expression and reading. The students’ language level and the purpose which the writing is to serve will determine the type of guidance the teacher must provide to help them to write in class and later on the job.

There are seven criteria that should be considered while evaluating writing: unity, organisation, style, tone, credibility, mechanics, and visual appeal. Teachers should be very attentive while checking their students’ written works. The students must understand what they have done wrong, so that they could correct the mistakes and never make them again. Teachers should also make a positive .

¹ http://www.onestopenglish.com/tefl_skills/writing_think.htm

Recommended Readings:

1. G. Wolsh, A Course in Written English, 1983, p.203
2. A. Doff, Teaching English. A Training Course for Teachers, Cambridge University Press
3. J. Harmer, The Practice of English Language Teaching, Longman, 1991, p.52-54, 72-73, 92-109, 122-139.
4. G.Rogova, Vereshchiagina, Methods of Teaching English in Primary School, p.188-203
5. Th. Kral, Creative Classroom Activities, English Teachers Forum, 1989-1993, Section 4-Activities for Teaching Writing, p. 28-37, 122-143
6. Th. Kral, Creative Classroom Activities, English Teachers Forum, 1989-1993, Section 4-Activities for Teaching Writing, p. 28-37, 122-143

Questions for Discussion:

1. Why is writing important in FL acquisition?
2. Which are the stages of writing?

Pair-work

In pairs enumerate some of the benefits that writing provides. Discuss your examples and make a list. Present it in class.

Project work

Provide a list of activities teachers could do during the pre-writing, while-writing and post-writing stages.

Lecture # 11

Informational Technologies in the English Classroom

Goals:

- To familiarize future teachers with the necessity of using Informational Technologies in teaching
- To explore a variety of Web tools and search techniques in order to find useful information in a variety of formats

Plan

1. The Importance and Content of Computer Assisted ELT.
2. Using the Internet. Searching Information

I. The Importance and Content of Computer Assisted ELT.

“With everything being written and said about Internet, it is still difficult to get a clear picture of what the things about and what you can get of it.”¹ Computers have become a very useful teaching tool, as they provide a great number of alternatives open to language teachers and learners. Within the past years, the Internet has left the realm of research labs and higher education, and entered the consciousness of people. Among educators, there is a growing urgency to use the Internet, because it is becoming a global, grass-root phenomenon. It is significant to discuss about the importance of promoting the potential of Information Technologies applied to English language teaching, and teachers should be aware of the advantages of using electronic tools in an English class, the electronic versions of numerous language teaching materials, etc. *"Multi-media"* is a frequent word today in the field of computers. Using multi-media involves combining written text, sounds, still pictures, and video using computers and computer networks. This means that the world of computers is getting closer to the world of human beings. Many teachers use word processing programs to write exams, hand-outs for classes and meetings, and their academic papers. In addition, hand-outs for conference presentations are seldom written by hand or typed. Because computer education is now required in schools, all secondary and high schools have computers these days. People have found different ways to use computers. Some people use them to play games, as word processors to write, to spread sheet programs to keep records and manipulate data. Others use them to study different subjects, make programs for their own use, or use dictionaries, encyclopaedias, and other reference works on computer to look up information. Millions of people use them for communicating with others and exchanging information subscribing to computer discussion lists. Some use computers to search for information in different libraries all over the world, find useful computer programs or even connect to computers all over the world and use them as their own computers.

In our modern society Information Communication Technologies (ICT) in language teaching are becoming more efficient and important than ever. They provide a superior environment for researching aspects of English language acquisition. The current development of ICT provides a wider variety of ways of studying English. Computer-assisted learning materials including texts, illustrations, grammar/vocabulary tests and quizzes, etc. can enhance the students' progress in language learning. Most of this software is designed for self-study, but not for drills of grammar and vocabulary. They put more emphasis on games and simulations, and on productive language skills, speaking and writing. Questions that users answer do not necessarily have one right answer, but several answers are accepted, or there may be no one single correct answer.² An excellent way of making progress in a foreign language is to use New Informational Technologies for a purpose, so that the language becomes at least a tool for communication. Most teachers interested in CAI are regularly on line, and they can exchange information. The Internet in the classroom is getting more common, and it brings progress in education.

Ray Clifford said: ***"Technology will not replace teachers, but teachers who use technology will probably replace those who do not"***. Unfortunately, despite the explosion of "instructional

¹ Internet in a Nutshell, a Desktop Quick Reference, Valerie Quercia, O'Reilly & Associates, Inc, 1997., p.xiii

² Kitao, S. K. (1993). Recent trends in English CAI in the United States. LL Tsushin, 170, 19-21.

technology", Computer Assisted Language Teaching is not a reality in most classrooms today. Some teachers are more technologically-minded, others feel uncomfortable with technology. Many lecturers find it a waste of their time to learn complicated software and hardware applications for tasks that could be accomplished well using "old fashion" methods. For example, writing on the blackboard with chalk is still the quickest way to highlight lecture material for students. It is a well-known fact that majority of teachers feel stress over technology. Language teachers and the administration should become aware of the wonders, possibilities and advantages of modern technology in a foreign language class, and they should also accept the fact that this technology is having a great impact on how foreign languages are being taught. Teachers should revise their thinking about language lessons and incorporate the new capabilities that are at their disposal. It takes some time to familiarize oneself with modern technology, and it needs a considerable investment of time and energy. Special training is required, but the increase of technology awareness on the part of English language teachers can only enhance their teaching and effectiveness as educators and lead to the better training of students. Selective use of computer technology will help students to learn, and will improve the quality of teaching in our schools and universities.

Many learners of English have access to e-mail and the Internet at home as well as at school and this presents teachers with a multitude of useful options in terms of setting writing tasks, communicating with learners by e-mail, giving them research tasks and setting up project work based on researching the Internet. Although many learners seem to be much more familiar with the use of computers than a lot of teachers appear to be, there is still plenty of scope for some input in class related to computers. Basic terminology is a good starting point and a useful exercise may be the pronunciation of e-mail and Internet addresses. For example sandu@yahoo.com (read as *sandu at yahoo dot com*) or www.google.com (read as *www dot google dot com*). Similarly, there may be some value in teaching the meta-language of word processing (e.g. *copy, cut, paste, insert*), writing e-mails (e.g. *reply, forward, delete*) and navigating the Internet (e.g. *search, link, key-word*). Teachers can use the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary in the process of acquiring terminology related to computers.

‘ In terms of practical classroom activities to exploit the Internet, if teachers have access to several Internet-linked computers for use with their classes, there are numerous possibilities of doing it. Learners can fill-in on-line questionnaires, research specific topics, prepare presentations using on-line information, graphs and diagrams, find the answers to questions set by the teacher, do interactive grammar, vocabulary and even pronunciation exercises, read and summarise the latest news, and contribute to on-line discussions and debates. With technology advancing at breakneck speed, it sometimes seems difficult for teachers to keep up but remaining informed is crucial. Teachers need to be familiar with the latest developments in computer technology and to be able to integrate computers confidently into their everyday classroom practice. There are some more ways to use computers for English language teaching, for example teachers can use them to prepare for classes.’¹ They can use a word processing program to write teaching materials and tests. They can use dictionaries, encyclopaedias, etc., available on the computer as resources to help them prepare materials. Computer networks are also useful for getting teaching materials, exchanging them with other teachers, and getting new ideas or suggestions for handling particular problems. Computers make it easier to make slide presentations, since random access is possible.

Students are eager to use computers. Most learners are tired of traditional English classes and are looking forward to a new style of learning. While using computers, they feel that they can master English, can study it with their own learning styles, and they can see the results of their learning. Students consider that materials are new and fresh if they are presented on computers, and they are often interested in even routine tasks such as learning to type. They seem to be willing to spend more hours and do more exercises on a computer than by hand². Students can get different types of input using a computer. Using multi-media materials, computers can display written text and use sounds, still pictures, and video. Students feel things are more real and more easily understood. Through simulation and other techniques, computers can present abstract things in a concrete and easily understood way. They also have access to various types of aids, including dictionaries, pictures,

¹ <http://www.ling.lancs.ac.uk/staff/visitors/kenji/kitao/instruct.htm>

² Kitao, K. (1993). Responses of students to CAI classes (1-3). LL Tsushin [LL Communications]

graphs of intonation, and voice recordings. Learning can be individualized using computers. Students can study materials related to their individual goals and what they need or are interested in, with the appropriate difficulty level and at their own pace. Computers can analyze the problems of each student, and the teacher can help individual students with their problems based on the analysis¹.

No matter how many difficulties teachers might have, the use of Informational Technologies in the English classroom is inevitable.

II. Using the Internet. Searching Information

The Internet is a computer network which connects other computer networks across the world. The Internet is becoming important in education. In the future, more and more schools will be connected. Thus many teachers, researchers, and students use the Internet for research, teaching, administration, and learning, and more and more will do so in the future. In the nearest future almost everyone will use the Internet for these purposes. The World Wide Web (WWW or web) is a vast database on the Internet. All files are made with HTML files (*Hyper Text Markup Language is the language of the World Wide Web. HTML is used to write documents on the World Wide Web, and to "glue" other resources together*), which have some tags to be read with a browser (Software [programs] that allows people to view World Wide Web resources). They are multimedia and have texts, sounds, pictures, maps, videos, etc.

People can search information using the search engines, or navigating on the net. The Internet is like a huge library, and no one knows how large it is, and it is difficult to count the resources available through the Internet. It can be a great help to anyone in research and learning. There are many ways to use the Internet for study, research, and teaching. For instance, using emails is very popular activity on the Internet. In this context, language teachers have a great opportunity to make this new tool work for them in their language classroom. Emailing is a highly motivating way for students to get valuable practice in both reading and writing. That will motivate students to improve their English written and communication skills, giving them a unique opportunity to exchange messages with students from all over the world, preferably from English speaking countries. The English teacher should contact their colleagues from the UK, USA, Australia, etc., and ask for collaboration. Having got email addresses (preferably one email for each student), the teacher will distribute them among students and ask them to write a message to a future pen-friend. Students should be taught how to do it, and what is more important they will be stimulated to learn English better, in order not to make spelling, grammar or style mistakes. Students could be told in advance that during the next lesson they will have to send a letter to a person from another country. And as home-task they have to write it at home on paper, consulting dictionaries, or other sources. In the class they could work on their drafts in pairs or groups- the teacher will only approach to advise if necessary. After the "checking procedure" is over the teacher distributes the students email addresses and the students will have to type the ready message. It is best to use English language servers, because it gives the possibility to use the language naturally, and the learners retain it very easily.

Sending messages. The teacher has to explain his/her students how to send messages correctly. An e-mail address consists of a *user name* (the identifier used to specify a particular person, often using all or part of their real name), an @ mark, and the name of the computer where their e-mail goes. For example, petru@yahoo.com is an e-mail address. This is the address for a person named **Petru at yahoo.com**. Depending on the e-mail program, it is possible to send the message to more than one person at once, either by typing each address individually or by typing an identifier which includes several addresses that one has specified. If one is sending an e-mail message in reply to a message s/he has received, there will be a command that allows replying to that message, automatically sending message to the address that the original message came from. It is also possible to forward a message to a third party. Teachers should make students aware that when writing e-mail, there are a few things to stick to. They have to: be clear and concise; make references clear; try not to send anything by e-mail that the sender would not like to have become public knowledge; limit the length of lines to 60 characters; be polite; try to make the message error free and sign the message.

The Internet is not administered by any central organization, and the Internet as a whole does not have formal rules and regulations. People who use it are expected to use good manners, so that everyone can use it without any problems. In order to avoid inconveniencing other people, there are

¹ Kitao, K. (1994). *Individualizing English instruction using computers*. Doshisha Studies in English, 62, 167-190.

some generally accepted standards of behaviour. These standards are referred to as "*netiquette*." The most important guideline for netiquette is to be polite and respectful to other people.

Learning a foreign language does not require only knowledge of semantic and grammatical rules. Linguistic knowledge is not enough for effective and appropriate use of the target language. Students should also acquire the knowledge of how native speakers use the language in the context of interaction; they should also learn what is expected -socially and culturally-by users of the target language in a particular communication context. It should be kept in mind, that written electronic communication is different from traditional paper communication, so the style should be different as well. One of the major objections that language teachers have raised to incorporating computer/internet skills into language teaching is that these are not really a matter of language. The counter-argument to this is that computer/internet use is mediated through language.

Search Engines

In order to find the necessary on line materials one should use the Search Engines efficiently. A **search engine** is a system dedicated to the search and retrieval of information for the purpose of cataloguing the results. One of the best search engines is **Google**. It delivers highly relevant results in a short amount of time, and it works well. Google is simple to use at a basic search level, but still returns good results. This is why non-professional searchers love it so much. The clean, single box home page is simple for non-sophisticated searchers to understand. Teachers could advise their students to use the following search engines: www.google.com; www.altavista.com; www.msn.com; www.northernlight.com; www.wisenut.com; www.teoma.com; www.guidebeam.com; www.picsearch.com, and many others.

It is very effective to use on-line resources in the process of teaching English. Because there are millions of sites containing English language teaching resources, most of which are of high quality, it would be a great loss for English teachers not to use them. If teachers are able to find the necessary on-line free materials it will give them the opportunity to save a lot of time in the process of getting ready for classes. Teachers will not have to make up exercises, quizzes and tests themselves, what they need is to copy and paste those from the net and later print them. These materials are very effective, and will bring diversity into the classroom.

The major advantage of computer-assisted instruction is that each student learns according to his/her needs, interests, learning style, and English proficiency and at his/her own pace using new information technologies.

Recommended Readings

1. "Internet in a Nutshell" –a Desktop Quick Reference, Valerie Quercia, O'Reilly & Associates, Inc, 1997.
2. Daniel J. Barrett, Finding Information Online Songline Studios, Inc. and O'Reilly & Associates, Inc., p.xi
3. Mironiuc I. (2002), *Posibilitatea Utilizarii Tehnologiilor Internet in Invatamantul Primar, Reforma Invatamintului:Teorie si Practica*, Maerialele Conferintei ,p. 173-177.
4. "Net Learning: Why Teachers Use the Internet", Ferdi Serim & Melissa Koch, Songline Studios, Inc. and O'Reilly & Associates, Inc, 1996

Questions for Discussion:

1. Why is ICT important in FL acquisition?
2. How should teachers use the net in language teaching?
3. What search engines are best for language teaching?

Pair-work

Discuss in pairs the advantages of using computers in testing. Present your arguments to the class.

Project work

Identify 10 best teaching sites. (grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening, writing)

Unit # 10

Planning in Foreign Language Teaching. Simulating a Lesson

Goals:

- To make future teachers aware of the importance of planning
- To familiarize them with the stages of the lesson
- To train them in making a lesson plan

Plan

1. The necessity of planning & the approach to planning
2. Stages of the Lesson
3. Models of Lesson Plans

I. The necessity of planning & the approach to planning

A good lesson can be ensured only by a thoroughly planned procedure. Every teacher needs a basic lesson plan to provide regularity and structure to teaching. In the process of planning lessons, teachers can use new tools and quickly adapt to changes in both school course requirements and technology. According to DeCecco¹ the process of planning implies that the teacher decides what and how the students should learn. It is known that the following components are involved in the planning process:

National curricula- every teacher should be familiar how curriculum is organized, and be familiarized with the National requirements in English language teaching.

Knowledge of the learner - Research indicates that teachers spend more of their time when planning on learner characteristics than any other part of the planning process.

Knowledge of teaching methods – It is significant as teachers plan the instruction, to use the knowledge of teaching methods to develop appropriate lessons for students. The teaching strategies used during a lesson must insure that all the students are able to master the content of the lesson. Several factors are involved in selecting one's teaching methods, including:

- ✓ selection and use of teaching materials
- ✓ class arrangements - cooperative learning, full class instruction, etc.
- ✓ mode of presentation - lecture, small group discussion, individualized instruction
- ✓ appropriate pacing - the speed at which you introduce and cover the material

While planning a lesson it is important to consider diverse learning styles, vary the teaching style, use different materials, monitor the students closely and adjust the instruction as needed. During the presentation of the lesson, the teacher should be conscious of the need to ask higher level questions. A good guide is Bloom's taxonomy that offers a continuum of questions, ranging from the easy to the difficult. It is important to remember to ask a variety of questions during the class.²

- ✓ When students are asked to simply recall information, they are not actively involved in the learning process; much of the work consists of memorization.
- ✓ Most low- level questions have one specific answer; this does not lead to the kinds of discussions that should take place in the classrooms.
- ✓ The students' ability to express themselves verbally is not enhanced when there is too much reliance on one or two word responses.
- ✓ When the teacher presents a lesson, s/he should keep the following in mind: to teach one objective at a time and to adjust as needed.

Teachers should "establish that there are four main things that a teacher needs to know before going into the class to teach a lesson:

- ✓ The aim of the lesson
- ✓ What new language the lesson contains.
- ✓ The main stages of the lesson (i.e. how it divides into different activities).
- ✓ What to do at each stage³

¹ DeCecco, J. P. *The Psychology of Learning and Instruction*. Prentice Hall, 1974 (second edition).

² Orlich, Harder, Callahan, Gibson. *Teaching Strategies: A Guide to Better Instruction*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, Co. 1998. p. 80

³ Adrian Doff, (2002) *Teach English, A Training Course for Teachers*, Cambridge University Press, p.93

Strong, concise statements of objectives of the lesson are always an essential component of any lesson plan. According to A. Doff (2002) it is always important to see what the general aim of the lesson is. A lesson may focus on:

1. A particular topic –(so the aim may be- *to learn the names of colours; to practice language for buying clothes*)
2. A particular structure- so the aim might be- *to describe actions using the present continuous tense; to practice 'going to' for talking about future plans*
3. A skill- so the aim of the lesson might be- *to understand instructions for using a machine; to express opinion freely in English about marriage*¹

Teachers, mainly beginners, often find difficulties in writing objectives. Instructional objectives are **specific, measurable, short-term, observable student behaviours**. Objectives provide an organized pathway that will make it possible to meet the higher goals. Objectives for sequencing a unit plan will be more general than for specifying a lesson plan. Objectives should be simple, unambiguous, and clearly focused as a guide to learning. The purpose of objectives is not to restrict spontaneity or constrain the vision of education in the discipline; but to ensure that learning is focused clearly enough that both students and teacher know what is going on. Objectives should be expressed in terms of student performance, behaviour, and achievement, not teacher activity. While writing objectives it is advisable to keep in mind the following principles:²

1. An instructional objective describes an intended outcome that is measurable rather than a description or summary of learning content.
2. Sound instructional objectives are stated in terms of what the learner will be doing when demonstrating his achievement of the objective.
 - **Verbs to Avoid** when writing objectives: *to know, to understand, to really understand, to appreciate, to fully appreciate, to grasp the significance of, to enjoy, to believe*
 - **Verbs to Use** when writing objectives: *to write, to recite, to identify, to differentiate, to solve, to construct, to list, to compare, to contrast*
3. Define the important conditions under which the behaviour is to occur
4. Define the criterion of acceptable performance, if applicable.
5. Apply your knowledge of Bloom's Taxonomy

Type of Cognition	Definition	Example	Illustrative Verbs
Knowledge	The remembering of previously learned material. May include remembering of facts, terms, principles, and full theories in the form learned.	Knows common facts, Knows specific facts, Knows methods and procedures, Knows basic concepts, Knows principles	defines, describes, identifies, labels, lists, matches, names, outlines, reproduces, selects
Comprehension	Understanding the meaning of material without relating it to other material.	Understands facts and principles, Interprets charts and graphs, Summarizes or explains material, Estimates consequences implied in data, Justifies methods	Converts, defends, distinguishes, estimates, explains, extends, generalizes, gives examples, infers, paraphrases, predicts, rewrites, summarizes
Application	Using learned material in new concrete situations. This may include the application of concepts,	Applies principles, Applies theories to practical situations, Constructs charts and	Changes, computes, demonstrates, discovers, manipulates, modifies,

¹ Ibid, p.94

² Adapted from *Preparing Instructional Objectives* by Robert F. Mager, UK 1984

	laws, principles	graphs, Demonstrates correct usage	operates, predicts, prepares, produces, relates, shows, solves, uses
Analysis	The ability to break down concepts into their component parts so that its organizational structure is understood. This may include the identification of parts, analysis of relationships between parts, and recognition of the organizational principles involved.	Recognizes instated assumptions, Recognizes logical fallacies in reasoning, Distinguishes between facts and inferences, Evaluates the relevancy of data, Analyses the structure of	Breaks down, diagrams, differentiates, discriminates, distinguishes, illustrates, infers, outlines, points out, relates, selects, subdivides
Synthesis:	The ability to put elements together to form a new pattern. Outcomes stress creative behaviours with emphasis on the formulation of new patterns.	Writes a well-organized theses, Proposes a plan for an experiment, Integrates learning from separate areas, Formulates a scheme to classify objects	Categorizes, combines, complies, composes, devises designs, explains, generates, modifies, organizes, plans, rearranges, reconstructs, relates, reorganizes, revises, rewrites, summarizes
Evaluation	The ability to judge the value of material for a specified purpose based on definite criteria.	Judges the consistency of written material, Judges the adequacy with which conclusions are supported by data	Appraises, compares, concludes, contrasts, criticizes, discriminates, explains, justifies, interprets, relates, supports

II. A Modern English Lesson

The lesson plan used by teachers may be presented in many different kinds of formats and styles. There are several types of lessons:

1. *Lesson of communication of new knowledge* (Lecture; Conversation/talk lesson; Lesson using an educational film; research lesson- practical individual projects; combined)
2. *Combined/mixed lessons* (Lecture; excursion lesson; expedition lesson; research lesson; drama lesson; educational conference; travelling lesson; multi-media lesson; problem lesson; dialogue lesson; essay/composition lesson; role-play lesson;)
3. *Lesson of fixation of knowledge and of developing skills and abilities/ lesson of reinforcement* (independent/individual work lesson; laboratory work lessons; excursion; seminar)
4. *Lessons of systemization and revision of knowledge/ Revision Lesson* (all 5 types)
5. *Lesson of verification and control of knowledge/ Testing* (Oral verification- frontal, individual, group examination; written assessment; test; practical assignments)

Each type has constant elements, changing elements and common features.

1. Lesson of communication of new knowledge

Stages:

1. Checking of previous knowledge
2. Formulation of the subject
3. Communication of knowledge (presentation)
 - Teacher's exposition

- Partial fixation
 - Exposition
 - Partial fixation
 - Model reading
4. Fixation of knowledge (practice and production)
 5. Homework

2. Combined/mixed lessons

Features

- are the most frequently used types of lessons
- verification must be blended with acquisition of the new knowledge
- fixation must be the most important element of the lesson because it develops skills

Stages

1. Checking of previous knowledge
2. Formulation of the subject
3. Communication of knowledge (presentation)
4. Fixation of knowledge (practice and production)
5. Homework

3. Lesson of fixation of knowledge and of developing skills and abilities/ lesson of reinforcement

Features

1. in a teaching unit the lesson of fixation is generally the last one
2. new skills or abilities might be formed or developed grounded on previously acquired knowledge
3. they are similar to lessons of systematization and revision but we work with a much more reduced quantity of material
4. the stress is being laid on drills which contribute on the development of drills
5. they may be lessons meant to develop listening- speaking- skills, reading skills, writing, spelling or pronunciation
6. an interesting type is the lesson based on the four skills.

Stages

1. Correcting the homework
2. Formulation of the object of the lesson
3. Revision of the theoretical part of the problem
4. Practice (graded and varied drills up to 'free' communication)
5. Evaluation
6. Homework

4. Lessons of systemization and revision of knowledge/ revision Lesson

Features

- these lessons may take place at the beginning of the school year, at the end of the theme or chapter, before the test paper and at the end of the school year
- dynamism is an essential condition for each lesson and it can be achieved using question-answer practice with all the pupils, the use of auxiliary aids and the combination of various methods and procedures
- new elements should be possibly be introduced (new texts, new drills,, etc.)

Stages

1. Specification of the problem to be dealt with
2. repetition or systematization proper
3. Evaluation

5. Lesson of verification and control of knowledge/ Testing

Features

-in order to make sure of the degree in which different skills are mastered by the pupils and to realize the shortcomings- special lessons of verification and control are required

These lessons differ from the lessons of systematization and revision in one essential point- they are focused on checking knowledge, not enrich or systematize the students' knowledge

Stages

1. Communication of the aim of testing
2. Testing
3. Appreciation of work and conclusions
4. Homework¹

It is perfect if the teacher develops her/his own style sheet or plan structure. The plan should have a clear structure: ***an introduction, the development and a conclusion***. Several essential elements should be included in each of these important development stages in the plan. Although fundamental lesson planning elements tend to remain unchanged, their basic formula is always modified to suit the individual teacher's lesson preparation or style of presentation. "It is much easier to plan the details of a lesson if we think in terms of separate stages rather than trying to think of the lesson as a whole".²

When planning the different stages of the lesson, the teacher should consider the following questions:

1. Introduction of the Strategy
 - ✓ What supporting activities could you use to introduce the strategy?
 - ✓ How will you provide background knowledge? Introduce new vocabulary?
2. Modelling and Demonstration
 - ✓ How will you model and demonstrate the strategy? Will you use other texts?
 - ✓ What support materials are needed?
3. Guided Practice
 - ✓ How will you prepare students to read the selection?
 - ✓ How will you scaffold student learning as they use the strategy in their reading? How will students respond to their reading using the strategy?
4. Independent Practice
 - ✓ How will students apply the strategy independently?
 - ✓ What activities will allow them to apply the strategy concept? How will they demonstrate effective strategy use?³

Learning a foreign language implies the acquisition of the four language skills. In Moldova textbooks are organized in such a way that during one class, i.e. 45 minutes, the teacher is supposed to combine reading, writing, speaking, listening, and sometimes new grammar. It is a very complicated task, and many of the teachers hardly cope with it. Maybe teachers should concentrate on a few activities, which will lead to a better consolidation and retention of the material. It is practically impossible in 45 min. to manage to automatize the newly introduced material.

It is natural that teachers have to combine several stages of the lesson, in order to make it interesting and cognitive. According to A. Doff:⁴

- A single lesson will not include all the stages.
- The stages are in no fixed order...
- The stages overlap. For example, reading a text might be part of the presentation, or it might be a separate activity.

While planning a class the teacher has to follow several stages of the lesson. "Careful planning helps the teacher to keep pupils' progress in language learning under constant control and use teaching aids and teaching materials more effectively."⁵

Stages of the lesson are: Evocation; Realization of meaning; Reflection and Extension.

While working out a lesson plan teachers should be aware that plans are not "written just for the benefit of the inspector or head teacher; its main purpose should be to help the teacher. [] Writing a lesson plan helps teachers to prepare the lesson; it helps them decide exactly what they will do and how they will do it. There is no 'correct' way to write a lesson plan, although a good lesson plan

¹ Based on: <http://www.scribd.com/doc/36026244/Types-of-Lessons-Used-in-Tech-Ing-English>

² Adrian Doff,(2002) *Teach English, A Training Course for Teachers*, Cambridge University Press, p.9

³ <http://www.learner.org/channel/workshops/readingk2/session4/piip3.html>

⁴ Adrian Doff,(2002) *Teach English, A Training Course for Teachers*, Cambridge University Press, p.97-98

⁵ G. Rogova,(1983), *Methods of Teaching English*, "Prosveshchenije", p.241

should give clear picture of what the teacher intends to do in the lesson.][If the teacher's book already gives detailed instructions teachers should try to think of alternative ways of approaching the lesson and ideas of their own."¹

The following samples of Lesson Plans will help teachers elaborate their own plans.

Recommended Readings:

1. A. Doff, *Teach English, A Training Course for Teachers*, Cambridge Un. Press, p.93-102; 269-278.
2. J. Harmer , *The Practice of FLT*, Longman, p. 256-274
3. P.Hubbard, H. Jones, *A Training Course for TEFL*, Oxf. Un.Press, p. 155-187
4. L. Foca, "The Importance of Textbooks in Teaching a Foreign Language", in the book "*Language Development and Teaching*", *Materials of the International Conference*, Balti, 2004, p.24-26.
5. G. Rogova, *Methods of Teaching English*, 1983., p.236-249
6. N.Sevciuc "Warm Up Activities in TEFL Class" in the book "*Language Development and Teaching*", *Materials of the International Conference*, Balti, 2004, p.35-37

Questions for Discussion:

1. Why planning significant in FL acquisition?
2. What types of lessons do you know?

Pair-work

Choose a Lesson from a textbook and develop the objectives and the competences of the lesson

Project work

Choose a Lesson from a textbook and develop a Lesson Project. Follow the Model:

¹ Adrian Doff,(2002) *Teach English, A Training Course for Teachers*, Cambridge University Press, p100-101