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Lecture 1: METHODOLOGY OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SCIENCE AND ITS RELATION TO OTHER SCIENCES

1. Methods of teaching English: its content and tasks.

Language teaching came into its own as a profession in the last century. Central to this phenomenon was the emergence of the concept of "methods" of language teaching. The method concept in language teaching - the notion of a systematic set of teaching practices based on a particular theory of language and language learning – is a powerful one, and the quest for better methods was a preoccupation of teachers and applied linguists throughout the 20th century.

Methodology in language teaching has been characterized in a variety of ways. A more or less classical formulation suggests that methodology is that which links theory and practice. Theory statements would include theories of what language is and how language is learned or, more specifically, theories of second language acquisition. Such theories are linked to various design features of language instruction. These design features might include stated objectives, syllabus specifications, types of activities, roles of teachers, learners, materials, and so forth. Design features in turn are linked to actual teaching and learning practices as observed in the environments where language teaching and learning take place. This whole complex of elements defines language teaching methodology.

Ukrainian students, like many English as a Foreign Language (EFL) student, come to study for two reasons: either to learn how to use English, especially for speaking and to a lesser degree writing; or to obtain a certificate; or both, as is the case with the majority. Those students that want to learn to speak need English in their work or for job interviews. They also need English for their leisure time, to travel or meet tourists that come to Ukraine, or to better understand British and American cultures as they appear in movies, music, or literature. At the same time, those that want a certificate in Ukraine and many countries around the world certificates are required the need to know and be able to use the structure and vocabulary of English.

Thus we understand the word "methods" (or methodology) in the following three meanings:

- methods as a pedagogical science which combines general features of any other science (theoretical background, experimental base, objects of checking the hypothesis) and specific features connected with peculiarities of a certain subject;
- methods as a combination of forms, methods and techniques of the teacher's job; sometimes - techniques used by a certain group of teachers in . their practical work;
- methods as a university discipline.

- Methods is closely connected with the concept of the learning process which includes three basic components:

- Teaching activities of the teacher. The process of learning demands both activities - that of the teacher as well as that of the students. At the earlier stages of the teaching-learning process the teacher's activity prevales, but as the process goes on the teacher's activity decreases while the student's activity increases.

Learning activities of the students. To learn, students need at least to be awake and paying some kind of attention; if they are asleep, or if their attention is elsewhere (which with adolescents is frequently the case), they are not going to learn much. Perhaps this recognition is one reason for the relatively recent shift from observing teachers in action to observing students in action: what are they up to while the teacher is "teaching"? A lot of people think that learning a language involves simply acquiring knowledge like learning history or geography. But learning a language is a lot more like learning tennis – it involves learning a skill, Ukraine, or to better understand British and American cultures as they appear in movies, music, or literature. At the same time, those that want a certificate in Ukraine and many countries around the world certificates are required the need to know and be able to use the structure and vocabulary of English.

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drills, but also spontaneous practice with real partners. It is the same with English. What leads to mastery of the language is not only learning the "rules of the game" - grammar and doing repetitive drills, but also spontaneous practice with real partners, classmates, for example.

- Learning organization. It includes the following factors:

➢ Teaching goals (objectives). For the teachers it is necessary to keep in mind the teaching goals with the two key words: communication and rigor: that is, a communicative approach within a rigorous framework should be applied. To achieve these aims, it is important to stress the interaction of three elements: pacing, content, and evaluation. Pacing relates to the rhythm of a class and the degree to which class time is used well. Since students study only three or two hours per week in school, the teachers try to maximize the time by doing activities that can be done only in class; that is activities which require the presence of either the teacher or the class-males. This can include grammar exercises that are not rote or that are done or checked with partners, or grammar explanations when students are not clear on a point. However, class time is spent mainly on activities in which the students use the language by speaking and listening, and to a lesser degree writing and reading. Class time is also spent giving students feedback on their performance. Pacing in the class not only involves knowing what to spend class time on but also involves knowing what to leave for homework. Rote grammar exercises, long readings, writing, and other individual activities that require time and reflection more than the presence of a teacher or classmate are ideal candidates for homework. The greatest measure of good pacing is that students leave each class feeling that they have learned something concrete, either that they have practiced a lot or that they have acquired more knowledge about the language, and that the time in class has been well spent. The content is divided into three parts: input, focus on structure, and output. Input means that students are given rich and varied exposure to English; they are literally bombarded with aural and written English at the appropriate level. This input is provided both in class and in such homework assignments as

reading/listening/vocabulary journals, seeing movies in English, and reading authentic texts or graded readers. However, input alone will not lead to students' learning how to use the language. In order to achieve accurate output, students must learn how the structure of the language works. In the native environment, EFL students have lots of input and direct response to their output - if they use incorrect structures or accents, native speakers probably will not understand them and they will have to adjust their language accordingly. This tends not to happen in the EFL environment since the other students, and frequently the teacher too, understand the inter-language (in our case, Ukrainian) perfectly well, maybe even better than native English. Students are given rich input in order to learn what good English looks and sounds like. They are given the rules of the language so that they know how to put the elements together correctly. And finally, they are given opportunities to practice and express themselves in English in both written and spoken forms. Written practice is done largely outside of class although there are certainly times when writing in class is valuable. However, speaking practice occupies a large part of class time and is achieved not only through a communicative approach in which students participate actively, but also through specific speaking activities. And for both written and spoken output, error correction takes place to ensure that students are learning and improving from their practice, especially since they lack the real-life feed-back that EFL students receive outside the class which indicates the last element - evaluation.

- The content of teaching, i.e., what to teach to reach the goals.
- Teaching methods and techniques, i.e., how to teach English to reach the goals in the most effective way.

The first component of the content of teaching English is psychological -habits and skills which ensure the use of the target language as a means of communication in oral (listening and speaking) and written (reading and writing) forms, and which pupils should acquire while learning English. According to the aims of learning

English they are: habits and skills in listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing.

The second component of "what to teach" is a linguistic one. It includes language material: phonetic elements, grammar and vocabulary, sentence-patterns, utterance-patterns, pattern-dialogues, texts different in style and arranged in topics. They serve as the starting points for the development of oral and written language skills.

The third component of the content of teaching English is methodological. Pupils should be taught how to learn the foreign language, how to work at certain language material in order to bring the least effort and to achieve the best results (for example, how to memorize words and keep them in memory, how to perform drill exercises to acquire some habit).

So, methods of teaching English is a science the main tasks of which are: to study the goals, content, teaching methods and techniques, the ways of learning and teaching on the basis of foreign language material.

2. The relation of Methodology to other sciences.

Methodology of teaching English is closely related to such sciences as Pedagogics, Psychology, Physiology, Linguistics, and some others.

Pedagogics is the science concerned with general teaching and education. One branch of Pedagogics is called Didactics which studies general ways of teaching in schools. Methodology, as compared to Didactics, studies the specific ways of teaching a definite subject. Thus Methodology may be considered as a special Didactics. In the foreign language teaching, as well as in the teaching of other school subjects, general principles of Didactics are applied, and in their turn, influence and enrich Didactics. Eg., the so called principle of visualization was first introduced in teaching foreign languages, now it has become one of the fundamental principles of Didactics and is used in teaching all school subjects. Programmed instruction was first applied in teaching Mathematics. Now through Didactics it is used in teaching many subjects, including foreign languages.

It would be impossible to develop language habits and speech skills without information about the ways of forming them, the influence of formerly acquired habits on the formation of new ones which is supplied by Psychology. Eg., effective learning a foreign language depends to a great extent on the pupil's memory. That is why a teacher must know how he can help his pupils to successfully memorize and retain in memory the language material they learn. Here psychological investigations are significant. Psychologists proved that in learning a subject both voluntary and involuntary memories are of great importance. They also came to a conclusion that involuntary memory is retentive. Consequently, in teaching English teachers should create favorable conditions for involuntary memorizing.

Methodology of foreign language teaching has a definite relation to Physiology of the pupils' higher nervous system. Pavlov's theory of "conditioned reflexes" is the example. According to Pavlov habits are conditioned reflexes, and a conditioned reflex is an action performed automatically in response to a definite stimulus as a result of previous frequent repetitions of the same action. If we thoroughly study this theory we shall see that it explains and confirms the necessity for frequent repetition and revision of material the pupils study as one of the means of habits formation.

Methodology of foreign language teaching is closely related to Linguistics, since Linguistics deals with the problems that are of great importance to Methodology: language and speech, grammar and vocabulary, the relationship between grammar and vocabulary, and many others. Methodology successfully uses, for example, the results of linguistic investigation in the selection and arrangement of language material for teaching.

3. The principles of teaching English.

Principle is defined as a guide to action, in our case to teaching. Methodology of teaching English is based on the fundamental principles of Didactics. They are the following: scientific approach in teaching, accessibility, durability, conscious approach, activity, visualization and individual approach to instruction, systematic practice. Except for the basic didactic principles Methodology of teaching English

uses specific principles that are applied in teaching a foreign language. Let's consider them.

Since the aim of teaching English at school is to teach the pupils how to use the target language for communicative needs, one of the main methodological principles is the principle of communicative approach. It means that the pupils should be involved in oral and written communication throughout the whole course of learning English.

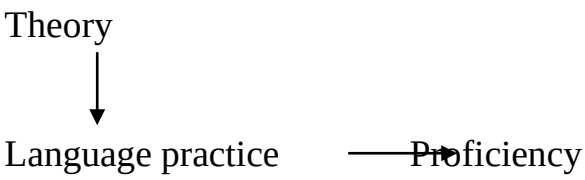
There are four types of language activities to be developed in pupils: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Each language activity has its own set of actions that are characteristic of this activity, thus special exercises are needed which should be adequate to each activity. So in teaching a particular language activity the teacher faces specific problems that should be solved since the development of each activity requires certain techniques and exercises. This is the application of the principle of a differential approach in teaching English, i.e. each language activity requires special attention on the part of the teacher.

The principle of an integrated approach is another methodological principle. Pupils do not assimilate sounds, grammar units, lexical items as discrete components of the language, but they acquire them in sentence-patterns, pattern-dialogues related to certain situations. Pupils should use their skills in the four language activities as interdependent parts of their language experience.

The principle of durability implies the ability of a pupil to keep in his memory linguistic and language material he learns of ready access, i.e. the pupil can use units of the language whenever he needs them for oral or written communication. The durability is ensured: – by vivid presentation of material; - by constant revision and drills; – by the use of the material on the part of the learner for communicative needs; – by systematic control; – by constant supervision of pupil's habits and skills on the part of the teacher.

The principle of conscious approach to language learning means that the language material is acquired consciously, the pupil understands what he learns. Such approach usually contrasts with "mechanical" learning throughout repetitive drill. So

the pupils should acquire the rules of the language in order to be able to follow them in the act of communication. B.V. Belyajev described the process of language learning by means of the following scheme:



The vertical arrow stands for knowledge or theory. The horizontal arrow represents the process of mastering the language. Only language practice supported by theory can develop language habits and skills in a desirable direction (especially for the senior students and adults).

The principle of activity implies that the pupils should be active participants in the learning process. Activity arises under certain conditions. According to the Sets Theory (теорія установки) the learner should feel the need to learn the language, thus the main sources of activity are motivation, desire and interest in the language.

The principle of visualization is very important in teaching English since the process of knowledge gaining begins with sense perception. The use of visualization makes the lessons emotionally colored, gets the pupils interested and awakens their thought. It creates natural or almost natural situations for the use of the language as a means of communication. The principle of individualization is getting very important at present. There always are some individuals in the class who learn more slowly than others, or faster than others. The teacher has to assess the progress of each individual in the class and find the way how to manage the classroom activity so that the slowest learners are not depressed being left behind and the fastest learners are not frustrated by being held back. This principle is achieved: by using the individual cards; by specific selection of exercises for each group of pupils in the class; by the use of additional material, etc.

4. Aims and objectives of teaching English.

The aims are the first and most important consideration in any teaching. The teacher should know exactly what his pupils are expected to achieve in learning English, what changes he can bring about in his pupils' knowledge at the end of the

course, year, term, month, week, and each particular lesson. The term "aims" is considered to be long-term goals such as to cover the upper-intermediate course program with beginners. The term "objectives" can be used for short-term goals that may reasonably be achieved in a classroom lesson.

There are three types of aims (objectives) which should be achieved in foreign language teaching:

- practical – pupils acquire habits and skills in using a foreign language;
- educational – in the process of learning a foreign language the pupils acquire their own learning habits and strategies, they learn to study;
- developmental – they develop their mental abilities and intelligence in the process of learning a foreign language;
- cultural – pupils extend their knowledge of the world in which they live and in which the speakers of the target language live.

5. How to motivate students of English.

Motivation has been defined in different ways: it is what makes us act; it is a desire to work towards a goal or to reach an objective. If motivation is present, learning can be facilitated; but without it, effective learning becomes difficult. Motivation is the key to all learning. Lack of motivation is perhaps the biggest obstacle faced by teachers, counselors, school administrators, and parents. Behavioral problems in the classroom often, or always, seem to be linked to the lack of motivation. Intelligent students are often out-performed by less bright students with high motivation. If a child is motivated enough he/she can accomplish learning of any scale.

Intrinsic motivation. The main idea of motivation is to capture the child's attention and curiosity and channel their energy towards learning. Intrinsic motivation is motivation from within the student. An intrinsically motivated student studies because he/she wants to study. The material is interesting, challenging and rewarding, and the student receives some kind of satisfaction from learning. To have an intrinsically motivated student is the goal of all motivational development.

Extrinsic motivation. An extrinsically motivated student studies and learns for other reasons. Such a student performs in order to receive a reward, like graduating or passing a test or getting a new shirt from his or her mother, or to avoid a penalty like a failing grade. Here is a description of one of extrinsically motivated students. She is a very good student, and actually shows signs of being intrinsically motivated, but in general she is inclined to put forth the minimal effort necessary to get the maximal reward. When she is given an assignment in class, she often tries to chat with her friends or fails to get started, but if the teacher says this will be taken up and graded, she is often the first one to finish. Her intrinsic motivation shows when the material is of great interest to her, or something she feels strongly about. Also, if the teacher can get her curious about something, without her being distracted, she works hard at it. She performs well if she is given a task where she has control, the task is very clear, and she is involved in the dynamics of the class. It seems that when intrinsic motivation is low or absent, extrinsic motivation must be used. Although extrinsic motivation can, and should, be used with intrinsically motivated students, too. If students aren't given a reward or credit for their efforts, and no feedback is given to the student, then most students' intrinsic motivation would begin to decrease.

Becoming intrinsically motivated. There are many ways teachers can help their students become intrinsically motivated:

- There should be a mild level of anxiety, or "low affective filter" in the classroom and in the whole learning environment. The attitude the student has towards the learning environment, the teacher, the material, and towards him/herself all affect this level of anxiety. A student will find it difficult to perform in a stressful environment.
- Proper classroom explanation is needed by the teacher, so the students can well understand what is expected of them. In the EFL classroom it is more apt to create anxiety because the explanations are given in another language that takes even more effort by the students to comprehend than their own language. A well-planned lesson is essential. The teacher must be creative and flexible. Depending on the nature of the class and the students' levels, the

dynamics of the class must be appropriate. The lessons must be very simple, yet funny and interesting, with a lot of changes from a writing exercise, to speaking, listening, back to writing, and so on, all in the same class.

- ❖ The material must also be relevant to the students. Try to use vocabulary that the students can relate to and material they would find interesting.

- ❖ Another important aspect of improving the intrinsic motivation of the students is to be a caring teacher. Although guidelines, and rules milts be set and understood by the students, and if they cross the guidelines and punishment follows, the teacher must be approachable and understanding. Students must feel the teacher is genuine and supportive, and the students' values and opinions will be respected. Teachers must be kind and listen fairly to the students, and be patient when they don't understand. A caring teacher tries to develop a relationship with the students. If the teacher sees potential in all students, and communicates this well to the students, they will in return build a desire to learn and participate.

- ❖ Energy sells. A teacher's positive energy could lead to the students becoming more motivated. If the students see that the teacher is happy to be in the classroom and excited to teach them, then the students can learn by example. A smile is essential. Positive attitude is a must for a successful learning atmosphere. To promote self-confidence, it helps if the teacher is self-confident. Positive approval and praise for student efforts is very effective, even if the student is wrong. Let the students know that you're glad they tried and being wrong isn't such a big problem, and the students won't be so reluctant the next time they're called on to participate. Positive energy affirming a belief in the students' ability develops a comfortable atmosphere for the students in the classroom.

- ❖ Increased parental awareness is also crucial to a child's motivation. To support motivation, parents must participate actively in the student's life. The same set of goals and practices at school that promote motivation should

be followed at home. If they are not followed at home, it could dilute classroom efforts.

The following suggestions of motivating students may also be helpful in any language classroom:

- Make use of the students' environment. Foreign language teaching should always be linked to the environment of the learners. A teacher who teaches English without addressing the immediate environment of the school makes the English lesson detached from the learners' experiences. In order to remedy the situation, teachers can link the environment of the school to any activity or exercise that they want to carry out in the classroom. A child has a natural context in which he organizes the various activities that make up his life. If these activities are "reproduced" in the language classroom, it is possible to motivate him/her to do the task at hand. Therefore games and other daily activities should constitute the heart of the English class. The only new factor will be the language itself. Used in this way, English will no longer be feared and students will be more inclined to study it.
- Present the language in natural chunks. In a foreign language situation, the teacher remains the main source or model for the pupils. She or he should try hard to use the language as naturally as possible.
- Use appropriate visual aids. Visual aids are important tools for the teacher. Used appropriately in the classroom, they enable the teacher to avoid long and confusing explanations. At the same time they help the teacher to have a lively class as students associate real objects with their English equivalents.
- Include cultural components. Language and culture are interrelated. One cannot study a language without noting the cultural aspects of the people who use the language natively. However, cultural aspects can be a real hindrance because they may set up barriers to comprehension. This is more evident to teachers who are not native speakers of the target language themselves. For this reason, teachers should provide sufficient background

information to enable the learners to understand the cultural content that is naturally present in the target language.

- Become an efficient manager. A company's success is usually attributed to the way in which it is managed. Likewise, the success of a language course reflects the teacher's dexterity or expertise. In other words, the teacher should know how to talk to his students if they are to fully participate in the lesson. In this respect, their interests, needs, and experiences must be taken into consideration. The student factor, as it is often called, should be carefully examined. The deciding factor here is the way in which the teacher talks to his pupils. When the teacher is humane and sensitive, seeing his students as capable of contributing something to the lessons, a warm and enjoyable classroom atmosphere can be created and maintained.

If the above principles are taken into account and implemented with care, teachers will be able to have lively English lessons.

6. The process of scientific investigation in Methodology of teaching English.

Methods of foreign language teaching like any other science has definite ways of investigating the problems which may arise. They are:

- a critical study of the ways foreign languages were taught in the world;
- a thorough study and summarizing of the experience of the best foreign language teachers in different types of schools;
- experimenting with the aim of confirming or refusing the working hypotheses that may arise during investigation.

Steps in the process of scientific investigation in Methods of teaching English:

- first the teacher has to define a problem in teaching English and to set out possible ways and techniques for overcoming them (he formulates a hypothesis);
- research in Methods usually begins with observation of what is going on in the classroom. Talks, interviews or questionnaires with teachers and pupils are also used at this stage of the investigation;

- experimental teaching or teaching which differs in some respect from conventional teaching is the next step in Methods research;
- experiment or specially arranged teaching with the purpose of solving the problem is the last step in the investigation process. It is used for testing hypothesis. The experiment requires the following procedure: - pre-test in all the groups both control and those taken for experimenting; - experimental sessions (lessons); - post-test. Then the teacher presents the results of the experiment and, in case the hypothesis is confirmed, he suggests his own effective way of solving the problem which can be taken for granted by other teachers. In recent years there has been a great increase of interest in Methodology.

Many new methods and techniques have been developed and put into practice.

The teacher should be aware of these new trends, techniques and methods in order to meet the needs of the contemporary learners.

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Lecture 2: TEACHING VOCABULARY

If language structures make up the skeleton of any language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh. An ability to manipulate grammatical structure does not have any potential for expressing meaning unless words are used. So it is important to be able to choose words carefully in certain situations.

For many years vocabulary was seen as not important to the main purpose of language teaching – namely the acquisition of grammatical knowledge about the language. Vocabulary was necessary to give students something to say when learning structures, but was frequently not the main focus for learning itself.

Recently, however, methodologists and linguists have increasingly been turning their attention to vocabulary, stressing its importance in language teaching. So it is now clear that the acquisition of vocabulary is just as important as the acquisition of grammar – though the two are obviously interdependent.

1. Components of the notion of "knowing a word".

Knowing a word involves being able to recognize it when it is heard or when it is seen. This includes being able to distinguish it from words with a similar form, to expect with what grammatical patterns the word will occur in, to recall the word's meaning when we meet it, to see which shade of meaning is the most suitable for the given context, to make various associations with other related words.

For example: knowing the word "suggest" involves expectation that this word is followed by an object sometimes in the form of a clause; knowing the word "music" involves expectation that it will not usually be used in the plural form.

a. Meaning.

The first thing to realize about vocabulary items is that they frequently have more than one meaning. So when we come across a word and try to understand its meaning, we have to look at the context in which it is used. If we see a woman in a theatre arguing at the ticket office saying "But I booked my tickets three weeks ago"

we will obviously understand the meaning of the word "book" which is different from the meaning used by a policeman accompanied by an unhappy-looking man at a police station saying to his colleague "We booked him for speeding". In other words, students need to understand the importance of meaning in context.

Sometimes words have meanings in relation to other words. The students need to know the meaning of "vegetable" as a word used to describe any one of a number of other things - carrots, potatoes, cabbages, etc. "Vegetable" has a general meaning, whereas "carrots" is more specific. Words also have opposites (antonyms) and they also have other words with similar meanings (synonyms). So we understand the meaning of a word "good" in the context of a word like "bad"; or in the context of a word like "evil":

good – bad; bad – evil.

But words seldom have absolute synonyms, although context may make them synonymous in particular situations. So students need to know about meaning in context and about sense relations.

b. Word usage.

What a word means can be changed, stretched or limited by how it is used and this is something students need to know about.

Word meaning is frequently stretched through the use of metaphor and idiom. We know that the word "hiss" describes the noise that snakes make. But we stretch its meaning to describe the way people talk to each other. ("Don't move or you're dead", she hissed.) That is metaphorical use. At the same time we can talk about treacherous people as snakes. (He's a real snake in the grass.) "Snake in the grass" is a fixed phrase that has become an idiom.

Word meaning is also governed by collocation - that is which words go with each other. We need to know that we can say "sprained ankle" or "sprained wrist", but we cannot say "sprained thigh" or "sprained rib". We can have a headache, stomachache, earache, toothache, but we cannot have a throatache or a legache.

We only use words in certain social and topical contexts. What we say is governed by the style and register we are in. If you want to tell someone you are

angry you will choose carefully between the neutral expression of this fact (I'm angry) and the informal version (I'm really pissed off). The latter would certainly sound rude to listeners in certain social contexts. We will also notice that two doctors will talk about an illness in a different register that one of them who talks to the patient in question - who has never studied medicine.

c. Word formation.

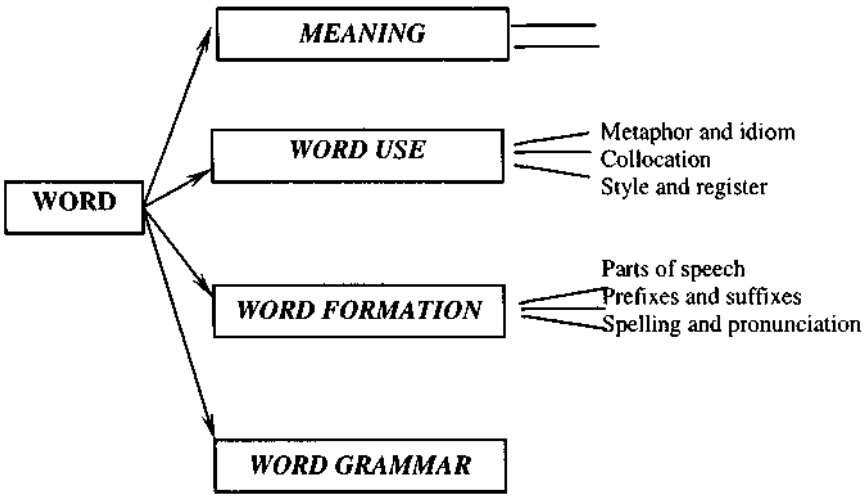
Students need to know:

- facts about word formation and how to put words to fit different grammatical contexts as words can change their shape and their grammatical value, too. The word "run" has the participles "running" and "ran". The present participle "running" can also be used as an adjective and "run" can also be a noun. There is clear relationship between words "death", "dead", "dying" and "die".

- how suffixes and prefixes work. How can we make the words extensive and possibly opposite in meaning? Why do we preface one with im- and the other with in how the words are spelt and how they sound. The way words are stressed is vital for a good understanding and usage of words in speech. Part of learning a word is learning its written and spoken form. Teachers can profit a lot from the processes of word formation as a powerful source for students' understanding and acquisition of vocabulary. In fact, vocabulary exploitation in books often resorts to notions of morphology, such as recognition of affixes and compound words as important topics in the development of reading strategies. One process of word formation, however, still deserves further attention: blends. Different from other processes of word formation such as compounding and derivation, blends do not consist of the combination of established morphemes and groups of morphemes. On the contrary, blends are words made up of parts of morphemes, or splinters. For instance, the word smog is a blend because it is formed by the combination of the splinters sm- and -og, which are parts of the morphemes smoke and fog.

As far as blends are concerned, they constitute a rich source for the creation of new words and the development of interesting and motivating classroom activities. In the examples shown, the blends constitute instances of the creativity of the language,

and of its capacity to coin new words to express the necessities of its speakers. Their presence in authentic texts indicate the relevance of their study. Possibilities are many.



Components of the notion of "knowing a word"

We can summarize the notion of "Knowing the word" in the following way:

Meaning in context Sense relations

d. Word grammar.

Just as words change according to their grammatical meaning, so the use of certain words can change the use of certain grammatical patterns.

We distinguish between countable and uncountable nouns. The word "chair" can be used with numerals - one chair, two chairs, but the word "furniture" can't. It is important to know that the modals are followed by the infinitive without the particle to. There are many other areas of grammatical behaviour of words that students need to know about.

2. The problem of vocabulary selection.

Usually teachers know what grammatical structures should be taught at what levels. One of the problems of vocabulary teaching is how to select what words to teach. Dictionaries for upper intermediate students usually have 55000 words or more, and they represent a small part of all the possible words in the language. Somehow we have to make sense of this huge list and reduce it to manageable proportions for our students.

A general principle in the past has been to teach more concrete words at lower levels and gradually move to more abstract. Words like "table", "chair", "chalk" can be found in the syllabus for beginners because the things which these words represent are there in front of the students and that's why can be easily explained. Words like "charity", "freedom" are far more difficult to explain, so they are introduced at the upper levels.

When preparing a word list for the students to learn the teachers have to take into consideration the following criteria:

- frequency;
- coverage;
- language needs;
- stylistic value;
- word formation value;
- ease of learning or learning burden;
- regularity;
- familiarity with the corresponding word in the students' mother tongue. The first three are the most important in teaching vocabulary. A general

principle of vocabulary selection is that of frequency. We can decide which words we should teach on the basis of how frequently they are used by the speakers of the language. The words which are most commonly used are the ones we should teach first.

The coverage of the word is its capacity to take the place of other words. So a word is more useful if it covers more things than if it only has one very specific meaning. The word "foot" is useful from the point of view of coverage because:

- it can often be used to make a definition of other words: the heel is the back part of the foot;
- its meaning can be extended to replace other words: "the base of a tree" can be replaced by "the foot of a tree";
- it can be combined with other words to make new words: footpath; football; footstep, etc.

The criterion of the language needs makes important the distinction between "active" and "passive" vocabulary. The first refers to vocabulary that students are expected to be able to use. The latter refers to words which the students will recognize when they meet them but which they will probably not be able to produce.

3. Techniques in teaching vocabulary.

Much of teaching vocabulary is unplanned. It may arise because one student has a problem with a word that has come up in the lesson. Alternatively, it may be that in the course of the lesson the teacher suddenly realizes that an important item he or she has just introduced or is about to introduce is unknown to the majority of the students. At such points the teacher has to improvise the explanation and do some unplanned teaching.

There are, however, steps that can be taken to help teachers prepare for such moments. The best strategy is to reach the understanding with your class so that they accept that it is not necessary for them to understand every word that they encounter with the same degree of depth. Then, when such a word arises in the lesson, the teacher can warn the students that it's not important and give either a very slight explanation or possibly none at all.

However, if the teacher believes that the word is worth explaining and learning, then it is important that this is done efficiently, and a set of procedures should be automatically set into operation. It is called "The three C's approach":

- first, the teacher should convey the meaning;
- second, the teacher checks that the student has understood properly;
- third, the teacher should consolidate and try to get the students to relate the word to their personal experience, preferably using it in a personally meaningful context.

It is useful to make a distinction between direct and indirect vocabulary learning. In direct vocabulary learning the learners do exercises and activities that focus their attention on vocabulary. Such exercises include word-building, guessing words from context when this is done as a class exercise, learning words in lists, and vocabulary

games. In indirect vocabulary learning the Jearn-ers's attention is focused on some other feature, usually the message that is con-

veyed by a speaker or writer. If the amount of unknown vocabulary is low in such a message, considerable vocabulary learning can occur even though the learners' attention is not directed toward vocabulary learning.

According to these two ways of vocabulary learning there are two types of vocabulary teaching. The first is similar to the unplanned vocabulary teaching in which the words taught are incidental to the objective of the lesson. The teacher has predicted that certain key words are going to cause difficulty for the students and has devised an approach to deal with them in order for the rest of the lesson to proceed smoothly. The second type of planned vocabulary teaching can be described as the "Vocabulary lesson", since the primary objective of the teaching activities is the presentation and practice of the lexical items themselves.

Many language students are concerned that they aren't learning enough words. True, they are learning words incidentally in almost every activity that takes place in the second language classroom. However, students still need a time set aside for vocabulary study when words can be presented to them thoroughly and systematically. Students need a sense of measurable growth in their vocabulary knowledge and this is what the vocabulary lesson can achieve.

This doesn't mean that the vocabulary lesson should occur in isolation. On the contrary, a set of vocabulary items can be taught in the course of different activities: discussions, situational dialogues, readings, listening tasks, etc.

In teaching vocabulary it is suggested that the items selected for the lesson come from the same lexical domain - eg., words relating to marriage, words of size and shape, adjectives of happiness and sadness. There are several advantages to this. First, by learning items in sets, the learning of one item can reinforce the learning of another. Second, items that are similar in meaning can be differentiated. Third, students may more likely feel a sense of progress in having mastered a set of words that will be necessary to speak on a certain topic. Finally, the follow-up activities can be more easily designed that help the students remember the items.

Stage 1. Convevins the meaning.

Vocabulary acquisition is increasingly viewed as crucial to language acquisition. However, there is much disagreement as to the effectiveness of different approaches for presenting vocabulary items. Moreover, learning vocabulary is often perceived as a tedious and laborious process.

There are numerous techniques concerned with vocabulary presentation. However, there are a few things that have to be remembered irrespective of the way new lexical items are presented. If teachers want students to remember new vocabulary, it needs to be learnt in context, practised, and then revised to prevent students from forgetting. Teachers must make sure students have understood the new words, which will be remembered better if introduced in a "memorable way". Bearing all this in mind, teachers have to remember to employ a variety of techniques for new vocabulary presentation and revision.

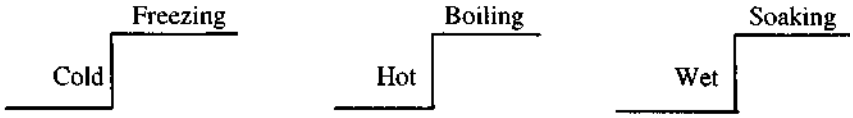
There is a multitude of ways to present a new lexical item to learners so that they can grasp its meaning. The number is limited only by the creativity of the teacher. These include:

- Visual aids. They pertain to visual memory which is considered especially helpful with vocabulary retention. Learners remember better the material that has been presented by means of visual aids. Visual techniques lend themselves well to presenting concrete items of vocabulary-nouns; many are also helpful in conveying meanings of verbs and adjectives. They help students associate presented material in a meaningful way and incorporate it into their system of language values. Teachers usually have their own personal stock of pictures, everyday objects, models which are ideal for teaching the names of concrete objects at the lower levels. However, a stock of high-quality impactful, situational pictures cut from magazines and catalogues may also be useful in presenting more abstract, conceptful and complex vocabulary at higher levels. A quick mime can easily convey an action or a concept, as can a drawing or a 5-second sketch on the board.

- Word relations. This pertains to the use of illustrative situations, synonymy, opposites, scales, definition and categories. The teacher can relate a target word to

another word that the students already know. The two most common types of word relation are synonymy and antonymy.

- Pictorial schemata. Explaining the relations that exist between words can be greatly enhanced by the use of some form of visual display or diagram which may include: diagrams, tree diagrams, or stepped scales. A good example is adjective intensification:



- Definition, explanation, examples, anecdotes. In some sense the teacher can be considered as a walking dictionary. The teacher's definition may not be as precise as that of the dictionary, but the teacher has the advantage of being able to give multiple example of usage and of being able to discuss a target word at length. Some words that are difficult to define can be brought to life by retelling a short story or by having the students imagine a set of circumstances from which it becomes possible to deduce the meaning of the item.

- Context. A challenging way to present a new item is by putting the word in a sentence or a couple of sentences in such a way that it may be possible for the students to guess its meaning. This is a good technique for helping students to use contexts to guess meanings; however, there is the danger that your example may be followed by confused silence when students fail to understand the item either because the context chosen by the teacher is unclear to the students, or because the students have the listening problem. It is probably advisable to use this technique with sentences that the students can read, thus having adequate time to process them.

- Use of dictionaries. Using a dictionary is another technique of finding out meanings of unfamiliar words and expressions. Students can make use of a variety of dictionaries: bilingual, monolingual, pictorial, thesauri, and the like. Dictionaries are "passports to independence," and using them is one of the student-centred learning activities.

- Using games. Many experienced textbook and methodology manuals writers have argued that games are not just time-filling activities but have a great educational

value. Most language games make learners use the language instead of thinking about learning the correct forms. Games should be treated as central not peripheral to the foreign language-teaching programme. Games must be fun but it is necessary to warn the teachers against overlooking their pedagogical value, particularly in foreign language teaching. There are many advantages of using games. Games can lower anxiety, thus making the acquisition of input more likely. They are highly motivating and entertaining, and they can give shy students more opportunity to express their opinions and feelings. They also enable learners to acquire new experiences within a foreign language which are not always possible during a typical lesson, add diversion to the regular classroom activities, break the ice, they are used to introduce new ideas. In the easy, relaxed atmosphere that is created by using games, students remember things faster and better. Many teachers are enthusiastic about using games as a teaching device, yet they often perceive games as mere time-fillers, a break from the monotony of drilling or frivolous activities. Many teachers often overlook the fact that in a relaxed atmosphere, real learning takes place, and students use the language they have been exposed to and have practised earlier. Games are believed to be a good way of practising language, for they provide a model of what learners will use the language for in real life in the future. Games encourage, entertain, teach, and promote fluency. If not for any of these reasons, they should be used just because they help students see beauty in a foreign language and not just problems that at times seem overwhelming.

Stage 2. Checking the understanding. The following activities may be helpful:

- Fill in the blanks. A traditional and effective way of checking students vocabulary comprehension is to have them fill in the blanks in a passage with an appropriate word. It encourages students to consider the context of the sentence to work out the probable missing word. At the same time, students are given the typical linguistic environment for the item. The most common type of fill-in-the-blank exercise is the forced-choice exercise, where the student is given the words to fit into the passage or sentences and has to find the appropriate gap for each. The blanked-out word need not always be the newly presented word.

- Matching pair. This exercise is the easiest to set up for checking vocabulary comprehension. In one place the target words are listed, the other can be a set of synonyms, antonyms, definitions, or pictures. More creative matching can be done by matching the items to some associational characteristics. Eg., if the target words are ways of walking, the matching items could be people who might walk in that way (stagger -a drunk; stroll - an elderly couple in a park; march - a soldier).

- Sorting exercises. The teacher gives the students a large group of words and asks them to sort the words into different categories according to different characteristics. Eg., foods can be sorted into meats, vegetables, and fruit.

- Pictorial schemata. Students can complete grids or charts that have the target items along one axis and characteristics along another.

Example: Vocabulary grid 1. Match each of these verbs with each of their meanings. Put a cross (X) in the right box, as in the example.

	st	w	m	li	h	ti	st	c
With each								
Quietly on								
Pressing more								
In a slow								
In an								
In the								
On your								
In no								

Vocabulary grid 2. Match each of these verbs with each of their meanings. Put a cross (X) in the right box, as in the example.

	Affe with ct	Beca un- use	Beca dif- use	So to as	So to as
Surpr	X	X			
Asto					
Ama					
Asto					
Elabb	X				X

Stage 3. Consolidation.

- Problem-solving tasks. In designing them for vocabulary use the trick is to design activities that repeatedly require the students to use the items when they are trying to solve the problem. Example: the target vocabulary is different types of TV programs: news, documentaries, game shows, etc. Students are asked to design a

weekend's TV schedule for a TV station, which must involve each type. They write out a schedule and have to justify why certain programs are scheduled at certain times.

- Values clarification Many values-clarification exercises make excellent vocabulary consolidation exercises. Take as an example a ranking activity where the students are asked to put into an order the qualities that they consider most to least important for the ideal spouse. Another typical values-clarification activity has the students assign punishments to certain crimes. The students work with two sets of items: the punishment (go to prison, go on probation, pay a fine) and the crimes (steal a car, rob a bank, drunk driving).

- Write a story or a dialogue. The teacher gives the students a number of words (10 to 15 is usually an appropriate number) and tells them to write a story or compose a dialogue in which the words occur. For more advanced students, this can be made more challenging and more fun, too, if the students are also told to use the words in the order that they have been written on the board.

- Discussion and Role-Play. Some sets of items lead to discussion work. Students are given a set of questions and asked to share their opinions, their experience, or their knowledge. Eg., if the vocabulary set contains different symptoms of illness (cough, sore throat, headache, insomnia), the students are asked to exchange opinions on what they consider to be effective treatments for each. Role-plays can also be designed so that a given set of items will predictably have been used by the role-play participants. Eg., the set of illness items could be activated by a visit-to-the-doctor role-play. Vocabulary relating to the law could be activated by a role-play trial scene.

4. Vocabulary and listening.

What vocabulary is needed to understand spoken English? From the small amount of evidence available in Methodology, it seems that about half the words needed to understand written English are needed to understand spoken English.

What should the teacher do when his students do not have enough vocabulary to understand spoken English? Some students have a large reading vocabulary and read

well but have great difficulty in following spoken English. Others may not have enough vocabulary to understand spoken English. To improve this situation the teachers have to use certain activities to turn reading vocabulary into a listening vocabulary stock.

1. A very effective technique is to choose an interesting simplified reading text which is at a vocabulary level well below the students' reading level. The teacher then reads the story aloud to the students for 10/ 15 minutes each day trying to keep the students' interest in the story. Wherever a word occurs which the teacher feels that the students might not recognize, the teacher writes it on the blackboard while repeating the sentence containing it. This is done without interrupting the flow of the story. If the word occurs again, the teacher simply points to it on the blackboard.

2. Dictation and predictation exercises provide a useful bridge between writing and listening.

3. The teacher writes the letters of a new word on the blackboard in the wrong order. Then she/ he says the word many times. By listening to the sound and looking at the letters, the students must try to spell the word correctly.

5. Vocabulary and speaking.

Speaking tasks such as mini-lectures, ranking activities, split information tasks, role-play, and problem solving discussion are not usually thought of as having vocabulary learning goals. One of the reasons for this is that it seems difficult to plan vocabulary learning as a part of a syllabus using activities that are largely productive, unpredictable, and subject to the whims of the people who happen to be in the discussion group.

Activities for learning vocabulary through speaking:

Retelling. Retelling activities can take many forms. What is common to all of them is that the learners read a text (usually about 100 to 200 words long), and retell it. From a vocabulary learning point of view, the text provides new vocabulary and a context to help understand the new words. The retelling gives learners the chance to productively retrieve the vocabulary and ideally make generative use of it. Some researches indicate that the absence of the text during the retelling encourages

generative use, but having it present during the retelling ensures that more of the target vocabulary is used. But since having the text present during retelling provides poor conditions for retrieval (the form which should be retrieved is already present in the text that the learner can look at), until further research is done on this technique, it is probably best not to have the text present during the retelling.

Other forms of retelling include 4/3/2 and "Read and retell". "4/3/2" involves giving the same talk to three different listeners one after the other, but with four minutes to give the first delivery of the talk, three minutes for the delivery of the same talk to the second listener, and two minutes for the third. The talk can be a retelling of a previously studied text. The repetition would not be expected to increase the range of generative use, but would provide an opportunity for more fluent retrieval. "The Read and retell" activity involves re-telling a written text, but the listener has a set of guiding-questions to ask the reteller so that it seems like an interview. The design of the questions can encourage use of target vocabulary from the written text and ensure that all the important parts of the text are retold. Both the listener and the reteller study the text and questions before the retelling, and they can rehearse the retelling to perform before others. When observing retelling activities, the teacher looks for the use of the wanted vocabulary, particularly to see if it was in a salient enough position in the text to encourage its use in retelling, and to see if it is being used generatively in the retelling.

Role-play. Role-play activities can involve a written text on which the role-play is based. It may involve written instructions to the role-players. "The Say it!" activity combines these features and serves as a simple introduction to role-play. In the Say it! activity the learners read a short text such as a newspaper report containing the target vocabulary. They can read the article and discuss it together if they wish. Then they look at a grid containing short tasks to perform. The columns in the grid are labeled with letters and the rows are numbered. The first learner in the group names a square for example, B2 and the second learner in the group has to perform the task contained in that square. After that, the second learner names another square, and the third learner has to perform that task. This continues around the group. The same task may

be performed more than once by different learners in the group. Larger problem solving role-play activities can involve substantial written input that needs to be processed in a similar way. Learners need to read about the background to the problem, the problem itself, the constraints on the solution, and their own roles.

Ranking. It was found that shared tasks where learners all had equal access to the same information resulted in more negotiation of word meaning than split tasks where each learner had different information. Split tasks had more negotiation overall but most of this was not negotiation of word meaning. Vocabulary which is placed in the list of items to rank is most likely to be used in the activity, particularly if the items are difficult ones for the learners to agree upon. Words occurring in the background description and in the instructions are less likely to be used and learned. Clearly the places where words occur on the worksheet have a major effect on whether they will be learned. Although negotiation was considered to be an important contributor to learning, most words learned were used in the task but were not negotiated for word meaning. Very few words were learned by simply seeing them in the written input and not using them or hearing them used in the task.

Other activities. There are numerous other speaking activities which make use of written input. These include split information tasks, interview activities, and information transfer activities. Thoughtful design of the worksheets and careful observation of their use can maximise the opportunities for the incidental learning of useful vocabulary while the learners are involved in a meaning-focused speaking task.

Designing the worksheets.

Let's look at a task to see how it can be re-designed to create favourable opportunities for vocabulary learning. The learners work in groups to solve the following problem.

You have just seen one of your friends stealing things from a local shop. What will you do?

- Inform the shop owner immediately.
- Tell your friend to put it back.

- Discuss it with your friend later to discourage him from doing it in the future.
- Just ignore it.
- Discuss it with your parents.

The following words in the written input are unknown to many of the learners: local, inform, discourage, ignore. Inform and ignore are important ideas in the text and the likelihood of them being noticed, discussed and used in the activity is quite high. Local and discourage may not get the same attention.

There are several important ways in which the activity could be improved for vocabulary learning. First, the numbers in front of the choices should be removed. If they are left there, then the learners will say things like "I think 4 is the best choice" instead of saying "I would just ignore it" which makes use of the target word "ignore". Second, the written input is quite short and does not contain a lot of useful new vocabulary. The written input thus needs to be increased in quantity and additional useful words to learn should be included. This can be done in several ways, by increasing the amount of description about each choice, by giving more description of the background to the task (more information about the friend and what was stolen, for example), or by adding more choices. Probably the most effective way will be to turn the activity into a role-play. This would involve providing each player with a role card describing their role and goals, and adding descriptions of constraints to the activity (your friend's parents punish him severely for bad behavior). Third, some changes could insure that the target vocabulary will be used. The activity could be made into a ranking activity rather than a choosing activity. This might produce discussion that is more evenly spread among the choices. Each learner in the group could be given responsibility for a different choice. They should make themselves very familiar with that choice, and while it does not have to be their first choice, they have to ensure that it gets sufficient discussion and consideration during the activity. It may be more effective to get them to memorize their option and then remove the written input. Fourth, some changes could be made to give the target vocabulary a greater chance of-being used often during the activity. These could include getting

learners to report back to other groups on their decision and the reasons for that decision, and moving through a pyramid procedure from pairs to fours to the whole class.

The aim of all these changes to the activity is to increase the opportunities for vocabulary learning. Their effectiveness may be seen by testing the vocabulary learning directly coming from the activity, or more informally by observing whether the learners are negotiating and using the wanted vocabulary during the activity.

What should a teacher do when his students do not have enough vocabulary to speak? From the point of view of vocabulary, there are two reasons why the students may not be able to say what they want to say. First, they may not know enough vocabulary. If this is the case, then the teacher can work on the ways of increasing their vocabulary, like using controlled activities and techniques for the receptive learning of vocabulary. There are several teachers who suggest that spoken production should not be encouraged until students have had a lot of opportunities to listen to the language. So when the students have enough receptive vocabulary, they can be helped to use some of it productively. This involves distinction between active and passive vocabulary. The second reason, the students may know a lot of words but they may not know which words go with which. This is a problem of collocation teaching.

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Lecture 3: TEACHING GRAMMAR

1. What is grammar. Methods of teaching grammar.

The body of rules that governs the structure of words (suffixes and prefixes) and the structure of words to form clauses and sentences is called the grammar.

Grammar is often associated with structures.

Let us look at the example of a grammar lesson and a structure lesson. The teacher gives his students the following sentence: "How many students are there in the classroom?" He brings the attention of his students to the problem of the numbers. The students practice the structure of enquiring about numbers, they use it meaningfully. Then they are suggested to ask about the number of different objects in the classroom. No mention is made of grammar. In presenting and practicing that utterance as a useful structure, the teacher uses countable objects and avoids uncountables (sugar, water, coffee, sand, etc).

In a grammar lesson the teacher will draw attention to the distinction of countables and uncountables. The practice of "How many?" (countables) will be contrasted with "How much?" (uncountable items). The teacher's concern will not be with communication and mastery of a useful structure; it will be of mastery of a grammar point.

Different teachers have different points of view on teaching grammar. Some teachers see no need to teach and practice grammar at all. Some even regard structure practice and other forms of grammar teaching as harmful. Their view is that the students will pick up the rules of the language intuitively, just as they do it in their mother tongue. But some teachers see grammar as a body of knowledge that they themselves need as professional linguists and are sure that grammar rules should be taught and explained from the beginning with the practice following the rules. These two methods are called inductive and deductive methods accordingly.

The deductive method of teaching grammar is the academic one, which was devised in order to teach Latin and Greek. The approach is very simple. First, the teacher writes an example on the board or draws attention to the example in the

textbook. The underlying rule is explained, nearly always in the mother tongue and using the metalanguage of grammar. Finally, the students practice applying the rule, orally and in writing. Special attention is paid to areas of conflict between the grammar of the mother tongue and that of the target language. Little attention is paid to the value of the message.

The teachers following the inductive method of teaching grammar induce the students to realize grammar rules without any form of prior explanation. These teachers believe that the rules will become evident if the students are given enough appropriate examples. When teaching a grammar point, their first step is to demonstrate the meaning to the class, (eg., This is a book. These are books.) The grammar point is shown on the board only after extensive practice. Explanations are not always made, though they may be elicited from the students themselves.

The question then rises, what method is the most effective? It has become popular these days to refer to the goals and needs of students. Therefore, if students need grammar for communication, it should be taught communicatively, that is, meaning-based. On the other hand, if students need the grammar knowledge to be able to translate from English to Ukrainian, and that is what they are going to be graded on, then form-based approaches will be more appropriate. However, these are polar opposite positions.

In learning a foreign language grammar, students face a dilemma. On the one hand, students need to know the rules, as that is what they are tested on at schools. On the other, with a number of foreign visitors, or living in any English speaking country there is a good need for communication in English. That is why there is a need to look at the ways of combining form and meaning in teaching foreign languages.

Integrative Grammar Teaching: exploration, explanation and expression.

As a possible solution, integrative grammar teaching combines a form-based with a meaning-based focus. Of course, depending on the students and their particular needs, either form or meaning can be emphasized. But in having various students with different needs in the same group, or having various needs in the same students,

an integrative grammar teaching approach creates optimal conditions for learning for everyone in the classroom. Students should be able to learn explicit grammar rules as well as have a chance to practice them in communication in the authentic or simulation tasks.

Integrative grammar teaching, combining the form and the meaning, consists of three equally important stages: exploration, explanation, and expression.

- Exploration is the first stage of integrative grammar teaching. This stage is characterized by "inductive learning." Students are given sentences illustrating a certain grammar rule and are asked as a group to find the pattern and, with the help of the teacher, to formulate the rule. Students should be given opportunities to figure out everything by themselves, receiving help only when necessary. To make the task easier in the beginning, some grammatical forms or endings can be highlighted. Students tend to prefer assignments that allow them to explore the language. The knowledge they obtain becomes theirs and it is often much easier to remember. Exploration, then, works as an excellent tool for motivation.
- Explanation is the second stage of learning. As students find sequences or patterns in the examples they used during the exploration stage, the teacher or the students can summarize what was previously discovered, now focusing on the form. In some situations it may be essential to go to the textbook and together with students relate 'textbook rules' with the examples and findings of the exploration stage. The explanation stage is quite important because students feel safer when they know the rules and have some source to go back to in case of confusion or for future reference. Depending on students' proficiency, confidence, and actual performance, this stage can sometimes be omitted.
- Expression is the third and last stage of the process. After discovering certain grammatical patterns in the exploration stage and getting to know the rales in the explanation stage, students start practicing the production of meaningful utterances with each other in communication and interactive tasks. The rationale of this stage is to provide students experience in applying their acquired knowledge in practice by making meaningful utterances. On the one hand, this

may also serve as a motivation technique, since learners can actually see what they can do with what they have learned. On the other, the expression stage gives them the opportunity to practice communicating under the teacher's supervision, which usually assures the students that they can produce a correct utterance. Communicative interaction will be better if it is content-based, which allows students to relate it to something they care or know about, thus making it authentic.

Let's look at the examples of the lesson excerpts. Excerpt 1.

The rule: The use of the ending -s with verbs in the Present Simple tense form.

Group work of the EEE instructional method is very powerful. Students are often less comfortable asking the teacher questions. In-group interaction creates a certain micro-world that enables the students to negotiate the assignment, clarify tasks, and even provide each other with corrections. It definitely develops their strategic competence.

Although groups can be very effective, teachers should not be naive about group interaction. Even though it looks like students are creating meaningful utterances by themselves, the instructor holds the responsibility for making sure that there is no misuse, that 'leaders' do not impose wrong forms and rules, and that students have equal opportunities to participate and express their thoughts.

2. Grammar and other language factors.

Since the fundamental purpose of the language is communication, the most important step in teaching grammar is to integrate grammar principles into a communicative framework. Unfortunately, grammar is often taught in isolated, unconnected sentences that give a fragmented, unrealistic picture of English and make it difficult for students to apply what they have learned in actual situations. To avoid this the following language aspects should be taken into account while teaching grammar:

- social factors;
- semantic factors;
- discourse factors.

Social factors refer to the social roles of the speakers, their relationship to each other, and the purpose of the communication. Communicative functions such as requesting, inviting, refusing, agreeing, or disagreeing are all very sensitive to social factors such as politeness, directness, etc. For example, in refusing a request, the words and grammatical items used depend on two basic variables: how well the individuals know each other and their social roles.

The following are different ways of refusing a dinner invitation, but not all are equally appropriate for all situations:

a. Aww, I can't. I've gotta work.

b. Oh, I'm sorry; I'd love to, but I won't be able to. I have to work.

c How nice of you to ask! I'd really be delighted, but I'm afraid I

have to work that night.

Semantic factors involve meaning. Grammatical items that are most naturally taught from a semantic perspective include expressions of time, space, degree, quantity, and probability. For example, the difference between the quantifiers "few" and "a few" in the following two sentences is primarily semantic:

a. John has a few good ideas.

b. John has few good ideas.

In a) the emphasis is positive, while in b) it is negative. The choice of a form is not governed by whom a person is addressing, but rather by what a person wants to say. Thus, expressions of location, time, space, degree, quantity, probability, etc. can be taught most effectively with a focus on morphological, lexical, and syntactic contrasts that signal a difference in meaning.

Discourse factors include notions such as topic continuity, word order, and the sequencing of new and old information - factors which can be noticed in the context of a discourse. For example, indirect object movement in the following two sentences is discourse governed. In English we tend to put the most important element or the one we are focusing at the end of the sentence. So the difference between a) and b) is one of focus.

a. He gave the flowers to Mary. (Not to Janet, not to Carol. This might be in response to the question, "Who did he give the flowers to?")

b. He gave Mary the flowers. (Not the candy, not the book. This might be in response to the question, "What did he give Mary?")

Another example is the use of logical connectors such as even though, although, unless. Experience suggests that defining these words semantically is less than satisfying and often leads to a great deal of confusion for both students and teacher. Instead of this we can give our students several sentences in which although is used, such as:

a. Although John didn't study, he passed the test.

b. Although Maria doesn't have much money, she is rich in spirit.

All of these factors (social, semantic, discourse) interact with each other, as well as with the structure of the language.

3. The grammar lesson.

The grammar lesson consists of four parts:

1. Presentation in which we introduce the grammar item. There are a variety of techniques and resources that can be used during this step. Selection should be made according to teacher's strengths, students' preferences, and the nature of the grammar item. The teacher can use the following techniques:

- using a time line;
- using a song text.

Grammar is always looked upon as a necessary but a very boring part of any foreign language study, and it is especially challenging when teaching children four to five years old. One way to reinforce grammar structures for children is through the use of games and songs. Best of all are finger games and songs as they can be used both to introduce and drill grammar structures or conversational formulas. In just five minutes you can teach children to use the phrases: "How do you do?", "Where are you?", "Here I am".

Example: Tell the children that they will learn a song about Tommy Thumb and his friends. Show the children each of the fingers on your hand, and sing a song about

each finger. Then ask the children to sing after you, repeating each verse until the children have learned the song. Make sure that everybody learns the words, and pronounces them correctly.

Tommy Thumb, Tommy Thumb, (fingers are clasped in your fists)

Where are you? (show your thumb)

"Here I am, Here I am. How do you do?"

Peter Pointer, Peter Pointer, Where are you? (show your index finger)

"Here I am, Here I am. How do you do?"

Toby Tall, Toby Tall, Where are you? (show your middle finger)

"Here I am, Here I am, How do you do?"

Ruby Ring, Ruby Ring, Where are you? (show your ring finger)

"Here I am. Here I am. How do you do?" Baby small, baby small, Where are you? (show your little finger) "Here I am. Here I am. How do you do?" Since children enjoy variety, here is another activity which reinforces the same Wh-question structure: Put several small dolls on a table in the front of your class and ask the children to shut their eyes. Take away one of the dolls and then ask the children to open their eyes so they can see that one of the dolls is missing. The teacher then sings the following song, about the missing doll: "Pretty doll, where are you?" The children respond by singing the question all together. Then one of them answers using the structure "Here I am. How do you do?" The children not only enjoy the song, they also start to use the structures in their speech.

These finger games can be used with older students, but for a different purpose. Listening to a lecture is a hard work, and the students need some sort of relaxation in the middle of it. Five minutes of a different activity such as finger exercises gives them that opportunity.

The following is another finger game, which helps students exercise not only their fingers but their memory as well.

Two Fat Gentlemen (fingers are clasped in fists)

Two fat gentlemen met in the lane. They bowed most politely.

(thumb fingers bow)

They bowed once again.

"How do you do? How do you do? How do you do?" again.

Two thin ladies met in the lane.

(index fingers bow in turn and then together)

They bowed most politely. They bowed once again.

"How do you do? How do you do? How dojou do?" again.

Two tall policemen met in the lane.

(middle fingers bow)

They bowed most politely. They bowed once again.

"How do you do? How do you do? How do you do?" again.

Two little boys (girls) met in the lane.

(ring fingers bow)

They bowed most politely. They bowed once again.

"How do you do? How do you do? How do you do?" again.

Two little babies met in the lane.

(little fingers bow)

They bowed most politely. They bowed once again.

"How do you do? How do you do? How do you do?" again. This kind of diversity gives students the opportunity to change their activity and relax. In the case of small children they learn grammar without realizing it.

There are many other games and songs which can be used successfully in teaching English as a foreign language to both young children and grown-ups.

2. Focused practice, in which the student manipulates the presented item while all other variables are held constant.

- Drill is the excellent technique at this stage. The purpose of this step is to allow the student to gain control of the form without the added pressure of trying to use the form for communication. For example, we present the Present Indefinite tense. We give the sentence They study at school. Then we suggest our student to put different types of questions to this sentence, change the pronoun, etc. The structural drill is an 'ancient' method which is still popular with language teachers of all languages. The

teacher can easily choose one which will suit his purpose and classroom situation. An exercise using the structural drill can then be framed and later on it can be developed into interesting activities and games.

A structural drill can be useful in remedying the frequently occurring error concerned with subject-verb agreement. The written data is from an essay entitled "College Life". "I have a library card, an I.D. card and a bus pass. These three thing is very useful." The following structural drill has been constructed to remedy this particular error. The exercise then progressively develops from 'controlled' to less controlled and then to "creative".

This These	library card I.D. card bus pass thing two things three things	is are	very useful.

Controlled

The data is written on the blackboard. The error is highlighted by underlining it. The 'grammar rule' of subject-verb agreement is explained to the class. The substitution table is written on the blackboard. 'The three things' are obtained from the students themselves. The teacher holds up any one item and the students repeat individually or chorally: 'This thing is very useful'. When two or more items are held up they repeat : 'These two / three things are very useful'. This drill is repeated and practised till the students have learnt the structure. This can be ascertained by orally testing the individual learner's response to the number of items being displayed. This drill can be made more interesting by:

- ❖ practising it with other items got from the students;
- ❖ splitting the class into groups and a student himself drilling his group.

For homework written exercises like "fill up the blanks with the correct form" can be given. The next day students can exchange their tasks and correct them in class.

Less Controlled

Complete the following:

- _____ An I.D. card is very useful for.
- _____ A bus pass and library card .
- What other things are very useful for you?

Unlike the previous substitution drill this exercise is open ended, less predictable and more interesting. The student has to supply the information by himself. As the student has absorbed the structure, he is now given more freedom to use the structure to absorb more knowledge of its use by himself. He thus learns to correlate the structure with its meaning.

The exercise can be practised orally in class. Written exercises of a similar nature can be given as homework. The students can exchange their written tasks and do the corrections. The teacher has to emphasize accuracy even as he gives credit for content and expression.

Creative

Write a short paragraph of about 100-150 words on *'Useful Things for College Students'*.

This exercise is ideal for pair work. Students question one another and exchange information. The information is noted down and lists are compiled. These lists can be exchanged with other pairs also. Only after a free discussion the students perform the written task.

The exercise has now become creative and communicative. Nevertheless the task is 'dependent' on the two earlier exercises. In this task the student uses his knowledge of grammatical structures which he has acquired from the two earlier exercises. But more significantly there is an "information gap" and "information transfer" takes place. The students communicate freely and fluently as they exchange ideas. The students during their discussion may correct one another. They co-operate

with one another and become less dependent on the teacher. But the teacher, however, is present and has to use correction positively to balance fluency with accuracy. For homework the students can be asked to write a short paragraph on: "Useful Things to Take When Going on an Excursion" (100-150 words).

After collecting the homework, a short passage can be composed by the teacher. This passage is made up of sentences from the homework of the students, in which half the sentences are correct and half contain errors. The correct and wrong sentences are jumbled and the dictation is given. This passage is dictated to the students at a slow and steady pace. The teacher reads the wrong sentences exactly the same way as he reads the correct ones. The task of the students is to correct the wrong sentences as they write the dictation. The teacher then asks the students to exchange their tasks. Corrections can be carried out as the teacher reads out the passage this time without the errors. The exercise is useful as it forces the students to decide quickly what is right and what is wrong.

Structural drills have an important role in remedial teaching. The important thing to remember is that a structural drill must be suitably modified to individual learners' needs and specific pedagogical contexts. Mechanical repetition should be restricted to a very short period of time and monotony can be fought over by soon moving on to the less controlled exercises outlined above.

- Sentence transformation 1: from basic to complex sentences. Take a basic sentence: James lost his book.

Expand on it: James lost his science book.

Expand again with additional information: James lost his science book at the playground.

Combine two sentences'.

James lost his science book. He was playing on the swings.

James lost his science book while playing on the swings.

James lost his science book while playing on the swings at the playground.

Make substitutions:

James lost his science homework ...

James lost his math book...etc.

Transform a sentence to elaborate or link ideas:

James lost his math. Did James lose his science book, too?

Add information and construct a short narrative around the sentences students have created: James was playing on the swings at the playground when he lost his math book. James also lost his science homework because it was in his math book.

- __Sentence transformation 2: focusing on specific points of Grammar. Examples: Subject pronouns: I, you, he, she, we, they and forms of verb to be:

are running down the hill.

___is going to school.

___was at the school play.

___were not at the school play.

Changes in verb tense: Bill is sitting down. Bill will sit down.

Mary walks too fast. Mary walked too fast.

"When" clauses: Mr. Black will sit down. Mr. Black will take off his coat. When Mr. Black sits down, he will take off his coat.

The girls will arrive at school. The bell will be ringing. When the girls arrive at school, the bell will be ringing.

Relative Clauses: The book is on the desk. The book is red. The book that is on the desk is red. / The girl is in the kitchen. The girl is my sister. The girl who is in the kitchen is my sister.

Negatives: He likes to go for a walk after dinner. He doesn't like to go for a walk after dinner.

Mary likes to go for a walk after dinner. She isn't thinking about her homework.

lnterrogatives ((Is/Are): John is running away from the wolf. Is John running away from the wolf?

lnterrogatives (Do/Does): We walk to the market every afternoon. Do we walk to the market every afternoon? Do you walk to the market every afternoon?

lnterrogatives (Modals-Can): (Can) My brother can ride his bike to school. Can my brother ride his bike to school? What can your brother do on his bike?

- Sentence recombination. Sentence recombination is an effective activity for teaching sentence structure, paragraph structure, punctuation, transition and coherence, and parts of speech. Students must also use critical thinking skills to cluster and organize ideas and concepts. Sentence recombination exercises are thematic and can be easily constructed in advance by the teacher or as a group activity with the students. Here is an example.

Combine these sentences into a passage by using compound subjects, compound predicates and other compound sentence elements. In rewriting, be sure to include introduction and transition sentences so the passage flows smoothly.

People all over the world build houses.

People all over the world like their homes.

Houses are built in many shapes.

Houses are built in many sizes.

Houses are built of grass.

Houses are built of palm leaves.

Houses are built of wood.

Houses are built of steel.

Houses are built of stone.

Houses are built of adobe.

Houses are built of plaster.

Houses are built of concrete.

Houses are built of other materials.

The construction may be simple.

The construction may be complex.

Construction must be adapted to the climate.

Construction must be adapted to the materials available.

Construction must be adapted to the skills of the workers.

The teacher may also suggest listen-and-respond {listen and physically respond or listen and manipulate are very effective ways to present imperatives and prepositions, phrasal verbs; listen and draw may be used for communicative practice

of prepositions and locations of objects with various shapes; listen and colour may be used for receptive practice of possessive pronouns) activities at this stage of the lesson, as the students have to correctly comprehend a grammar item which has been presented at the lesson.

3. Communicative practice, in which the student is engaged in communicative activities to practice the grammar item being learned. The following activities may be suggested here:

- making dialogues using the grammar items covered;
- speaking on a suggested topic (the student tells the class what he did yesterday);
- making statements on the picture;
- describing the picture;
- using covered grammar items in situational contexts.
- dramatizing the text read or heard;
- commenting on a film;
- telling the story;
- role-play.

4. Teacher feedback and correction. Although this is usually considered a final step, it must take place throughout the lesson. It is also important to mention that the teacher's correction strategy should probably change according to the phase of the lesson. For example, during the second stage of the lesson, correction should be straightforward and immediate. During the third stage, however, communication should not be interrupted. Instead, the teacher should take note of errors and deal with them after the communicative exercises. But regardless of when correction is made, teacher feedback should always attempt to engage the student cognitively rather than simply to point out the error and provide the appropriate form.

4. The most common difficulties the students have in learning English grammar.

The chief difficulty in learning a new language is that of changing from the grammatical mechanism of the native language to that of the new one. Indeed, every language has its own ways of fitting words together to form sentences.

The Ukrainian students may face the following difficulties in learning English grammar:

♦ word order. In English, word order is far more important than in Ukrainian. If we change the word order of the sentence "Tom gave lane some flowers" into "Jane gave Tom some flowers", the meaning of the second sentence will be completely different from that of the first one. In Ukrainian the meaning of the two sentences will stay the same no matter what word order is going to take place: Том дав Джейн кілька квітів. Джейн дав Том кілька квітів. Кілька квітів дав Том Джейн. Джейн Том дав кілька квітів. In English, the inversion of subject and finite verb indicates the question form while in Ukrainian intonation is the main point of differentiation between the affirmative and interrogative sentences;

♦ the English tense system also presents a lot of problems to Ukrainian-speaking students, since the notion of the aspect (Indefinite, Continuous, Perfect, Perfect Continuous) is absent in Ukrainian at all;

♦ the sequence of tenses is another difficult point of English grammar, as this phenomenon is not presented in Ukrainian grammar;

♦ the use of modal verbs in various types of the sentences is very difficult for the students. For example, they have to differentiate the use of can and may while in Ukrainian one verb covers both of the words;

♦ the use of the participle, the infinitive and the gerund, especially complex structures with these grammar notions, is of huge difficulty for Ukrainian students, since the gerund is not represented in Ukrainian grammar, and the usage of the participle and the infinitive is to a greater extent different from that in Ukrainian;

♦ the use of the article is also difficult to assimilate as it is completely strange to Ukrainian-speaking students.

According to the fact that the English grammar has a lot of differences with Ukrainian grammar and presents a lot of troubles for the Ukrainian-speaking students in the process of learning, the grammar material of the English language may be divided into three groups which require specific techniques for presentation and practice:

1) the grammar phenomena which do not require any explanation since there are similar phenomena in the Ukrainian language;

2) the grammar phenomena which require corrections. The students are taught the elements which have some differences with the corresponding forms in the mother tongue;

3) the grammar phenomena which are strange for the students and require special explanation and practice because new habits should be formed.

5. Testing Grammar.

The testing of grammar is one of the mainstays of language testing. While such tests check the ability to either recognize or produce correct grammar and usage, they do not test the ability to use the language to express meaning.

However, it can be argued that a basic knowledge of grammar underlies the ability to use language to express meaning, and so grammar tests do have an important part to play in language programs.

Types of tests.

- Multiple choice tests. Probably the most common way of testing grammatical knowledge is the multiple choice test. These tests have the advantage of being easy to grade and being able to cover a lot of grammatical points quickly. The most common type of multiple choice grammatical item is one in which the test maker gives the testee a sentence with a blank and four or five choices of a word or phrase which completes the sentence correctly. For example,

Because my mother was sick, I to go home last week.

a) had; b) have; c) has; d) hadn't.

To give slightly more context, this type of question sometimes makes use of a short dialogue, with one person saying something and the other person responding.

A way of testing short answers and responses is to give the testees an utterance, and have them decide which of four or five utterances is an appropriate response. This can be either a test of comprehension or a test of grammar. For example,

"I think that tuition is much too high here".

a) I do so. b) Do I so. c) I so do. d) So do I.

Another way to test grammatical knowledge using multiple choice items is to give testees a sentence and ask them to choose which of four or five alternatives has the same meaning.

"The school should have expelled him".

a)The school didn't expel him, which was wrong.

b)The school expelled him, because it was necessary.

c)The school might have expelled him, if it had known.

d)The school will probably expel him in the near future.

Again this is a test of reading comprehension as well as grammar, but in order to understand the meaning of the sentence, the reader does have to understand the grammar.

The test maker must find a balance between giving enough context and giving too much. One way to give more context and make the language more natural is to give the items in the form of a short reading passage rather than individual sentences. This gives the testees more context and, if the passage is chosen carefully, is also much more interesting than reading individual, uncontextualized sentences. However, it may be more difficult to test a range of grammatical points, since the grammatical points are restricted by the content of the passage.

A variation on this idea is to use a piece of prose written by a non-native English speaker. This is particularly useful for making a grammar test for testees who are all of the same language group, since the errors made by the writer can be used as distracters.

- Error correction. Error correction items are also useful for testing gram mar. An error correction item is one in which the testee is given a sentence with an error. Four words or phrases in the sentence are marked with letters, and the testee needs to decide which of the words or phrases has the error. For example,

(a) Most of students (b) believe that they (c) should be getting better grades (d) than they are.

The teacher may also mix in some sentences that have no errors, and students are required to indicate that there is no error. In addition, the students might be

required to correct the error. Errors from students' actual writing are a good source of ideas for this type of exercise.

- Items to test knowledge of word/sentence order.

Other types of items can be used to test testees' knowledge of word order. The traditional way is to "present the testee with four alternative word orders. For example,

I wonder how she knows .

a)how it costs much.

b)how much it costs.

c)it costs how much.

d)it how much costs.

Another possibility is to give testees the four words and ask them to put the words in order. For example,

I wonder how she knows

a. how b. it c much d. costs

This can also be done in a way that actually requires the writer to do some writing. For example,

I wonder how she knows_____ .

how I it /much I costs

Understanding of appropriate sentence order can also be tested in a similar way by giving testees several sentences and asking them to put them in order. This type of test checks knowledge of references, cohesive devices, etc.

-Completion items. Completion items are items in which the testees are asked to fill in blanks in sentences. For example,

Give the book to woman in the blue dress.

For the purpose of a grammar test, the words which fit in the blanks should be function words, such as articles and prepositions. (Completion items intended to test reading ability or vocabulary knowledge, in contrast, use content words.)

The advantage of completion items is that they test production, not just recognition. The disadvantage is that they need to be marked by hand and there will be some

cases where the marker needs to make judgements about whether a response is correct. It is not always easy to write items for which there is only one possible answer. Using a piece of continuous prose rather than disconnected sentences is one way of cutting down on possible different interpretations of what goes into a particular blank, but it is probably impossible to entirely eliminate the possibility of different answers.

Also, it is possible to require a phrase instead of a word in each blank. However, while this method presents a more realistic situation, it does become more difficult to mark. While it is probably not realistic for large-scale testing situations, it is something that is useful for classroom teachers who want to help their students develop an ability to produce appropriate grammatical forms in context.

- Transformation items. Another type of grammar item makes use of trans formations. In this type of item, testees are given a sentence and the first few-words of another sentence to change the original sentence without changing the meaning. For example,

1. Jim hasn't been home in a long time.

It's been a long time_____ .

2.1 don't need to go to the grocery store this week.

It isn't_____ .

3. It is difficult to study when it is so noisy.

Studying _____ .

There are variations on this type of item in which the word which starts the transformed sentence is underlined, or the testee is given one word to use in the new sentence. For example,

I don't need to go to the grocery store this week, (necessary)

Again, this type of test is difficult to grade because the teacher has to be aware of the variety of possible answers. Another problem is that it does not in any way test the testees' knowledge of when each of the possible transformations would be most appropriate. For example, the testee might be perfectly able to transform an active

sentence to a passive sentence but not know when to use passive rather than active. However, it is still sometimes a useful test of grammatical knowledge.

- Word changing items. Another type of item is one in which the testees are given a sentence and a word which they need to fit into the sentence by changing the form of the word. This type of grammar test item checks students' knowledge of different word forms and how they are used in sentences. For example,

1.1 have never to Australia, (be)

2.1 will be with you__ . (moment)

-Sentence combining exercises. Sentence combining exercises can play a part in testing grammar as well as its more traditional use as part of composition testing and training. For example, testees might be instructed to combine the following sentences using a relative pronoun.

I met a man.

The man went to the same high school I did.

I met a man who went to the same high school I did.

While the testing of grammatical knowledge is limited (it does not necessarily indicate whether the testee can use the grammatical knowledge in a communicative situation) it is sometimes necessary and useful. When considering the testing of grammar, the teacher has to make decisions about such factors as ease of marking, the degree of control, and the degree of realism.

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Lecture 4: TEACHING LISTENING

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. An able listener is capable of doing these four things simultaneously. The researchers list a series of micro-skills of listening. They are:

- predicting what people are going to talk about;
- guessing at unknown words or phrases without panic;
- 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 linking 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.

Listening is the Cinderella skill in second language learning. All too often, it has been overlooked by its elder sister: speaking. For most people, being able to claim knowledge of a second language means being able to speak and write in that language. Listening and reading are therefore secondary skills. More often, however, listening comes into fashion. In the 1960s, the emphasis on oral language skills gave it a boost. It became fashionable again in the 1980s, when Krashen's ideas about comprehensible input gained prominence. A short time later, it was reinforced by James Asher's Total Physical Response, a methodology drawing sustenance from

Krashen's work, and based on the belief that a second language is learned most effectively in the early stages if the pressure for production is taken off the learners.

1. The nature of the listening process.

Listening is assuming greater and greater importance in foreign language classrooms. There are several reasons for this growth in popularity. First, listening is vital in the language classroom because it provides input for the learner. Without understanding input at the right level, any learning simply cannot begin. Listening is thus fundamental to speaking. Two views of listening have dominated language pedagogy over the last twenty years. These are the bottom-up processing view and the top-down interpretation view. The bottom-up processing model assumes that listening is a process of decoding the sounds that one hears in a linear fashion, from the smallest meaningful units (phonemes) to complete texts. According to this view, phonemic units are decoded and linked together to form words, words are linked together to form phrases, phrases are linked together to form utterances, and utterances are linked together to form complete meaningful texts. In other words, the process is a linear one, in which meaning itself is derived as the last step in the process.

The alternative, top-down view, suggests that the listener actively constructs (or, more accurately, reconstructs) the original meaning of the speaker using incoming sounds as clues. In this reconstruction process, the listener uses prior knowledge of the context and situation within which the listening takes place to make sense of what he or she hears. Context of situation includes such things as knowledge of the topic at hand, the speaker or speakers, and their relationship to the situation as well as to each other and prior events. These days, it is generally recognized that both bottom-up and top-down strategies are necessary. In developing courses, materials, and lessons, it is important, not only to teach bottom-up processing skills such as the ability to discriminate between minimal pairs, but it is also important to help learners use what they already know to understand what they hear. If teachers suspect that there are gaps in their learners' knowledge, the listening itself can be preceded by schema building activities to prepare learners for ЩЕ listening task to come.

2.

Listening to and Understanding speech involves a number of basic processes, some depending upon linguistic competence, some depending upon previous knowledge that is not necessarily of a purely linguistic nature, and some depending upon psychological variables that affect the mobilization of this competence and knowledge in the particular task situation. The listener must have a continuous set to listen and understand, and as he hears the utterance, he may be helped by some kind of set to process and remember the information transmitted. His linguistic competence enables him, presumably, to recognize the formatives of the heard Utterance, i. e., to dissect out of the wave-form of the morphemes, words, and other meaning-bearing elements of the utterance.

There are many different types of listening that can be classified according to a number of variables, including purpose for listening, the role of the listener, and the type of text being listened to. These variables are mixed in many different configurations, each of which will require a particular strategy on the part of the listener. Listening purpose is another important variable. Listening to a new news broadcast to get a general idea of the news of the day involves different processes and strategies from listening to the same broadcast for specific information, such as the results of an important sporting event. Listening to a sequence of instructions for operating a new piece of computer software requires different listening skills and strategies from listening to a poem or short story. In designing listening tasks, it is important to teach learners to adopt a flexible range of listening strategies. This can be done by holding the listening text constant (working, for example, with a radio news broadcast reporting a series of international events), and getting learners to listen to the text several times, however, following different instructions each time. They might, in the first instance, be required to listen for gist, simply identifying the countries where the events have taken place. The second time they listen they might be required to match the places with a list of events. Finally, they might be required to listen for detail, discriminating between specific aspects of the event, or perhaps, comparing the radio broadcast with newspaper accounts of the same events and

noting discrepancies or differences of emphasis. Another way of characterizing listening is in terms of whether the listener is also required to take part in the interaction. This is known as reciprocal listening. When listening to a monologue, either live or through the media, the listening is, by definition, non-reciprocal. The listener (often to his or her frustration), has no opportunity of answering back, clarifying understanding, or checking that he or she has comprehended correctly. In the real-world, it is rare for the listener to be cast in the role of non-reciprocal "eavesdropper" on a conversation. However, in the listening classroom, this is the normal role.

3. The differences of listening and reading.

There are many skills necessary to listen to spoken English. Some skills are similar to the skills used in reading. But many important listening skills are different from reading skills. That's why if you want to learn to listen, you must practice listening. Listening skills are different from reading skills because speech is different from writing. Below are some of the main ways which illustrate that speech is different from writing.

The biggest difference between speech and writing is that speech consists of sounds. This is very important, because processing the sound adds a whole new set of skills that are not necessary for reading:

• You must know the sound system; if you don't, you cannot understand the speech.

• You must also know how the sounds change in fast speech. Fast pronunciation is very different from the dictionary form of the word.

• The English sound system varies from place to place, and from speaker to speaker.

Written English consists of neat, correct sentences; speech does not. Speech usually consists of idea units. Each idea unit is a short piece of spoken language; usually about two seconds long, and consisting of just a few words; on average about 7 words.

Sometimes idea units are complete sentences, but sometimes they are not. The main differences between spoken idea units and written sentences are:

- Spoken idea units are usually shorter than written sentences.
- Speech usually has simpler grammar-idea units are usually just strung together—but writing usually has more complex grammar.
- Speech contains many mistakes, and grammatical errors; so it also has corrections and repairs. Written language is usually more correct and polished.
- Speech contains many pauses and hesitations. There are also fillers, meaningless words that give the speaker thinking time. Examples of fillers are um, well now, uh, let me see. Written language has none of those.
- Spoken language is more modern and up to date; there are more slang words, swear words, new expressions, figures of speech, and humour. Written language tends to be more conservative and old-fashioned.
- In speech a lot of things are not actually stated. Speakers often use their tone of voice, or stress and intonation to express important information. For example, emotions such as pleasure and anger, attitudes such as disbelief or sarcasm, and so on, are often not clearly stated in words.
- Speakers decide how fast they will speak, and most speakers speak very fast. So listeners have to listen fast. When reading, the reader can choose a comfortable reading speed, but the listener cannot choose the listening speed. Listeners must listen at the speaker's speed. The speed of the speech is called the "speech rate". It is very important for second language listeners: usually, as the speech rate increases, comprehension decreases. If the speech rate is too fast, comprehension stops.
- Because speech is generally fast, the listener must get the meaning very quickly and very efficiently. There is no time to stop and wonder about the language used (e.g. the vocabulary or grammar). That means that listening must be automatic.

Listening and reading also have many things in common. Both listening and reading are a form of language comprehension. In both cases we are trying to get some meaning from the language. It is important to understand how comprehension works.

To understand the meaning, listeners use their knowledge. They use not only knowledge of the language but other types of knowledge too. The 4 most important types of knowledge used in comprehension are:

• Knowledge of the language. This includes knowledge of the vocabulary, the grammar, and the way longer discourse is structured. Also knowledge of the sound system for listening, and the writing system for reading.

• Knowledge about what has already been said. This is important because we usually understand things based on what we have already understood of what came earlier.

• Knowledge about the situation in which the speech is taking place. This is important, because it gives us expectations about what might come next.

• Knowledge about the world. We use our background knowledge about the world and how it works to help us understand everything.

Not only we use different types of knowledge in comprehension, but this is applied in complex ways. There is no fixed way in which this knowledge is applied. Listeners have expectations about what they hear, and they use whatever knowledge seems relevant. Any relevant information might be used. Comprehension is basically a guessing game. Not all the necessary information is clearly stated. We use our knowledge to make inferences about the meaning. We don't always listen to every word, but make inferences based on the 4 types of knowledge. Comprehension is not understanding what words mean, but is understanding what speakers mean. Even after getting the meaning of the words, the listener (or reader) must still try to understand what the speaker means by that. Not everything is clearly stated, and it is often necessary to figure out the real meaning. Again this means making inferences. Inferences are the core of comprehension. Many people assume that the meaning is contained in the passage, and the listener's job is to get the meaning out of the message. That is not true! The meaning is not in the passage, but is constructed by the listener.

Because meaning is constructed by the listener (or reader) by making inferences based on knowledge, different people might make different inferences, and get different understanding of the same passage. This happens because listeners vary.

Different people have different knowledge and different ideas about the world. A person with more knowledge about something may understand more than a person with less knowledge. Different people have different purposes for listening. Some people may want all the details, and others may only want to get the general idea. And so they will get a different understanding. Different people have different interests. If something is interesting, people pay more attention and will understand more. So different listeners, who hear the same thing, may have different ideas about what the speaker means. And that is ok, because these different ideas about the speaker's meaning may all be reasonable. Now here's the important thing: there is often no single correct understanding of a piece of language, but a number of possible understandings. The purpose of listening is to get a reasonable understanding of what the speaker said, not the 'correct' understanding.

So what does all this theory mean for how we study listening? It means that:

• Listening ability can only be developed by practicing listening, to get all the necessary skills.

• The listener needs a lot of practice, so the skills become over-learned and completely automatic.

• The listener needs to listen to realistic spoken language, with all the characteristics of natural language use.

• New listeners need to pay special attention to the sound system. Listening to lots of easy passages (even if they know a lot of English) is a good idea to help them learn the sound system well.

o Intermediate listeners need to listen to a wide variety of speakers and accents, to get familiar with the wide range of English pronunciation.

• All listeners need to listen to a wide variety of different passages.

• When listening the listener should concentrate on trying to understand what the speaker means, and not think about the language too much.

And most important of all, just relax and enjoy listening. If you can do that, all the rest will just follow naturally.

4. Techniques in teaching listening.

A challenge for the teacher in the listening classroom is to give learners some degree of control over the content of the lesson, and to personalize content so learners are able to bring something of themselves to the task. There are numerous ways in which listening can be personalized. For example, it is possible to increase learner involvement by providing extension tasks which take the listening material as a point of departure, but which then lead learners into providing part of the content themselves. For example, the students might listen to someone describing the work they do, and then create a set of questions for interviewing the person.

A learner-centered dimension can be lent to the listening class in one of two ways. In the first place, tasks can be devised in which the classroom action is centred on the learner not the teacher. In tasks exploiting this idea, students are actively involved in structuring and restructuring their understanding of the language and in building their skills in using the language. Secondly, teaching materials, like any other type of materials, can be given a learner-centred dimension by getting learners involved in the processes underlying their learning and in making active contributions to the learning.

This can be achieved in the following ways: making instructional goals explicit to the learner; giving learners a degree of choice; giving learners opportunities to bring their own background knowledge and experience into the classroom; encouraging learners to develop a reflective attitude to learning and to develop skills in self-monitoring and self-assessment. The teachers have to simulate the interactive nature of listening, and also try to involve learners personally in the content of the language lesson through activities in which learners listen to one side of a conversation, and react to written responses. Obviously, this is not the same thing as taking part in an actual conversation, but it generates a level of involvement on the part of learners that goes beyond the usual sort of non-participatory listening task. Because learners are providing personalized responses, there is variation between

learners, and this creates the potential for following-up speaking tasks, in which learners compare and share their responses with other learners.

Non-reciprocal listening tasks can draw on a rich variety of authentic data, not just lectures and one-sided anecdotes. In listening classes the following data may be used: answering machine messages, store announcements, announcements on public transportation, mini lectures, and narrative recounts. The increasing use of computerized messages on the telephone by companies and public utilities can also provide a rich source of authentic data for non-reciprocal listening tasks.

A recurring theme in recent books and papers on Language Teaching Methodology is the need to develop learners' awareness of the processes underlying their own learning so that, eventually, they will be able to take greater and greater responsibility for that learning. This can be done through the adoption of a learner-centred strategy at the level of classroom action, and partly through equipping students with a wide range of effective learning strategies. Through these, students will not only become better listeners, they will also become more effective language learners because they will be given opportunities to focus on, and reflect upon, the processes underlying their own learning. This is important, because if learners are aware of what they are doing, if they are conscious of the processes underlying the learning they are involved in, then learning will be more effective. Key strategies that can be taught in the listening classroom include selective listening, listening for different purposes, predicting, progressive structuring, inferencing, and personalizing.

These strategies should not be separated from the content teaching but woven into the ongoing fabric of the lesson so that learners can see the applications of the strategies to the development of effective learning.

Listening is a receptive skill, and receptive skills give way to productive skills. If we have our students produce something, the teaching will be more communicative. This brings us to the must of integrating language skills. There are two reasons for using integrating activities in language classrooms:

1.To practice and extend the learners' use of a certain language structure or function.

2.To develop the learners' ability in the use of two or more of the skills within real contexts and communicative frame work.

Integrated activities, on the other hand, provide a variety in the classroom and thus maintain motivation and allow the reeycling and revision of language which has already been taught separately in each skill.

How can we be certain that listening experiences will become more productive? Researchers distinguish the four levels existing in listening to radio or recordings:

♦ Level 1. This mood is listening. Here, the sound remains in the background - there is usually limited comprehension, and, indeed, limited attention. One becomes directly aware of sounds only when they stop. Nevertheless, a certain amount of learning may take place.

♦ Level 2. Here the purpose is relaxation, escape, getting your mind off something rather than on it. The material is comprehended but usually not analyzed for its value. This listening may result in useful ideas, but they are usually peripheral and/or accidental.

♦ Level 3. On this level, answers are sought as a key to action. One listens to weather reports, traffic information from a plane - temporarily useful but what we might call forgettable transient information. This form of listening does not require long, sustained concentration.

♦ Level 4. This is the stage of analytical and critical listening. The listener not only seeks a serious answer to a serious question but evaluates the quality of the answer. Round-table discussions, serious listening to talks, spirited conversation, symphonic music are at the fourth level. At this stage, listening to music is in the foreground of attention not in the background as on previous levels.

It is listening on the fourth level that primarily concerns us in teaching. Such listening may add an emotional and dramatic quality. Radio and recordings highlight the importance of listening.

Listening is as active as reading (the other receptive skill), and in some ways even more difficult. It well requires attention, thought, interpretation, and imagination. To improve our learners' listening skills we should let them:

Adopt a positive attitude.

Be responsive.

Shut out distractions.

Listen for the speaker's purpose.

Look for the signals of what is to come.

Look for summaries of what has gone before.

Evaluate the supporting materials.

Look for non-verbal clues. We can call listening a decoding-making sense of the message process. Each short stretch of meaningful material which is read or heard has to be: recognized as meaningful and understood on perception; held in the short term memory long enough to be decoded; related to what has gone before and /or what follows.

Out of this process come pieces of information which can be stored in the long term memory for recall later. We can show the whole process in the form of a model:

> Perception of sounds, letter shapes, etc.;

> Initial recognition of meaning of short stretches;

> Material held in short term memory;

> Related to material already held in short term memory; У Related to material arriving in short-term memory;

> Meaning extracted from message and retained in long-term memory;

> Gist recalled later.

We can divide the listening process into 3 stages;

- Pre-listening (purpose must be given at this stage).
- During (in-while) listening.
- Post-listening (speaking).

There is an association between expectation, purpose, and comprehension, therefore a purpose should be given to our learners. We should train students to understand what is being said in conversations to get them to disregard redundancy, hesitation, and ungrammaticality. The major problem is the actual way listening material is presented to the students. We should give a clear lead in what they are

going to hear; use some kind of visual back-up for them to understand; give questions and tasks in order to clarify the things in their minds; and be sure that these tasks help in learning, not confusing. Students should learn how to use the environmental clues; the speaker's facial expression, posture, eye direction, proximity, gesture, tone of voice, and that general surroundings contribute information.

In listening activities, we listen for a purpose. We make an immediate response to what we hear. There are some visual or environmental clues as to the meaning of what is heard. Stretches of heard discourse come in short chunks, and most heard discourse is spontaneous, therefore differs from formal spoken prose in the amount of redundancy 'noise' and colloquialisms, and its auditory character.

In listening to English, the most important features can be defined as:

- □ coping with the sounds;
- □ understanding intonation and stress;
- □ coping with redundancy and noise;
- □ predicting;
- □ understanding colloquial vocabulary; Q fatigue;
- □ understanding different accents;
- □ using visual and environmental clues.

This brings us to the thought that, while planning exercises, listening materials, task and visual materials should be taken into consideration. The teacher should produce a suitable discourse while using recordings. A preset purpose, on-going learner response, motivation, success, simplicity, and feedback should be the things considered while preparing the task. Visual materials are useful for contextualization. We can also categorize the goals of listening as listening for enjoyment, for information, for persuasion, for perception and comprehension, and lastly to solve problems. The aim of teaching listening at school is usually realized in listening for comprehension.

We can divide listening for comprehension into three stages;

- Listening and making no response (following a written text, informal teacher talk).

• Listening and making short responses (obeying instructions — physical movement, building models, picture dictation, etc.), true-false exercises, noting specific information, etc.

• Listening and making longer response (repetition and dictation, para-phrasing, answering questions, answering comprehension questions on texts, predictions, filling gaps, summarizing, etc).

The purposes that should be in a listening activity are giving/providing:

> General information (understanding of the main points).

> Specific information (understanding of the particular items).

> Cultural interest (generally informing about the target language culture).

> Information about people's attitudes and opinions.

> The organization of ideas.

> Sequence of events.

> Lexical items (words expressing noise I movement).

> Structural items (their use and meaning).

> Functional items (their form and use).

In order to teach listening skills, a teacher should firstly state the difficulties. For a student of a foreign language, accurate and intelligent listening is a necessity, and the teacher is responsible to help his I her learners to acquire this skill which provides the very foundation for learning and functioning in a language. The teacher can observe and isolate the errors in speaking, but could not in listening. In listening, the learner can exercise no controls over the structural and lexical range of the speaker to whom he is listening. Nevertheless, any listener can learn to focus on significant content items, to explain in another way he can learn to listen selectively.

Helping the learners to distinguish sounds, teaching to isolate significant content and informational items for concentration may be provided by controlled listening exercises. One exercise is to give him certain performance objectives -to give him general informational questions that he should be able to answer after he listens the material for the first time. These questions should require only the isolation of facts clearly revealed in the material. Questions that require application or inference from

the information contained in the listening exercise, are best used at later stages or more advanced students.

More controls are necessary at less advanced levels. Sheets containing sequentially organized and significant questions on context and content - questions that call for one-word answers serve as useful guides for the student. Such questions help him filter out and listen for significant information. The questions themselves suggest the content and provide the student with an organizational frame for selective listening.

For listening comprehension exercises, we tend to read passages, record news or broadcasts, or prepare lectures. All of them have value, but they are extremely difficult sources for early practice in selective listening. This type of listening exercises does not present the redundancies, the colloquialisms, the hesitations, the gestures and the facial expressions that are an inseparable part of the spoken language. They emphasize informational content and fail to provide the signals used to communicate information and meaning.

Since most of the actual listening the student will be exposed to outside of the class is likely to be real-life conversation, it seems wisest to use materials cast in real-life situations for listening comprehension exercises - at least at the beginning level. If the oral instruction of the course is contextualized - set into a "situation" - it should be easy enough to contextualize the aural practice as well. The teacher can easily adapt to listening exercises of those situations through which the text presents oral drills and communicative activities, just by giving them a slightly different twist. Listening exercises should be as natural as the situations from which they grow. In other words, an exercise in listening comprehension must be as close as possible to a "slice of life" - neither a contrived situation nor an artificially delivered discourse. By means of this, a teacher has a great work to do, and has to be a very creative person in order to teach listening communicatively.

Example of a lesson on teaching listening skills.

Topic: Beauty Contest

Duration: 20 minutes

Level: Upper Intermediate

Materials: Pictures, blackboard, tape, tape-recorder

Goals: Students are asked to understand when they listen to a speech. This lesson will at least make the students take one step to get accustomed to hearing and understanding what they hear.

Objectives: By the end of the lesson the students will understand the significance of listening.

Activities.

Pre-listening activities: The teacher asks the students what they are going to listen to. A discussion atmosphere is tried to be created. At this stage pictures are used effectively.

During listening activities: While students are listening to the tape the teacher asks them to take some notes.

Post-listening activities: The teacher writes some questions on the board and asks them to answer the questions. They are also stimulated to talk and participate in the activity dominantly.

I. PRE-LISTENIG ACTIVITIES

The teacher hangs the pictures on the board and tries to make the students talk about the subjects.

T: Do you think they are beautiful?

S:. ..

T: Can you guess the name of the first competitor?

S:...

T: Can you guess the height of the second competitor?

S:. ..

T: What nationality does the third girl belong to? What is your opinion?

S:. ..

II. DURING LISTENING ACTIVITIES

The teacher asks the students to listen to the tape very carefully. And he gives information lists to the students. While they are listening to the tape they try to fill the

blanks with appropriate information. If no information appears for any blank on the list, students are asked to put a cross on the blank provided for the required information.

III. POST-LISTENING ACTIVITY

The teacher writes on the board some questions. Students answer these questions to test whether they understood what they have listened or not.

> Whose name is the best? Why do you think so?

> Who is the tallest one of all?

> Who is the oldest one of all?

> Who is the heaviest one of all?

> What nationality does the first one belong to?

> What nationality does the second one belong to?

> What nationality does the third one belong to?

> Who can speak two languages?

> What are those languages?

> Whose favourite film star is Leonardo Di Caprio?

> What does Suzanne Kerrigan mean by saying "I

Elizabeth McCornick

Nationality: Canadian

Weight: 53

Age: 21

Languages:

Hobbies:

Profession:

Height:

Her mother's name:

Alexandra Bellomonti Nationality: Italian Weight: 51 Age: 20 Languages: Hobbies: Profession: Height:

Suzanne Kerrigan Nationality: Weight: 56 Age: 22 Languages: Hobbies: Profession: Height: 1.73118

TRANSCRIPT

♦ I'm Elizabeth McCornick. I'm participating from Canada. I'm 21 years old and I weigh 53 kilos. I am a girl of 90-60-90. I am a bilingual person; that means I can speak two languages fluently and accurately: English and French. I prefer going to

movies to enjoying theatrical acts. My favourite film star is Leonardo Di Caprio. My friends say that I am a good cook as well. I admit I like cooking traditional dishes in my spare time. I wish my best wishes to the other contestants. Thanks.

♦♦♦ Good evening! I would like to greet all the people watching and participating this contest. My name is Alexandra Bellomonti and I'm from Italy. I am 20 years old and 51 kilos I weigh. I like going out with my friends at the weekends. I can also say that I'm studying really hard and I am expecting to be accepted to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. I really have a great desire for being a genetic engineer in the future. Thank you!

♦♦• Hello everybody! I am Suzanne Kerrigan from the USA. I was born in 1976, in LA, California. I confess I weigh 56 kilos but I'm 1. 73 cm tall and that subdues my weight I think. I like skating on ice and I'm an amateur figure skater. I also like foreign and strange meals if they prove to be delicious, of course. Finally, I hope the political situation of my country will not effect this kind of a contest.

5. Testing listening.

Testing listening involves a variety of skills. At the lowest level, it involves discrimination among sounds, discrimination among intonation and stress patterns, and comprehension of short and long listening texts. While the first two are parts of listening, they are, of course, not sufficient.

Testing phoneme discrimination.

Sounds are sometimes difficult to discriminate in a language other than one's native language, especially if the sounds are not distinguished in the native language. There are several ways to test phoneme discrimination, that is, ability to tell the difference between different sounds. One way to test phoneme discrimination is to have the testees look at a picture and listen to four words and decide which word is the object in the picture. The words chosen as alternatives should be close to the correct word. However, it is often difficult to find common enough words with similar sounds, and if unfamiliar words are used, they will not make good alternatives. Alternatively, the testees could be presented with four pictures and be asked to choose the picture that matches the word that they hear. Another possibility

is to give testees three words and ask them to indicate which two are the same. Finally, testees can listen to a spoken sentence and be asked to identify which one of four similar words was used in the sentence.

Items with full sentences have the drawback that testees can make use of not just phoneme discrimination but also knowledge of grammar and lexical items. If one of the words from the alternatives does not fit grammatically or semantically in the sentence, then testees who realize that have an advantage.

This type of discrimination item is one that can be used for diagnostic purposes to see whether students have particular problems with distinguishing between phonemes. However, it does not give the teacher any information about the testees' ability to comprehend spoken English.

Discriminating stress and intonation.

The ability to recognize stress can be tested by having testees listen to a sentence that they also have in front of them. Testees are instructed to indicate the word that carries the main stress of the sentence. While recognizing stress patterns is useful in English, the problem with this type of test is that it lacks a context. Testees need to show that they can recognize the difference between "John is going today" and "John is going today" but they do not need to show that they understand that there is a difference in the meaning of the two sentences or what the difference is.

Ability to understand the meaning of difference in intonation can be tested by having the testees listen to a statement and choose from three interpretations of the statement. For example, testees might be given the statement "Kate is a wonderful musician" and be asked to decide whether the speaker is making a straightforward statement, a sarcastic statement, or a question. Since the context is neutral, however, it is sometimes difficult to avoid ambiguity. In real communication, listeners make use of their background knowledge, the context, etc., as well as the intonation to help them interpret the communicative meaning of an utterance.

Understanding sentences and dialogues.

A teacher can also test the students' understanding of individual sentences and dialogues. In the simplest form, this type of item consists of a single sentence that

testees listen to and four written statements from which they choose the one closest in meaning to the original spoken sentence. For example:

Spoken: I had hoped to visit you while I was in New York.

Written: A. I was in New York but did not visit you.

B. I will be in New York and hope to visit you.

C. I visited you in New York and hope to again.

D. I am in New York and would like to visit you. Another type of item is one in which the testees listen to an utterance and

choose from among four responses the most appropriate response. In that case, the testees are not being asked directly what the meaning of the utterance is. Rather they are being asked to show that they know what it means by showing that they recognize an appropriate response. This tests both the testees' listening ability and their knowledge of appropriate second pair parts of adjacency pairs.

An example of this type of item is as follows.

Spoken: Would you mind if I visited you next time I came to New York?

Written: A. Yes, of course. I'd love to visit New York.

B. No, I don't really think that much of New York.

C. Yes, I would. You can come any time.

D. No, not at all. I'd really love to have you.

(At a slightly higher level, both the first statement and the responses can be spoken, but in that case, it might be better to have only three responses, since it would be difficult to keep all four responses in mind.)

In this example, the testees need to know that "Would you mind if I..." is a form used for asking permission, and that a positive response begins with "no (I don't mind)." Because this type of item requires two different types of information, there is a certain amount of controversy about it. Some theorists argue that it is not a good item type, because it requires these two types of knowledge. Testees could possibly understand the utterance perfectly well but not know how to respond to it. Also, since the utterances are presented in isolation and out of context, the situation is not realistic. However, this type of item can be useful if these limitations are kept in

mind. It is a more communicative type of task than many listening tasks, so it may have beneficial effects, and it is relatively easy to administer.

Tasks using visual materials.

1) Matching and true/false tasks. Some types of tasks make use of visual materials along with the spoken material to test listening. The simplest form of this task is to present testees with a picture or other visual information (for example, a chart, graph, etc.) along with spoken true/false statements. Testees look at the visual and decide if the statements are true or false. An alternative is to present testees with a series of similar pictures and to have them match the pictures with spoken sentences describing them. Similarly, the testees can listen to a short dialogue, rather than just a statement, and decide which of the pictures matches the dialogue.

The advantage of using visual materials in this way is that they can be used to test listening alone without involving other skills very much (if the tester considers that an advantage), though it is impossible to entirely eliminate the use of other skills. However, they do not reflect the sorts of listening done in the real world.

2)Map tasks. Another way to use visual materials in testing listening is to use maps. One activity involves having testees listen to directions for how to get somewhere and follow along on the map. They respond by drawing their route or indicating where they would be at the end of the directions. Another possibility is to have testees listen to a conversation referring to various locations on the map and having the testees identify the locations.

3)Drawing Tasks. Testees can also do drawing tasks according to instructions. For example, they can be given a simple line drawing and be asked to complete it according to certain instructions. The testees can be presented with a diagram of a room with the bed represented by a rectangle and be asked to add a table, a bookcase, a door, etc., in certain locations in the room. It is important to keep such activities simple so that the drawing task itself does not demand too much of testees. The activity is more interesting if it can be done as part of a simple story rather than as a list of statements, though this may depend on the level of the testees. In addition, the students should have a chance to try out this type of activity before having to do it as

part of a test.

Tasks involving talks and lectures.

For students who will be using English in schools where it is the medium of instruction, there will be situations where they need to listen to lectures or talks in English and take notes and/or answer questions on the lecture or talk. Therefore, listening tests can involve listening to formal or informal talks.

One way of using talks in listening tests is to have the testees listen to the talk and then fill in the blanks in a written summary of the talk. The words chosen from blanks should be ones that the testees cannot figure out from the context of the summary, without listening to the talk, but they should also be ones that are related to the main idea of the talk, so that filling in the blanks does not require remembering small details of the talk.

Another way of doing this involves giving testees questions to answer as they listen to the talk. These questions can be short answer/completion, multiple choice, or true/false. The difficulty with using short answer or completion questions is that they require the testees to both read and write while they are listening, something that can be difficult even for native speakers. Multiple choice questions may require a lot of reading, something that may also be a problem. True/false questions may be the best type for this type of task, since they require relatively little reading compared to multiple choice questions and relatively little writing compared to short answer/completion questions. Also, true/false questions can also have a "no information available" option, meaning that the information required to answer the question is not included in the talk. This decreases the amount of guessing and reduces the element of chance.

Another type of task that can be used is a chart that the testees fill in while listening to the talk. Answers in some of the blanks in the chart may be filled in for the testees. Testees should be given the chart in advance of hearing the talk, and be given time to familiarize themselves with it and make sure they understand what is expected of them.

Finally, testees can be allowed to take notes while listening to the talk, and then use the notes to answer questions after the talk is over. Depending on the length and complexity of the talk, testees might be given a list of the major topics included in the talk in order to help them in taking notes.

There is a number of ways to test listening, but, particularly when testees' listening proficiency gets more advanced, testing listening becomes more complicated. It becomes more difficult to separate listening from other skills, and combining skills can put great demands on the testee. In addition, some ways of testing listening do not reflect real-world listening tasks. In choosing tasks for listening, the teacher should be aware of these problems.

6. Making use of redundancy in listening and speaking.

One of the major problems for students practising listening comprehension in English is knowing where to focus attention. They often attempt to hear and understand every word of a sentence, believing that each one is equally important. Inevitably they cry out, "Please, Teacher, more slowly!"

This appeal for help may be interpreted as meaning "All the words seem to be joined together and I haven't a clue as to what you are talking about." But it may equally well mean "I got the gist of what you said but missed a few words in the middle, and that worries me."

All languages employ redundancy in varying degrees, although many language students may never have had it pointed out to them in their native language. Yet it is crucial for students learning a second language to be aware of this feature. The ability to make do with only a part of what is heard and understand the main message is a vitally important one for effective language in a communicative situation. However, an awareness of redundancy should be fostered through conscious practice once the student has moved over from intensive to extensive listening.

It is easy to demonstrate redundancy in simple question/answer situations. In the question "Where did you go yesterday?" the first and last words convey the essential message. Even a failure to hear "you" would not normally affect comprehension, since in a one-to-one situation it would be rather strange to ask "Where did I go

yesterday?" With the use of nonverbal communication strategies (gestures, facial expressions, etc.) there is little chance of ambiguity. Yet for many students, especially if they have been trained in the past to focus on structure, there will be an urge to try to grasp every word, and in their attempt to decipher the middle of the question - especially if spoken at normal speed - they will quite probably lose the message altogether.

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Lecture 5: TEACHING SPEAKING

1. The goals of teaching speaking.

The goal of a speaking component in a large class should be to encourage the acquisition of communication skills and to foster real communication in and out of the classroom. It follows then that the objectives for developing oral fluency will address this goal by setting forth specific content, activities and methods which foster communication.

Accordingly, a necessary first step is a needs analysis - the teacher can determine the kinds of situations in which the students will find themselves, the linguistic information they'll need to possess, and the resources they have available.

Once speech functions have been identified, it can then be determined which linguistic structures are most naturally related to these particular speech functions and tasks.

The next step and the last one - several factors must be considered in choosing both the specific material to be covered and the methodology with which to cover it. The 1st factor is the level of the students. While beginners require a recycling of material, from controlled practice and drills to more "free expression" activities, relatively advanced students may instead need to polish already-developed skills.

2. Activities for the formation of speaking habits and skills.

In speaking classes students must be exposed to three key items: (1) form-focused instruction, that is, attention to details of pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and so forth; (2) meaning-focused instruction, that is, opportunities to produce meaningful spoken messages with real communicative purposes; and (3) opportunities to improve fluency. Elements of all of the above should be present throughout a speaking program, with emphasis on form-focused instruction at the elementary levels and, as the learners' progress, on meaning-focused instruction at the higher levels.

Form-focused speaking.

When learners first begin to speak another language their speaking will need to be based on some form-focused learning. An effective way to begin is to base speaking on some useful, simple memorized phrases and sentences. These may be greetings, simple personal descriptions, and simple questions and answers. The teacher can use the following activities:

- Repetition drills. The teacher says a phrase or sentence several times and then asks the learners to repeat. Some learners can be called on to repeat individually, and then the class may repeat together. Because it is helpful to give learners quite a lot of repetition practice in beginning level courses, the teacher needs to find ways of varying repetition activities to keep the learners interested. Here is a list of possible ways to vary repetition. As an example, the sentence "Where is the train station?" may be used.

1.The teacher varies the speed. The teacher says the sentence slowly and the learners repeat. Then the teacher says the phrase a little faster until the phrase is being said at normal speaking speed.

2.The teacher varies the way of choosing who is to repeat the sentence. The teacher says the sentence and points to the first person in the first row to repeat it. The teacher says it again and points to the second person in the first row. Then the teacher starts pointing at people at random so that the learners cannot predict who will be the next person called on. This variation can also include choosing individuals or choosing the whole class to repeat the sentence. Another variation of this kind is to get the learner who has just repeated the sentence to call the name of the next person to repeat the sentence.

3.The teacher can vary the content of the sentence. That is, the teacher can substitute a word for one of the words in a sentence. So instead of only saying "Where is the train station?" the learners might also be called on to repeat "Where is the post office?" This is called a substitution drill.

4.The teacher varies the way the substitution is signaled to the learners, for example, on the board there may be a substitution table like this:

the station?

the post office? Where is your house?

the bank?

the hospital? At first the teacher points to the words "the station" on the board and says "Where is the station?" The learners repeat. The teacher points to the next substitution, "the post office," and says that and the learners repeat. After doing this for a while, the teacher just points to the substitution and does not say it, but the learners have to say the whole sentence. After doing that for a while the teacher does not point but just says the substitution.

5. The teacher may vary the way of choosing the substitution. At first, the teacher chooses the substitutions in the same order as they are written on the board. Then the teacher may choose them in random order so that the learners cannot predict what the next substitution will be.

In controlled practice the teacher can model the forms to be produced, providing necessary linguistically correct input. The students are then allowed to practice the material, and the teacher follows up by reinforcing the forms practiced. What is important is that students are allowed to speak about what is true, real, and interesting.

- Chain drills, (eg. Student A: I visited France last year. Student B: She visited France last year.)

- Structural interview. The students question each other and answer factually, thus exchanging "real" information, while at the same time repeating and reinforcing specific structures (yes-no, wA-questions). A variation of this requires students to take on assigned roles while asking and answering questions, prompted through the use of pictures.

- Language games or picture games. They require students to match texts with pictures. One more example of these is a game "Class Photo", which requires students to arrange other class members into poses for photographs.

- Psychology games:

a) the students may speculate about the age and character of people in the

pictures or photographs;

b) "Twenty questions game", where a group of students has 20 chances to "intuit" what object (or notion for more advanced students) the "leader" is thinking about;

c) Story building, where one person usually the instructor, starts with a sentence or clause (eg., I had a friend named Mary), and then the students take turns building upon this clause, turn by turn, repeating everything which was said before.

The role of drills.

Drills are also called a linguistically structured or controlled activities. But the skill of a teacher in carrying out a drill lies in learning when to vary the activity so that the learners do not become bored by it. Skilled teachers make continual, small variations so that the activity is always challenging, smooth, and interesting. The activity can be taken a step towards a more meaning-focused activity by getting the learners to choose their own words to substitute for words in the model sentence. The use of drills, however, should be seen as merely one kind of form-focused activity that needs to be balanced with other types of form-focused activities, as well as with meaning-focused and fluency development activities. Drills play a useful part in a language course in helping learners to be formally accurate in their speech and in helping them to quickly learn a useful collection of phrases and sentences that allow them to start using the language as soon as possible. As their proficiency and experience in the language develop, most of these sentences and phrases may be re-analyzed and incorporated into the learners' system of knowledge of the language. Language use based on memorization can be the starting point for more creative use of the language.

Meaning-focused speaking.

In addition to form-focused speaking, language learners should also be exposed to and given opportunities to practice and use meaning-focused communication, in which they must both produce and listen to meaningful oral communication. For this purpose "participation" activities may be helpful. These are activities where the

students participate in some communicative activity in a "natural setting". The following are the examples of such activities:

- Speaking by numbers. Each learner is given a number and a topic. The topics could include family, money, coming to school, a colour, future goals, travel, work, and so forth. The learners can think about their topics for a minute or two and then the teacher calls a number. The learner with that number then says two or three sentences about his or her particular topic. The speaker then calls a number and the learner with that number has to ask the speaker a question or two related to the topic just spoken about. When the question is answered, the questioner calls a number and the person with that number asks another question. This continues three or four times and then the speaker calls the number of a new person who will speak about the topic that she or he was given. This is a meaning-focused speaking activity because both the speaker's and the listeners' attention is on the message being communicated.

- Guided discussion. The instructor provides a brief orientation to some problem or controversial topic, usually by means of a short reading. Students in small groups discuss the topic, suggesting possible solutions, resolutions, or complications. Then they work as a whole class and find a general solution. For more advanced students a variation of this activity - discussion-leading activity -could be appropriate. In this situation they select a topic themselves, find a short background article or write a summary of the topic, draw up a list of questions for consideration by the rest of the class, and finally, lead a semiformal class discussion on the topic, with prepared introduction and a spontaneous summing-up conclusion.

- Spontaneous conversation with a native speaker on the choice of the students. This conversation should be audio taped, then transcribed by the student himself, then checked by the teacher. There are many options for activities which may be carried out on the basis of the transcribed and audio taped conversation. It may be vocabulary building, concentrating on the native speaker's speech, etc.

- Interview. In it, the students become oral historians, interviewing their native-speaker acquaintances about some meaningful or memorable aspects of their lives.

The most successful of these projects seems to involve subjects the experiences of which are different in some important way from the student (eg., interview the oldest person you know, or someone who has had unusual experience).

Developing the learner's knowledge of language items. A problem -in meaning-focused speaking activities is making sure that the activity is actually developing the learner's knowledge of language items. There are several ways of using speaking to increase the speaker's control of the language items.

1.The meaning-focused speaking activity follows some form-focused instruction. That is, the teacher presents some new vocabulary or grammatical features, gives the learners some practice, and then uses a meaning-focused activity to help the learners use and remember these items.

2.Before the learners speak on a topic or take part in an activity, they work in pairs or groups of three or four to prepare. This gives the learners the chance to learn new items from each other. Here is an example using a "Same or different" information gap activity. In this kind of activity the learners work in pairs. Learner A has a set of small numbered pictures. Learner B has a similar set except that while some of B's are exactly the same as A's, some are different. They should sit facing each other so that they cannot see each other's picture(s). Learner A describes the first picture and B listens and then says if her or his picture is the same or different. If it is the same they both write S next to their picture; if it is different they both write D. Then Learner B describes picture number 2 and they decide if the pictures are the same or different. After they have done five or ten pictures, they can change partners so that Learner A works with a new Learner B. Before the activity begins, all the Learner As can get together in groups and help each other describe their pictures. All the Learner Bs do the same. When they have had enough preparation and practice they form Learner A and B pairs and do the activity.

3.The learners are given topics to talk about. They prepare at home, using dictionaries, reference texts, reading sources, and so forth. Here is an example called "Newspaper talks". Each learner has to choose a short and interesting article from an English language newspaper to present to the class. The learner must not read the

article aloud to the class but must describe the main points of the article. The class should then ask the presenter questions.

4. Many speaking activities involve some kind of written or picture input in the form of a worksheet. In the "Same or different" activity there are two sheets of pictures. In a "Ranking" activity or a "Problem Solving" activity, the work sheet contains written data about the situation, what to do, and possible choices. In a "Who Gets the Heart" activity, for example, a group of three or four students must decide from a list of several possible candidates who is to receive the only available heart for transplantation. None of the patients will survive without the new heart. They are a Nobel Prize winner in medical research (a 59 year old male with no family), a homemaker of three (32 year old female), an Olympic athlete (24 year old female, married with no children), an Academy award win ning film director (female, 37 years old, two children), and a 45-year-old home less male. The students must rank in order which of these people is most deserv ing of the heart. Then, each student presents his/her case to the group. Based on these presentations, and the ensuing discussion, the group must choose one candidate for the transplant. Then, each group must present its conclusion to the class as a whole. The worksheets contain vocabulary and phrases that may be new to the learners and which will be necessary or useful in the speaking activity. For example, in the Ranking activity, the vocabulary in the list of items to rank will need to be used by the learners. Those items which generate the most disagreement over the ranking will likely result in the greatest amount of vocabulary learning.

5. Some speaking activities encourage learners to ask each other about the meaning of unfamiliar words or constructions. This seeking and giving of explanations is called negotiation. There are similarities between this type of activity and the "Same or Different" activity in that each learner in a pair or group has different pieces of information for completing the activity. These kinds of activities are given lots of different names including jigsaw tasks, two-way tasks, information gap, and so forth.

Language can be learned through production (speaking and writing) as well as through reception (listening and reading), but this learning needs to be planned.

3. Brainstorming as a useful technique in teaching speaking.

Brainstorming is an activity used to generate ideas in small groups. The purpose is to generate as many ideas as possible within a specified time-period. These ideas are not evaluated until the end and a wide range of ideas is often produced. Each idea produced does not need to be usable. Instead, initial ideas can be viewed as a starting point for more workable ideas. The principle of brainstorming is that you need lots of ideas to get good ideas.

Brainstorming has a wide range of applications. Since 1930, it has been used successfully in business for invention and innovation. In the language classroom, brainstorming is often used in teaching writing. Activities such as free-association and word-mapping are often included as part of the pre-writing or warm-up phase.

Theoretical aspects of brainstorming

Is brainstorming useful in teaching conversation? In particular, is it a useful activity for warm-up in conversation classes? Some learners are more successful than others. In order to find out why, methodologists studied the characteristics of good learners. Four of these characteristics are discussed below. These may explain why brainstorming is a useful tool in our classrooms.

Good students organize information about language. Good students try to organize their knowledge. As teachers, we can try to facilitate this organization by using suitable warm-up activities. A warm-up activity can remind our students of existing knowledge. At the same time, it can direct their minds towards ideas that they will meet in the main activity. In this way, it provides a link between new and existing knowledge.

However, each student has a different store of existing knowledge organized in a unique way. A textbook or teacher presentation can never use this knowledge to its best potential. In many warm-up activities, the teacher and students can be frustrated because the organization of language in the warm-up activity is different from the organization in the students' minds. This mismatch is a block to good learning.

Brainstorming invites the students to organize existing knowledge in their own minds. Many students have a large passive vocabulary that does not translate directly into productive capabilities in the classroom. Brainstorming can help to activate this. It works to mobilize the resources of the student by creating a series of connecting ideas. This leads to an organization of language. The links that appear on paper created in word mapping are visible evidence of this organization. At this point the students will be better oriented to the topic and better motivated to fill the gaps in their knowledge.

Good students find their own way and take charge of their own learning. Students who do not take charge of their own learning are unable to take full advantage of learning opportunities. Many teachers find that lack of self-initiative is usually more of a problem than lack of ability in conversation classes. Brainstorming can help learners to take charge. Learners begin examining their existing resources and identifying gaps in their knowledge. The free association nature allows learners to become involved in the selection of language used in the speaking task.

Good students make intelligent guesses. The good learner makes intelligent guesses, but the language classroom often works against this. Because of nervousness in a foreign language or fear of teacher correction, many students are afraid of using language unless they are sure that it is totally correct. This stops them making intelligent guesses and slows down learning. Brainstorming can help students to learn to take risks. There are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers in brainstorming and no danger of teacher correction. By carrying out a simple brainstorming warm-up, students can obtain a sense of competence and feel more confident in making intelligent guesses.

Good students use contextual cues to help them in comprehension. The good student uses the context of language to help in comprehension but the foreign language classroom can often seem artificial. Brainstorming allows the students to create a context for the subsequent speaking task. Relevant existing knowledge (content schema) can be called up from memory and can provide a context that supports comprehension and production in the subsequent speaking task.

Practical aspects of brainstorming.

Brainstorming is an ideal warm-up activity because it takes little time. Also, it can be explained easily and be used with any chosen topic.

Here are examples:

1. List words to describe people's appearance.
2. List all the items you need for a party.
3. Make a list of house furniture. Lists based on a principle:

1. Write down a food that begins with each letter of the alphabet.
2. Make a list of animals starting with the smallest animal and getting bigger.

Finding alternatives for a blank in a sentence:

1. _____ The man got off his and walked away, (answers could

include: horse/bicycle/letter/backside).

2. Peter lived in a __ (answers could include: caravan/house/fantasy world/apartment).

3. I don't like her because she is _ (answers could include:

too talkative/the teacher's pet/boring).

Brainstorming on a picture. Pictures are a rich source of inspiration for brainstorming. Strange events evoke the biggest variety of responses. Most students will let their imagination roam if the pictures are strange enough. Use pictures from the textbook, magazines or other sources.

1.What are these people doing?

2.List the objects in the picture.

3.What is this man thinking about?

4.Write four words to describe this person.

Brainstorming using a song. Songs are wonderful for reducing nervousness. They seem to be particularly effective in whole-class brainstorming when the teacher is writing the ideas on the board. Play a song for the class and ask questions like the following:

1. How does the singer feel?

2. What do you think the singer looks like?

3. Suggest titles for this song.

4. When do you think that this song was written?

Word-mapping or phrase-mapping around a central theme. Write a word or phrase in the centre of a page. All the other words or phrases should link off this in a logical manner. Word-mapping can be useful for establishing groups of similar things, for example animals or food. Phrase-mapping can be useful for developing topics or functions.

Changing one word in a sentence each time. Each word must be changed, but each sentence must have a meaning. This can be useful to show the students the role of each word in a sentence prior to a substitution drill or other activities. It can be a fun activity to do on the blackboard. Example: 1. Peter played the flute in the orchestra.

2.Peter played the flute in the park.

3.John played the flute in the park.

4.John played soccer in the park.

5.John watched soccer in the park.

6.John watched soccer near the park.

7.John watched soccer near a park. Variations: add one word, take away one word.

Listing different ways of expressing a particular language function. Example: Ask someone to move his car.

1.Please move your car.

2.I'd appreciate if you could move your car.

3.Get your car out of my way.

Prediction. Guess what the speaker will say next. This can be used in conjunction with dialogues in textbooks. It is a powerful technique to encourage students to take a risk. If the dialogue is recorded, stop the tape and ask the students to predict what the speaker will say.

Free association. This is best done orally and can be a lot of fun. One student gives a word in your chosen topic and asks another student to say the first word that she thinks of. The second student continues to make associations. The first student simply repeats the word in each case. After making about 10 associations, the first student should try to work backwards from the last association to the original word. Example:

1.A: apple

2.B: red 3.A:red

4.B: rose

5.and so on.

Variation: Free association in pairs or in groups. Students make the associations from the previous student's word.

Group storytelling. Students work in groups and take turns adding to a story, either spoken or written. It is usually better to give the first line of the story. Example:

John was late for school because

1. Student A : he missed the train
2. Student B : and there wasn't another for 20 minutes
3. Student C : so he went to a game centre
4. Student D : but he lost his wallet

If the students are writing, it is interesting to write several stories at the same time.

4. Development of speaking fluency.

fluency in speaking is the aim of many language learners. Signs of fluency include a reasonably fast speed of speaking and only a small number of pauses and "urns" and "ers." These signs indicate that the speaker does not have to spend a lot of time searching for the language items needed to express the message. The following techniques that are sometimes called "performance activities" ("Performance"

activities are those in which the student prepares beforehand and delivers a message to a group) are used with this purpose:

- 4/3/2 is a useful technique for developing fluency and includes the features that are needed in fluency development activities. First the learners choose a topic or are given a topic with which they are very familiar. The first time that learners use this technique it may be best if the topic involves recounting something that happened to them. This is because the chronological order of the events will make it easier to recall and repeat because the time sequence provides a clear structure for the talk. The learners work in pairs. Learner A tells a story to Learner B and has a time limit of four minutes to do this. B just listens and does not interrupt or question Learner A. When the four minutes are up, the teacher says, "Change partners"; Learner A then moves to a new Learner B. The teacher says "Begin" and Learner A tells exactly the same story to the new partner but this time has only three minutes to tell it. When the three minutes are up, the teacher says "Stop. Change partners." With a new partner, Learner A now has two minutes to tell the story. During the three deliveries of the same story, the B learners do not talk and each listens to three different people. When the A learners have given their talk three times, the B learners can now go through the same sequence, this time as speakers. The features in 4/3/2 that help the development of fluency are the same features that occur in activities to develop listening fluency. The activity involves known vocabulary, grammar, and discourse. The learners have a high chance of performing successfully at a higher than normal speed. There are repeated opportunities to do the same thing.

- In the Headlines activity, students create newspaper "headlines" that will serve as the basis for the speaking activity. The learners all think of an interesting or exciting thing that has happened to them. Using a felt-tipped pen - so that the writing is easily seen - each learner writes a newspaper headline referring to that event. The teacher should give some examples to help the learners, such as "Burning Bed Brings Joy" and "Forgotten Shoes Never Return." Half of the learners hold their headlines up for the rest of the class to see. Those not holding up a headline go to hear a story behind the headline that interests them. Each story can be told to no more than two

people at a time. When the story is done, the listeners should circulate to a second headline that interests them. The tellers will thus have to repeat their story several times. After there has been plenty of opportunity to tell the stories, the other half of the class hold up their headlines and, in similar fashion, tell their stories.

4/3/2 and Headlines rely on repetition of the same story to develop fluency. This kind of fluency is useful for predictable topics that learners may need to speak about. For example, when meeting other people learners may need to talk about themselves, about their country, about the kind of food they eat, about their travels, about their interests and hobbies, and about their experiences.

-The student speech. The students choose a topic and are told to prepare a speech which should last not more than five minutes. Usually the students work in small groups so that in the course of a semester all the students are given a chance to participate in speech delivery. In the usual classroom setting the students deliver a speech and the teacher gives a feedback, often using an evaluation form.

-Role-plays or simulations and dramas. The idea of a simulation or a role-play is to create the pretence of a real-life situation in the classroom: the students "simulate" the real world. So we may ask them to pretend that they are in the airport or in some other place. What we are trying to do - artificially of course - is to give students practice in real-world English.

For a simulation to work it needs certain characteristics. They include:

1) reality of function - students must accept the function, they must not think of themselves as language students but the people in a given situation;

2) simulated environment (or situational conditions) - we do not take the students to a real airport;

3) structure - there must be some structure to the simulation and essential facts must be provided.

4) roles - the students may take part of themselves in a simulation or sometimes the teacher may ask them to play a role. This will be a pure role-play. So, in other words, all role-plays are simulations, but not all simulations are role plays.

In some cases, students could write the role-plays or dramas themselves. More guidance can be provided for beginning students. After the simulation has finished the teacher may conduct feedback with the students. The object here is to discuss with them whether the activity was successful, why certain decisions were reached and others weren't. It would be a good thing to record the activity but the students should not be aware of this. This will be a good opportunity to show where students performed particularly well and to point out where poor English made communication less effective.

- Finally debates can serve as an opportunity for a classroom performance activity for intermediate and advanced students. Class time can be used for students to select a topic, plan their research and information-gathering strategies, pool the results of this research, and plan their presentations, making sure to anticipate questions from the other team.

Some teachers recognize one more type of activities - observation activities. This technique is useful for building student's appreciation and awareness of language as it is actually used in the real world, and since the student is taking the role of non-participant observer, he or she is free to concentrate on the subject without fear of performance errors, a problem for beginners.

5. Developing speech habits with the help of songs.

The development of students' speech habits through music is comprised of three stages: preparatory, forming, and developing. Each of them has its own objectives.

The first stage is the formation of monological speech habits within the topic "music" and includes reading specially chosen micro-texts on the topic that contain information about different musical trends as well as the history of the Beatles. This should also include post-reading exercises aimed at vocabulary development.

The aim of the second stage is forming speech skills while discussing the songs under consideration. The tasks in this stage should be done in a seven-step sequence:

- Presentation to the students of pre-listening tasks.
- Listening to the song.
- Students answer the pre-listening questions.

- Post-listening tasks.
- Presentation of the typed text of the song lyrics.
- • Second listening to the song.
- Discussion of the song.

As an example, let us consider the tasks fulfilled while working with the song "Yesterday."

Pre-listening questions: What is the song about? What feelings does it evolve?

Post-listening questions: How do the melody and the lyrics evolve? Who is the lead vocal? What can you say about his way of singing? What instruments accompany McCartney's voice? Does the song sound like a classical piece? Whose image is created in the song? What kind of love is depicted in the song? Is the love story told in a highly emotional way or with a tinge of detachment?

Listen to the song again. Is there a proper balance of the singers' voices and instruments in the song? Characterize the main musical elements of the song.

Now listen to the recorded version of the song "Yesterday" by Ray Charles. What differences can you notice in his interpretation? Which singer is more dramatic?

The third stage of using a song in an English class is to further develop speech skills on the topic of "music" and to teach students how to use songs in English language learning. At this stage the students are involved in a discussion of the following problematic questions: Should a person understand only one musical genre or different kinds? Some people say that rock music promotes juvenile delinquency. Do you agree? Is rock music a passing phenomenon, an ephemeral fad with young people? What do you think are the main qualities of a pop-singer? Could you enumerate at least three of them?

This phase should also include training, so that the teachers of English could have the knowledge and skill to do the following: be able to select interesting texts on the topic of "music"; be able to analyse the didactic potential of a particular song; know how to teach a song to the pupils; be able to give a talk on the musical life of

the target language community; critically evaluate songs with the purpose of including them in class activities.

A teacher of English should be creative and innovative. Songs in English language teaching will help make the process more interesting and effective. The following are seven exercises which may be used in the class to practise speaking with the help of the students' favourite songs.

Exercise 1

Music which is soft and slow, such as lullabies, suggests a quiet, peaceful mood, while music that is loud and fast suggests a buoyant, active mood. Arrange the following adjectives in two groups of antonyms, according to the mood different songs may evoke:

quiet, peaceful v active, buoyant

(calm, restful, happy, dreamy, mysterious, self-pitying, intimate, sad, sombre, festive, joyful)

Exercise 2

Listen to the song (choose any song you like by the Beatles) and determine the mood the song evokes. Use the adjectives from the exercise above.

Exercise 3

These occupations are related to music. Consult an English-English dictionary for their meaning:

Composer; singer; listener; musicologist; conductor; ethnomusicologist; music publisher; music arranger; music producer; technician in a recording studio; instrument manufacturer.

Exercise 4

You may need the following adjectives about the voice of a singer: deep, gentle, soft, fresh, clear, lyrical, expressive, velvety, small, quiet, nasal, guttural, hollow, resonant, gruff, harsh, raucous, husky, mellow, metallic, weak, anaemic. Using the words above, describe the voices of the singers you know.

Exercise 5

Select from the list given below the words which best describe the music from the point of:

Mood-

Melody -

Rhythm -

Beat-

Tempo -

self-pitying, aggressive, intimate, calm, restful, happy, sad, dreamy, mysterious, buoyant, active, strong, tuneful, expressive, emotional, lifting, catching, restless, assured, distinctive, light, heavy, regular (irregular), impatient, abrupt, jaunty, crisp, irresistible, driving, steady, ongoing, definite, slow, solid, quick, swift, moderate, fast.

Exercise 6

Listen to the song "Michelle." Select the description (either a or b) that fits the song.

a. John Lennon - Acoustic guitar and backing vocal Paul McCartney - Bass guitar and lead vocal George Harrison - Acoustic guitar and backing vocal Ringo Starr - Drums

Written for Paul for the daughter of an American millionaire, the song features Paul on lead vocal with John and George adding the close harmony backing. This was another of the Beatles' songs to become an all-time standard. The song lapses into French now and again as with the phrase "Ma Belle" (My beautiful) and "Sont les mots qui vonts tres bien ensemble" (These are words that go together well).

b. John Lennon - Rhythm guitar and lead vocal Paul McCartney - Bass guitar and lead vocal George Harrison - Lead guitar

Ringo Starr - Drums

The lead vocal on this up-tempo ballad sounds double-tracked; it is in fact, a close harmony duet between John and Paul, and it is a fine example of how they blended their two voices to sound like one. It is fine proof that not only could Lennon and McCartney write songs but they could also sing.

Exercise 7

Listen to the song "Can't Buy Me Love"

Pre-Listening questions: In the title of the song the subject is omitted. Can you guess what it is?

Post-Listening questions:

1. Is the title of the song an appropriate one? Can you suggest other titles?

2.From whose point of view is the song sung? Do you agree with the singer that "Money can't buy me love?"

3.Who is doing the lead vocal, backing vocals?

4.What is the melody like?

5.Is there a dynamism and kinaesthetic appeal in the song? Can you determine the rhythm and tempo of the song?

6.What attracts you more in the song: the music or the lyrics? What is more important for a song: music or lyrics? Why?

6. Error correction.

Some learners may experience difficulty in pronouncing certain sounds and groups of sounds in another language. But giving too much attention to the correction of pronunciation in the early stages of language learning can make learners worried and reluctant to speak because of fear of making errors.

It is worth thinking about why errors occur, because this can help teachers decide what to do about them. The study of errors and their causes is called error analysis.

For each cause listed below, suggestions for the teacher are given in square brackets.

1.The learner makes an error because the learner has not had sufficient chance to observe the correct form or to develop sufficient knowledge of the language system. [Don't correct the learner but give more models and opportunities to observe.]

2.The learner makes an error because he/she has not observed the form correctly. [Give a little correction by showing the learner the difference between the correct form and his/her error.]

3.The learner makes an error because of nervousness. [Don't correct. Use less threatening activities - or, if and when appropriate, joke with the person/class/yourself to lighten the mood.]

4.The learner makes an error because the activity is difficult, that is, there are many things he/she has to think about during the activity. This is sometimes called cognitive overload. [Don't correct. Make the activity easier or give several chances to repeat the activity.]

5.The learner makes an error because the activity is confusing. Use of tongue twisters, for instance, for pronunciation can be confusing. [Don't correct. Improve the activity.]

6.The learner makes an error because he/she is using patterns from the first language instead of the patterns from the second language. [Give some correction. If there has been plenty of opportunity to develop knowledge of the second language, then some time should be spent on correction to help the learner break out of making errors that are unlikely to change. Errors which are resistant to change are sometimes called fossilized errors and imaginative correction is often needed to break the fossilization. If there has not been a lot of opportunity to develop knowledge of the second language, correct by telling the learner what to look for when observing people using the second language. This is called consciousness raising. It does not actually teach the correct form but makes the learner more aware of what to look for to learn it.]

7. The learner makes an error because he/she has been copying incorrect models. [Correct the learner and provide better models.]

This range of causes shows that the teacher should not rush into error correction, but should consider whether the error is worth the interruption and, if it is, the teacher should consider possible causes and then think of appropriate ways of dealing with the error.

7. Testing communicative competence.

Testing language has traditionally taken the form of testing knowledge about language, usually the testing of knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. However,

there is much more to being able to use language than knowledge about it. The basic idea of communicative competence remains the ability to use language appropriately, both receptively and productively, in real situations.

Communicative language tests are intended to be a measure of how the testees are able to use language in real life situations. In testing productive skills, emphasis is placed on appropriateness rather than on ability to form grammatically correct sentences. In testing receptive skills, emphasis is placed on understanding the communicative intent of the speaker or writer rather than on picking out specific details. And, in fact, the two are often combined in communicative testing, so that the testee must both comprehend and respond in real time. In real life, the different skills are not often used entirely in isolation. Students in a class may listen to a lecture, but they later need to use information from the lecture in a paper. In taking part in a group discussion, they need to use both listening and speaking skills. Even reading a book for pleasure may be followed by recommending it to a friend and telling the friend why you liked it.

The "communicativeness" of a test might be seen as being on a continuum. Few tests are completely communicative; many tests have some elements of communicativeness. For example, a test in which testees listen to an utterance on a tape and then choose from among three choices the most appropriate response, is more communicative than one in which the testees answer a question about the meaning of the utterance. However, it is less communicative than one in which the testees are face-to-face with the interlocutor (rather than listening to a tape) and are required to produce an appropriate response.

Tasks. Communicative tests are often very context-specific. A test for testees who are going to British universities as students would be very different from one for testees who are going to their company's branch office in the United States. If at all possible, a communicative language test should be based on a description of the language that the testees need to use. Though communicative testing is not limited to English for Specific Purposes situations, the test should reflect the communicative situation in which the testees are likely to find themselves. In cases where the testees

do not have a specific purpose, the language that they are tested on can be directed toward general social situations where they might be in a position to use English.

This basic assumption influences the tasks chosen to test language in communicative situations. A communicative test of listening, then, would test not whether the testee could understand what the utterance, "Would you mind putting the groceries away before you leave" means, but place it in a context and see if the testee can respond appropriately to it.

If students are going to be tested over communicative tasks in an achievement test situation, it is necessary that they be prepared for that kind of test, that is, that the course material cover the sorts of tasks they are being asked to perform. For example, you cannot expect testees to correctly perform such functions as requests and apologies appropriately and evaluate them on it if they have been studying from a structural syllabus. Similarly, if they have not been studying writing business letters, you cannot expect them to write a business letter for a test.

Tests intended to test communicative language are judged, then, on the extent to which they simulate real life communicative situations rather than on how reliable the results are. In fact, there is an almost inevitable loss of reliability as a result of the loss of control in a communicative testing situation. If, for example, a test is intended to test the ability to participate in a group discussion for students who are going to a British university, it is impossible to control what the other participants in the discussion will say, so not every testee will be observed in the same situation, which would be ideal for test reliability. However, according to the basic assumptions of communicative language testing, this is compensated for by the realism of the situation.

Evaluation. There is necessarily a subjective element to the evaluation of communicative tests. Real life situations don't always have objectively right or wrong answers, and so band scales need to be developed to evaluate the results. Each band has a description of the quality (and sometimes quantity) of the receptive or productive performance of the testee.

Examples of communicative test tasks.

Speaking/Listening. - Information gap. An information gap activity is one in which two or more testees work together, though it is possible for a confederate of the examiner rather than a testee to take one of the parts. Each testee is given certain information but also lacks some necessary information. The task requires the testees to ask for and give information. The task should provide a

context in which it is logical for the testees to be sharing information. The following is an example of an information gap activity.

Student A: You are planning to buy a tape recorder. You don't want to spend more than about 80 pounds, but you think that a tape recorder that costs less than 50 pounds is probably not of good quality. You definitely want a tape recorder with auto reverse, and one with a radio built in would be nice. You have investigated three models of tape recorder and your friend has investigated three models. Get the information from him/her and share your information. You should start the conversation and make the final decision, but you must get his/her opinion, too. (Information about three kinds of tape recorders).

Student B: Your friend is planning to buy a tape recorder, and each of you investigated three types of tape recorder. You think it is best to get a small, light tape recorder. Share your information with your friend, and find out about the three tape recorders that your friend investigated. Let him/her begin the conversation and make the final decision, but don't hesitate to express your opinion. (Information about three kinds of tape recorders).

This kind of task would be evaluated using a system of band scales. The band scales would emphasize the testee's ability to give and receive information, express and elicit opinions, etc. If his or her intention were communicative, it would probably not emphasize pronunciation, grammatical correctness, etc., except to the extent that these might interfere with communication. The examiner should be an observer and not take part in the activity, since it is difficult to both take part in the activity and evaluate it. Also, the activity should be tape recorded, if possible, so that it could be evaluated later and it does not have to be evaluated in real time.

- Role-play. In a role-play, the testee is given a situation to play out with another person. The testee is given in advance information about what his/her role is, what specific functions he/she needs to carry out, etc. A role-play task would be similar to the above information gap activity, except that it would not involve an information gap. Usually the examiner or a confederate takes one part of the role-play. The following is an example of a role-play activity.

Student: You missed a class yesterday. Go to the teacher's office and apologize for having missed the class. Ask for the handout from the class. Find out what the homework was.

Examiner: You are a teacher. A student who missed your class yesterday comes to your office. Accept her/his apology, but emphasize the importance of attending classes. You do not have any extra handouts from the class, so suggest that she/he copy one from a friend. Tell her/him what the homework was.

Again, if the intention of this test were to test communicative language, the testee would be assessed on his/her ability to carry out the functions (apologizing, requesting, asking for information, responding to a suggestion, etc.) required by the role.

Testing reading and writing. Some tests combine reading and writing in communicative situations. Testees can be given a task in which they are presented with instructions to write a letter, memo, summary, etc., answering certain questions, based on information that they are given.

- Letter writing. In many situations, testees might have to write business letters, letters asking for information, etc. The following is an example of such a task: Your boss has received a letter from a customer complaining about prob lems with a coffee maker that he bought six months ago. Your boss has in structed you to check the company policy on returns and repairs and reply to the letter. Read the letter from the customer and the statement of the company policy about returns and repairs below and write a formal business letter to the cus tomer. (The customer's complaint letter; the company policy).

The letter would be evaluated using a band scale, based on compliance with formal letter writing layout, the content of the letter, inclusion of correct and relevant information, etc.

- Summarizing. Testees might be given a long passage - for example, 400 words - and be asked to summarize the main points in less than 100 words. To make this task communicative, the testees should be given realistic reasons for doing such a task. For example, the longer text might be an article that their boss

would like to have summarized so that he/she can incorporate the main points into a talk. The summary would be evaluated, based on the inclusion of the main points of the longer text.

Testing listening and writing/note taking.

Listening and writing may also be tested in combination. In this case, testees are given a listening text and they are instructed to write down certain information from the text. Again, although this is not interactive, it should somehow simulate a situation where information would be written down from a spoken text. An example of such a test is as follows: You and two friends would like to see a movie. You call the local multiplex theatre. Listen to their recording and fill in the missing information in the chart so that you can discuss it with your friends later.

Theatre Number	Movie	Starting Times
1	Air Head	
2		4:00, 6:00, 8:00
3		4:35,6:45,8:55
4	Off Track	

Communicative language tests are those that make an effort to test language in a way that reflects the way that language is used in real communication. It is, of course, not always possible to make language tests communicative, but it may often be possible to give them communicative elements. This can have beneficial effects. If students are encouraged to study for more communicative tasks, this can only have a positive effect on their language learning.

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PRACTICAL LESSON

Task 1. The following are the examples of five lesson plans to teach speaking competence. Choose the one you like and get ready to conduct this lesson with your classmates.

Lesson 1-A Soldier's Lie

The story. Once a soldier asked his commanding officer for a day's leave to attend his sister's wedding. The officer asked him to wait outside the door for a few minutes while he considered the request. The officer then called the soldier back in and said, "You are a liar. I've just phoned your sister and she told me she's already married". "Well, sir, you're an even bigger liar," the soldier replied, "because I don't even have a sister".

Vocabulary practice. Mark the best choice.

1.'Leave' here means

a. going out from a place

b. one part of a tree

c permission to be absent from work d. asking a person for some money •

2.To 'attend' here means to ...

a. take care of

b. pay for c be present at d. look at Questions for discussion:

1. Why did the soldier tell the officer a lie?
2. Why did the officer tell the soldier a lie?
3. Can you remember telling such lies? Activities:

1. Now you tell your friend(s) the story in your own words:
2. Pronounce the following words several times:

1. Command
2. Officer
3. Attend
4. Soldier
5. Already

A related proverb: One foot cannot stand on two boats.

Lesson 2 - In Pyjamas

The story. Staying at a hotel in Yarmouth, I couldn't sleep because the television in the residents' lounge was so loud. As I could see from the top of the stairs, the lounge was in total darkness, so I crept downstairs in my pyjamas. I went to the TV and after some fumbling with the knobs I managed to switch it off. As I turned to leave, I suddenly became aware of a semi-circle of people sitting in the dark who, up until that moment, had been enjoying a television program.

Vocabulary practice: Mark the best choice.

1. ..... 'Lounge'is

a. kind of taxi in the airport etc.

b. small room for workers

c public sitting room in a hotel d. special case for television

2. ..... To'creep'means to

a. run quickly

b. jump off

c shout out

d. move quietly

3. ..... To ' ' means to move the hands awkwardly to do something or to find something.

a. fumble

b. manage

c.switch

d. reside

4. A 'knob' is a

a. hotel room

b. small TV

c round handle

d. special table

Questions for discussion:

1. What is the main funny point in the story?
2. Why did the man go downstairs in pyjamas?
3. What do you think will happen next? Activities:

1. Now you tell your friend(s) the story in your own words.
2. Pronounce the following words several times:

1. Lounge
2. Resident
3. Knob
4. Fumble
5. Aware
6. Semi-circle

A related proverb: Opportunity knocks once, and the neighbours the rest of the time.

Lesson 3 - Beggar Replacement

The story. The doorbell rang, and the housewife answered it. She found two beggars outside. "So, you're begging in twos now?!" she exclaimed. " No, only for today," one of them replied. "I'm showing my replacement the ropes before going on holiday."

Vocabulary practice: Mark the best choice.

1. ..... A 'beggar' is a person who

a. sells food and clothes

b. has no money

c asks for money

d. does the housework

2. ..... To'exclaim'means to

a. say something kindly

b. say suddenly and loudly

c walk quickly

d. look angrily

3. .....A is a person that you put in place of yourself or another.

a. beggar

b. rope

c housewife d. replacement

4. 'Ropes' here means

a. the rules and customs in a place or activity

b. pieces of strong thick cord

c. people you probably meet in a special place

d. houses which are expensive

Questions for discussion:

1. This joke is telling us something about beggars' life. What is it?
2. Do you know a joke or a true story about beggars? Activities:

1. Now you tell your friend(s) the story in your own words.
2. Pronounce the following words several times:

1. Beggar
2. Exclaim
3. Reply
4. Replacement
5. Ropes

A related proverb: A man is known by the company he keeps.

Lesson 4 - Wedding Gifts

The story. Jack and his bride were opening their wedding gifts. After unwrapping each package, Lisa would exclaim enthusiastically, "We really need these towels" or "We'll enjoy eating off these pretty plates." Then she opened one very large box. It contained a vacuum cleaner."Jack," Lisa said, "look what you've got."

Vocabulary practice: Mark the best choice.

1. .....To 'unwrap' means to

a. fasten

b. break

c. open

d. write

2. ..... Package' means

a. plate

b. parcel

c room

d. book

3. ..... 'Enthusiastic' means

a. quite angry

b. indifferent

c with great interest d. showing disliking

4. .....Another word for 'vacuum cleaner' is

a. electric fan

b. cleaning machine c Hoover d. electric machine Questions for discussion:

1. What is funny about this story?
2. Who do you think should use the vacuum cleaner? Why? Activities:

1. Now you tell your friend(s) the story in your own words.
2. Pronounce the following words several times:

1. Unwrap

2. Package
3. Enthusiastically
4. Towel
5. Vacuum

A related proverb: Cut your coat according to your cloth.

Lesson 5 - Wedding Gown

The story. When my sister got married, she wore my mother's wedding dress. The day she tried it on, the gown fitted her exactly and mother started to cry. "You're not losing a daughter," I reminded her, putting my arm around her, "you're gaining a son". "Oh, forget about that!" she said with a sob, "I used to fit into that dress."

Vocabulary practice: Mark the best choice.

1. ..... A'gown'is a

a. building where people marry

b. dress worn at a special time

c person who is married

d. meal served at wedding

2. ..... To 'fit' means to

a. find something out

b. live happily

c see something sad d. be the right size

3. A ... is a noisy and irregular breath from crying.

a. gown

b. gain

c sob

d. fit

Questions for discussion:

1. What is funny about this story?
2. Who do you think is telling the story? Activities:

1. Now you tell your friend(s) the story in your own words.
2. Pronounce the following words several times:

1. Gown
2. Marry
3. Gain
4. Wore

A Russian proverb: One rotten egg spoils twenty fresh ones.

Task 2. Continue the list of conversational questions, which can be used actice at the conversational lessons.

After a Vacation Did you encounter any problems during your vacation? How did you resolve them?

Did you have a part-time job during the holidays? Did you have any bad experiences? Did you meet any interesting people? Tell me about them, did you stay? How did you get there?

Animals & Pets Are there animal rights groups where you live? Do you ever talk to your pet? If so, what do you say? Do you have a cat?

Do you have a dog? If so, what's your dog's name? Do you have any pets? If not, would you like to have a pet? Have you ever had a pet?

Art Are you a good painter? Can you draw pictures well? Do you believe what art critics say? Do you consider yourself a good artist? Do you enjoy your art class at school? Why is art important?

Christmas Did it snow last year at Christmas? Did you believe in Santa Claus when you were a child? Did you enjoy last Christmas?

Do you decorate the outside of your house for Christmas? Do you eat a turkey dinner for your Christmas dinner? Do you enjoy Christmas time? Do you enjoy singing Christmas songs?

Clothes & Fashion About how much money do you spend on clothes a year?

for p:

Do you like shopping for new clothes?

Do you often buy new clothes?

Do you read fashion magazines?

Do you sometimes wear a hat?

Do you think it is important to wear fashionable clothes?

Computers Are you computer literate?

Are you connected to the Internet? Do you access the Internet with your computer? Can you access the Internet from your home? What is your favorite "news" site? What Internet sites do you visit regularly? Can your mother and father use a computer? Do you have a computer?

Education Are college tuitions reasonable?

Are foreign languages part of the curriculum? If so, which languages? Are most schools coeducational in your country? Are there any subjects/classes you wanted to study but they weren't available at your school/college? Are there good colleges in your country? Are women encouraged to pursue education? Do you have difficulty with school work? Do you know anyone who does not know how to read or write?

Entertainment Are there any kinds of movies you dislike? If so, what kinds? Why do you dislike them? Are you going to watch TV tonight? If so, what will you watch?

Do you like ? (Insert the name of a TV show.)

Do you like to gamble?

Do you like to watch cartoons?

Do you like to watch horror movies?

What's the best movie you've ever seen?

What's the most popular holiday in your country? When is it? How is it

celebrated?

Environment & Pollution Do you think cars should be banned from city centers? Do you think people should recycle newspapers? Why or why not? Do you think there are lessons to learn from nature? How often is garbage collected in your neighborhood?

If humans are really intelligent and not simply manipulated by their genes like any other animal, why can't they do anything about overpopulation?

Family Are chores assigned to children in your family? Are you married?

Are you pressured by your family to act in a certain way? Are you the oldest among your brothers and sisters? Are your parents strict?

Did you ever meet any of your great grandparents? Do you get along well with your family?

Favorites What is your favorite TV program? What is your favorite Web site? What is your favorite animal? What is your favorite color? What is your favorite country? And why? What is your favorite day of the week? What is your favorite day of the week? Why? What is your favorite drink in the summer? What is your favorite food?

Fears Are there any parts of the city where you live which you are afraid to visit after dark? Where? Why?

Are there certain weather conditions that scare people? What are they? Why do people become scared?

Are you afraid of flying? (Are you afraid to fly in an airplane?) Are you afraid of ghosts? Are you afraid of giving a speech in public? (Does it scare you to speak in public?) Are you afraid of going to the dentist? Are you afraid of heights?

Food & Eating What's the strangest food you've ever eaten? What's the best restaurant you've ever been to?

About how many different colour foods did you eat for dinner last night? Do you think about colour when you are preparing a meal? Are there any foods that you wouldn't eat as a child that you eat now? Are you a good cook? Are you a vegetarian?

At what times do you usually eat your meals (breakfast, lunch, and dinner)?

Can you cook well?

Did you drink coffee this morning?

Did you eat lunch today?

Do you always eat dinner with your family?

Do you always eat vegetables? Task 3. Which of the following speaking activities is an information-gap activity?

Speaking activity A: Completing a questionnaire.

Learners have created the questionnaire below about their teacher. They ask the teacher the questions and complete their questionnaires.

Question	Answer
1 Are you married?	Yes
2 Do you have children?	
3 If so, how many?	
4 What are their names?	
5 Where do you live?	

Speaking activity B: Having a discussion.

Learners work in groups of four. They have a discussion, answering the questions below. They then tell the rest of the class what they decided. What would you do if...

1. ... someone fainted in class?

2. ... you left your English homework at home?

3. ... you forgot that your Mum wanted you to baby-sit and you had arranged to go to the cinema with a friend?

4. ... someone offered you a free year at an English school? Speaking activity C: Reading a dialogue aloud.

Arrange the speech bubbles in the correct order to make the dialogue.

But what happened? Where's Jan and how did you get here?

Oh, detective Sergeant Bright! Thank God!

(At that moment, another car arrives at the house...)

(Mandy is scared.)

Who's that?

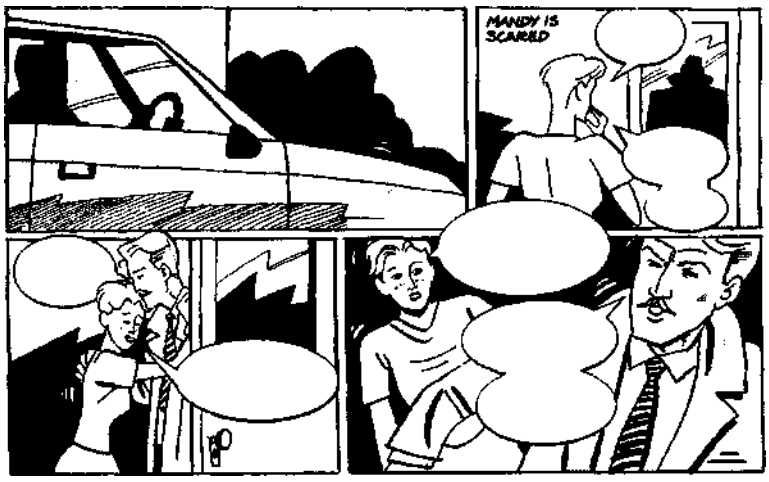
Let me out!

You're already very late!

I'll explain on the way to Wimbledon, Mandy...

What do you want?

It's me Mandy!



Speaking activity D: Creating and reading a weather forecast. Write a weather forecast for the UK tomorrow. Then read your weather forecast to your partner. Can he/she draw the weather map of the UK correctly?

Task 4. The following is a speaking activity "When's your birthday?" This is how one teacher prepared her class to do this activity. Read what she says and get ready to discuss the following questions: 1. What do you like about her preparation? 2. What would you change in her preparation?

Write down the names of five people in your class and find out their birth-days. Example:

When's your birthday, Maria? It's on the nineteenth of November.

I first asked my class, What's the date today? One learner replied, The third

of September. I explained that she was right and wrote the full form of the date

on the board: the third of September. I pointed out the difference between how

the date is written (September 3rd) and how we say it in English, the third of

September. I wrote down some dates on the board: February 28th, October 1st,

April 7th and the class repeated them in chorus. They wrote down four more

dates in their books and gave these to their partners and their partners said them.

Then they listened to a short conversation on a tape among six school friends

talking about birthdays and had to write the birthdays beside the names.

Lecture 8: TEACHING READING

1. The nature of the reading process.

Reading is an exercise dominated by the eyes and the brain. The eyes receive messages and the brain then has to work out the significance of these messages. Unlike a listening text, a reading text moves at the speed of the reader (except where the reader is trying to read an advertisement that flashes past a train window). In other words, it is up to the reader to decide how fast he or she wants to (or can) read a text whereas listeners often have to do their best with a text whose speed is chosen by the speaker. The fact that reading texts are stationary is a huge advantage.

It is often difficult to convince the students of English that texts can be understood even though there are vocabulary items and structures the students have never seen before. This is the case not only for non-native speakers of English, but also for native speakers as well.

The same is true for listening, but because the reading text is static the students are often tempted to read slowly, worrying about the meaning of every particular word. And yet if they do this they will never achieve the ability to read English texts in anything but a slow and ponderous way.

Getting students to read in English is vitally important for a number of reasons: firstly, reading is a necessary skill for many, if not all, foreign language learners. Whether they are faced with tourist brochures, instruction manuals, medical textbooks or even fiction, many students will have to be able to read effectively. But reading in the foreign language is also important because it shows the written language in action. And on top of that, frequent reading exposes students to the language in a way that, if successful, helps them to acquire language itself, either consciously or subconsciously.

What is a good reading material? Not all reading texts or activities are necessarily good for students, however. It is necessary to consider both what they read and how they read it.

Most teachers would not give beginner students a novel by Ernest Hemingway or even a 'blockbuster' by Jilly Cooper to read. There would simply be too many words that the students could not understand and they would give up disheartened. On the other hand, some of the reading passages, which those students do have put in front of them, are so simple and so unlike real written English that they may not be very useful either, because they are so obviously not authentic, not like the real thing.

The reading texts that the teachers give students to work with, then, must appear to some degree authentic, even if they are specially written for students. And they must be at a level that the students can cope with, even if they do not understand every single word.

Just about any kind of reading material is usable in the English teaching classroom. Students can be shown menus and timetables, application forms and E-mails. They can read poems and narratives, newspaper articles and advertisements, letters and postcards.

What the teacher chooses to show the students will depend on four things: the students' future needs, the students' interests, the teacher's interests and the textbook they are using.

What do teachers have to do? In order to make the reading experience a success for their students teachers need to do a number of things: they need to choose the right kind of text (as we have said), but they also have to get students engaged with the topic/task and allow them, even provoke them, to predict what they are going to read.

Teachers have the ability to make potentially boring texts interesting (and vice-versa!) by the way they introduce the task. They will probably not do this by saying 'Open your books at page 26 and answer question 1 by reading the text'. It is much more likely that students will be engaged if the teacher has aroused their curiosity about what they are going to see through provocative statements or questions, looking at pictures or predicting.

One way of getting students to predict is to let them look at the text but not read it. Does it have a headline? Then it's probably from a newspaper/magazine. Is there a picture? What does that tell you about the subject matter? The subject is 'Sleep': what would you expect to find in the article? Then, when the students start reading, curious to see if their predictions are right, they are engaged at least at some level.

Lastly, and most importantly, teachers have to tell students how to read. Explain that 'you don't have to understand every word; just try to get a general picture of what the writer is saying', if that is what you want the students to do. Tell them to only look for the specific information they need if you want to give them scanning practice.

What happens when the reading is finished? Reading texts contain a great deal of language, topic information and lots of other information (in accompanying photos or maps, and through the layout of the text). It would not be sensible, therefore, to get students to read and then forget the text and move on to something else. On the contrary, reading practice should be part of an integrated teaching/learning sequence. The reading text might be preceded by a discussion and then, after the reading has taken place, used perhaps as a stimulus for a role-play or letter-writing. If the reading text contains (the possibility for) a dialogue students can be asked to act it after 'acting training'. If it is controversial they can be asked to 'reply' to it by writing to a newspaper. Part or all of the reading text can be used as a model for student writing.

It is important to plan a text-related or follow-up task to come after close reading has taken place. The students will have invested effort and time in the text. Don't waste it!

Key points. Make sure that:

•the reading text is the right level for the students;

•the reading topic has some chance of engaging the students' interest;

•the students know what kind of reading they are going to do;

•the tasks suit the text and vice versa;

•the students are involved with the topic, the language of the text and, where appropriate, the text construction;

•there is both an introduction and a follow-up to the reading text.

2. The types of reading. Techniques for teaching reading.

There are many different types of reading. We can scan an article or a time-table for the particular piece of information we want. We can skim a play review to get a 'general picture' of the reviewer's opinion. We can read in a leisurely way for pleasure, or we can read a set of instructions in order to perform a task. We can also read aloud for others. All of these reading activities are valid, of course; the job of the materials designer and the teacher is to match the activity style to the type of reading.

Matching text and task is a vital skill for teachers. Except in surreal comedy you would not expect someone to read a train timetable for pleasure, just as you would be unhappy if students insisted on skim-reading a poem by Keats, which they were supposed to be studying.

As a rule we can say that students benefit by reading for general comprehension first, and looking for details later (though of course this would not be the case for an airport announcement board, for example). If the first task the students have to deal with is relatively simple, then their anxiety is decreased, and they can approach the more difficult tasks that follow with confidence.

Understanding the message of the text is not the only use for reading material, however. We also want our students to see how texts are constructed. What language is used to give examples or make generalizations? What language devices do writers use to refer backwards and forwards? How are humour and irony conveyed and what kind of lexis signals conditions and contrasts, for example?

When students understand paragraph and text construction they have a better chance of understanding text meaning.

There are the following types of reading and the corresponding types of activities to develop the corresponding reading skills:

Skimming reading - reading to confirm expectations; reading for communicative tasks;

General reading or scanning - reading to extract specific information; reading for general understanding;

Close reading or searching reading - reading for complete understanding; reading for detailed comprehension (information; function and discourse).

Skimming reading. The following techniques are useful here to develop skills in this type of reading:

- Reading to confirm expectations. While doing exercises in this type of reading the students are involved in reading in order to confirm their expecta tions about the information they think the text will contain. These techniques to develop skills in this type of reading put great emphasis on the lead-in stage (where students are encouraged to become interested in the subject matter in the text), encourage students to predict the content of the text, and give them an in teresting and motivating purpose for reading.

In order to foster this type of reading "a reading to confirm expectation" technique is used. It is highly motivating and successful since it interests students, creates expectations and gives them purpose for reading.

- Reading for communicative tasks. A popular reading technique is the re-assembling of a text that has become disordered (jumbled text). The students can do this activity in pairs and then the teacher can ask different pairs to read the story out aloud in correct order.

General or scanning reading. The following techniques are useful here to develop skills in this type of reading:

- Reading to extract specific information. A vital feature of this type of ac tivity is that the students should see the questions or tasks they are going to answer or perform before reading the text. If they do this it will be possible for them to read in the required way: they should scan the text only to extract the information which the questions demand. The students do not have to worry about parts of the text they have difficulty with but only those that they need to extract information.

When the students have finished answering the questions they can check their answers with each other. The teacher then conducts feedback, finding out how well they did and explaining misunderstandings.

- Reading for general understanding. The students are reading the text to get the general picture of the story. Here are five standard questions that can be asked to any story to practice this type of activity: 1) What is the text about? 2)Who was it written by? 3) Who was it written for? 4) What is the writer's intention? 5) Do you like it?

Close or research reading.

-Reading for detailed comprehension: information. Performing this activity the students are asked to answer many questions, usually special ones, which require complete understanding of the text. Most texts lend themselves to detailed comprehension work. It can give students a valuable opportunity to study written English in detail and thus learn more about the topic and about how language is used.

- Reading for detailed comprehension: function and discourse. Understanding the message of the text is not the only use for reading material. We also have to make our students be able to see how texts are constructed, what language is used to give examples or make generalizations, what language devices writers use to refer backwards and forwards, how humour and irony are conveyed, etc. It is important for students to understand the way in which texts are structured (paragraphs), and to recognize the functions that are being performed.

3. Reading activities for effective top-down processing.

In one current perspective on reading comprehension, the reading process is an interaction between a reader's prior knowledge and the information encoded in the text. This theoretical framework emphasizes that the reader is an active participant who can contribute to the construction of meaning. When reading, students interpret the text in light of their previous knowledge and simultaneously modify their original schemata as new information is learned.

From this perspective, there are two simultaneous and complementary ways of processing a text: top-down and bottom-up. In top-down processing, readers use their prior knowledge to make predictions about the text. In bottom-up processing, readers rely on their knowledge of language to recognize linguistic elements - letters, words, and sentence structures - for the construction of meaning. It is logical to suppose that readers must understand the individual parts of the text before they can grasp the overall meaning; but in practice, effective readers continually adopt a top-down approach to predict the probable theme and then move to the bottom-up approach to check their assumption by reading details. This implies that in teaching reading, teachers should instruct students to start their reading by using a top-down approach and later switch between the two approaches, as each kind of interpretation supports the other.

Teachers often come across learners who report having understood each individual word and sentence in a particular paragraph of a passage, but not the main idea that paragraph conveys as a whole. Most of the students rely too much on bottom-up processing in recognizing individual words and analysing sentence - structure, but do not apply top-down processing for the overall view of the text. This may result from the lack of appropriate instruction and practice in applying reading strategies.

Many teaching techniques have been developed to activate students' prior knowledge for effective top-down processing in order to facilitate reading comprehension. Several of them have been empirically proven to be helpful, but some have not. Surprisingly, prereading vocabulary exercises, despite widespread use, do not improve overall comprehension. In fact, vocabulary study may result in a word-by-word, bottom-up approach that is detrimental to comprehension. However, there are several activities that do help. We will introduce three of them, together with certain problems that an English teacher may confront when applying them in class as well as possible solutions.

Three activities: - Semantic map.

The first activity that activates students' appropriate background knowledge of a given topic is the semantic map. The map is an organized arrangement of vocabulary concepts which reveals what students already know about the topic and provides them with a base upon which they can construct the new information learned from the text.

The teacher begins by telling students the topic they are going to read about and then asks them to make free associations with it. That is, students write down whatever words they think of when they hear the topic. Then the teacher asks students to group their associated words into categories and helps them label the categories. After reading the selection, the students may wish to revise the original map. The resulting map is the integration of students' pre-existing knowledge and their knowledge acquired from the text.

At first, students may have difficulty in categorizing free associations. The teacher can help them by conducting the discussion with the whole class. When students offer their associations, the teacher can list the responses on the black-board and discuss with the students how to put the associations into categories and what to label them. If there is more than one way to construct the relations among different concepts, the teacher may show students the different possibilities. This demonstration indicates how concepts can be organized around a topic.

After some illustrations, students can be divided into groups to carry out the discussion in teams. Interestingly, each group will usually come up with different versions, categories, and labels. The teacher may ask a representative from each group to draw the map on the board and decide if the concepts are appropriately constructed. From the demonstration, modelling, and discussion, students themselves will gradually learn how to categorize and label associations appro-priately. The same procedure can be applied to the post-reading discussion about revising the maps.

When generating associations, students are encouraged to look up new words in their dictionaries. The teacher may also consult a dictionary, preferably English-

English, to help the students determine if the meaning and usage of new words fit the topic.

The following is a brief sample of a semantic map done by students on the topic of North American Indians:

Hunting: buffalo, spear, bow and arrow

Lifestyle: nomad, riding horses, tent

Clothing: animal skin, long hair, feather

Ceremony: chief, dance, song, legend

Movie: Dances with Wolves, Pocahontas

- Questioning. Another type of top-down processing activity is questioning. Questions may be generated by the teacher or by the students and should be done before the reading, rather than after the reading. A problem in class is that not all the questions originally designed as post-reading exercises can be appropriately converted to prereading activities. For instance, a question like "What is the main idea of the second paragraph?" does not provide learners any clue to the content of the passage and fails to stimulate their prior knowledge which would enable them to make feasible predictions.

How do students generate text-related questions even before they read the passage? Our approach begins by introducing the topic of the passage that students are going to read. Once the topic is presented, students are asked to work in groups and write a list in two columns. The first column lists things about the topic that they are sure of, and the second lists things that they are not sure of or don't know.

It is suggested that each member of the group in turn volunteer a fact or question, so that no group member is neglected. Afterwards, the teacher asks a representative from each group to write one or two items from their lists on the blackboard so that some interesting items, which other groups may not have thought of, can be included.

In the reading phase, students are asked to read the text to verify what they were sure of and find the answers to questions they were not sure of. Using the list

on the board, the teacher can ask students which sentences provide evidence for their responses.

In the post-reading phase, the students are assigned tasks that consolidate their prior knowledge of the topic with information acquired from the text. For example, they may write an account of whales based on the information in their lists, or they may research the questions on their lists that have not been addressed in the text.

However, it has its practical limitations. For example, it may not be appropriate for opinion-giving text or fiction. It is best used with the text that provides factual information. Furthermore, the length of the text should be moderate, because longer passages, which usually express more complicated concepts, may open too many possibilities for the students to question. As a result, the students may spend too much time generating questions in the prereading phase, and the list of questions may be too long to handle effectively. One possible solution to this problem is for the teacher to divide the text into sections and implement the approach section by section.

Another problem may occur when students generate statements and questions about the topic. This stage clearly requires a range of topic-related vocabulary and adequate writing competence. For the vocabulary problem, the same dictionary solution suggested for the semantic map can be adopted. When it comes to writing, if learners are not competent enough to produce correct sentences to reflect their ideas, they are allowed to write them in their native language. This writing does not focus on mechanics but gives priority to idea development for activating and developing background knowledge.

- Previewing. The aim of previewing is to help readers predict or make some educated guesses about what is in the text and thus activate effective top-down processing for reading comprehension. Several stimuli in a text, such as the title, photographs, illustrations, or subtitles, are usually closely connected to the author's ideas and content. So, based on any of them, students can make predictions about the content of the text.

Example 1. You are going to read a passage about a woman's encounter with a bear while hiking in an American national park. Before reading, answer the following questions:

(a)Do bears live in the wild in your country? What kind of bears?

(b)How would you feel if you met a bear while hiking?

(c)What do you think we should do if we encounter a bear in the wild? Example 2. You are going to read a passage about a man's bad experience

on a camping trip in the north of England. Before reading, do the following exercises:

(a)Write down five problems the man could have had when he was camping.

(b)Look at the title of the passage and the list of words. What do you think might have happened?

TITLE: "Our Terrible New Year".

WORDS (in order): holiday, happy, drove, far, camped, beautiful, night, freezing, snow, morning, engine trouble, help, no phone, ran, ice, slipped, cut, disaster.

To make more specific predictions, however, students obviously need more guidance. The following guidelines can help:

1.Ask the students to read the title of the article. Do they know anything about this subject?

2.Have the students read the first few paragraphs, which generally introduce the topics discussed in the text. Can they determine the general themes of the text?

3.Then ask them to read the first sentence of each paragraph, usually the topic sentence, which gives the main idea of the paragraph. Can they determine the major points of the article?

4. Read the last paragraph, which often reveals the conclusion of the author. Have the students discuss how the author organizes the information to present his point of view.

The students then read the entire article for more detailed information. Since they already have an overview of the text, they can understand the rest of the information much more easily.

The successful application of previewing depends on the presence of certain conventional features of English writing, namely, topic sentences and paragraphs of introduction and conclusion. However, not all kinds of texts have these rhetorical features. Often, an expository passage follows the pattern more closely and therefore is more suitable for the steps described above.

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Lecture 6: LESSON PLANNING

1. Writing a lesson plan.

Writing lesson plans is an integral part of teaching. Unfortunately, too many beginning teachers and teachers in training consider writing lesson plans a tiresome and unnecessary chore with which they will quickly dispense once out from under the watchful eyes of their supervisors. And once in the "real world" in their own classrooms, they resort to this horrible chore only when they know their lessons will be observed.

Perhaps this negative image of lesson planning is the fault of teachers, professors, and teacher trainers who give trainees a simple lesson plan format with one or two examples and then require that the trainees produce a certain number of their own plans in order to pass a course. Instead of being presented as an aid in times of preparatory trouble, lesson planning is presented as a requirement, a loathsome task that "real teachers" do not bother with anyway.

Teacher trainees are frustrated with lesson planning usually from three main sources. First, they do not understand why lesson planning is necessary and exactly how it can help them; the purpose and rationale behind it are not adequately explained and discussed. Second, there is often no consensus among the trainees (nor among the trainers, for that matter) about what constitutes an objective and how to write one. Third, the trainees find the lesson plan forms they are given too vague and of little help in preparing a lesson. In other words, first they decide what they want to do in class and then struggle to make their ideas fit the format rather than letting the format serve as a guide.

Lesson planning instrument.

The instrument consists of three main parts: 1) a list of benefits derived from lesson planning, 2) a lesson plan form with space for objectives and an outline of the lesson, and 3) a set of questions to consider about the objectives, the structure of the lesson and the lesson after it is presented.

The first part of this instrument (Figure 1) is the list of benefits, is by no means exhaustive. The items on this list are self-explanatory, but they do provide a good starting point for a discussion on the merits of lesson planning. In a training program, it is important for trainees to understand these benefits and to be encouraged to add their own to the list. Lesson planning should be presented as a creative, imaginative, and ongoing process that helps teachers become more professional and better at their jobs.

Next step moves to the lesson plan form (Figure 2). There is nothing innovative or new about this form. It resembles others in that it elicits from the teacher basic information such as date, materials needed, lesson objectives, an outline of the lesson, etc. In that regard, it is indeed a familiar "old dog." But a variety of categories is included under the heading of objectives. As mentioned above, trainees and trainers often have a hard time deciding on exactly what an objective is. Many trainers teach trainees to write "performance" or "measurable" objectives, i.e., objectives that can be stated: "The student will be able to.." The problem with teaching only this type is that there are many worthy objectives that cannot be stated in these terms (e.g., "the students will speak English during the entire class period," which could be considered an "aim"). And there are still other objectives which simply do not need to be stated in those terms (e.g., structures and functions that will be covered during the lesson).

The trainees, therefore, become frustrated because they spend a good portion of their time trying to figure out how to put all of their objectives into these terms, often analogous to trying to fit square pegs into round holes. By broadening our concept of objectives, we free the trainee to look at the lesson from different angles. And once some of the other types of objectives have been identified, the trainee is more likely to write good performance objectives. (Here it should be noted that rarely would one be able to list objectives in each of the categories on this form for a single lesson. Indeed, a lesson might include only one of these types.)

A set of questions about lesson objectives (Figure 3) helps the teacher determine exactly what they should be. There is no starting place; rather, the questions

can be used to help guide a teacher who already has an idea or two in mind. For example, if a teacher knows that the lesson will include a certain function (e.g., giving directions), then she or he can fill in the function category on the objective sheet and then look at the questions regarding functions to help him/her decide about other aspects of the lesson. Using these questions, she or he might then decide on an appropriate situation and structures to teach. Then she or he can fill in those sections on the objective sheet, look at the questions regarding them, and identify more objectives of different types. These questions will also help the teacher in planning the structure of the lesson, which we turn to next.

The lesson is divided into five main phases (Figure 4). There is nothing sacred about this format, but it represents a solid EFL lesson. Beginning teachers are often taught that they must include all of the phases identified on the lesson planning format in each lesson. This causes frustration because it is not always possible (or advisable) and results in artificial lessons. One must keep in mind that all five of these phases (or the phases in any lesson planning format) do not always need to be completed in every single lesson. One lesson, for example, might begin with "preparation" and end with "communicative practice" with the next lesson devoted to "evaluation" and "follow-up," or any other combination.

As with the lesson objectives, a list of questions regarding the structure of the lesson helps the teacher to consider carefully each phase of the lesson (Figure 5). While these questions might seem obvious, the old thought that some things are obvious only after they are pointed out holds true here. Sometimes a teacher has a great activity that can be used during the "communicative practice" phase but forgets to consider how the students need to be prepared to handle the activity and how to evaluate them afterwards. These questions help the teacher to consider all angles before she or he enters the classroom.

The final part of the instrument is a list of questions for the teacher to consider after the lesson (Figure 6). Teachers, especially those starting out, should be encouraged to keep a journal in which they record their successes and failures in the class-

room. If teachers do not reflect on what they did, they will continue to repeat the same mistakes or will fail to see what made a particular lesson excellent.

There is nothing revolutionary about this lesson-planning instrument. As the title suggests, it simply serves to put a new slant on an age-old process.

Figure 1

Lesson planning will:

1. focus you

2.. provide you with a plan and a backup plan

3.force you to consider the purpose of the lesson and reason for each step

4.establish clear goals for the lesson that are understood by both you and the learner

5.establish clear goals for the lesson that are understood by both you and the learner

6.help you design a coherent and cohesive lesson

7.help you make a smooth transition from one lesson to the next

8.provide you with a written record of the course

9.encourage you to examine the lessons critically and make improvements

10. *add your own.*

Figure 2

Lesson plan form:

Course:

Date:

Teacher:

Time:

Recent information covered:

Materials needed:

OBJECTIVES

Theme/Topic

Aims

Skills

Vocabulary

Structures

Functions

Phonetics

Learner training

Affective

Performance behaviour conditions standards

Other

Figure 3

Questions to answer about lesson objectives:

Theme/Topic/Situation(s)

Why have I chosen this topic? Was it dictated by the text?

Is it of interest to the students?

How can I personalize the material (i.e., make it relevant to the students)?

What is the best way to present this topic initially (e.g., reading, pictures, music, etc.)?

Does this topic suggest certain situations?

Aims

What is the general purpose of this lesson?

What do I want to encourage the students to do?

What do I want the students to get out of this?

Skills

Does the topic of this lesson suggest a particular skill(s) which should be focused on?

Does the material I have chosen to use in class pre-determine a particular skill(s)?

For which skills do native speakers use the structures and functions presented in this lesson?

How can (should) I integrate all four skills in this lesson?

Vocabulary

Is there any new/unfamiliar vocabulary in the material?

Are there any idioms suggested by the topic/situation(s) chosen?

What is the best way to present the vocabulary items (e.g., close test, quiz, pictures, etc.)?

How can I get the students to practice using this new vocabulary?

In what "real life" situations does one find these vocabulary items?

Structures

What structure(s) would a native speaker use in this context?

How can I present this structure(s) in context?

What are some functions commonly performed using this structure(s)?

Do the students already know the structure(s)?

Functions

What structure(s) is used to perform this function(s)?

What skill(s) is suggested by this function(s)?

In what situations do native speakers use this function(s)?

What activities would allow students to use this function(s) in a communicative way and for a real purpose?

Are there any topics suggested by this function?

Phonetics

Are there any phonetic aspects of the structures that should be addressed?

Are there any differences between American and British English?

Learner training

Are there any skills, apart from language, that I can train my students in (e.g., note-taking, outlining, study skills, self-evaluation, etc.)?

Can I help my students find out more about their personal learning styles?

How can I help my students improve their learning?

Affective

What type of atmosphere do I want to create and what is the best way of doing this?

How can I help the students feel comfortable?

Can (should) the students have fun with the activities I have planned?

Performance

What do I want the students to be able to do at the end of the lesson?

How can I determine if this is accomplished (i.e., how can I evaluate their perfor- mance)?

Under what conditions will I evaluate their performance (e.g., role-play, test, etc.)?

What standards will I use to evaluate the students?

Figure 4

Lesson structure:

Phase

Time

Activity

Grouping

Comments

Preparation

Presentation

Communicative practice

Evaluation

Follow-up

What potential problems can I identify? What can I do about them?

Figure 5

Questions to answer about lesson structure:

Preparation

What is the best way to introduce the topic?

How can I get the students interested in the topic?

How much time should I spend on this phase?

How can I get the students to contribute to this part of the lesson?

Can I use the students' previous knowledge or prediction abilities?

Presentation

Does my presentation depend on the materials I have (e.g., a song, textbook, travel brochure, newspaper, etc.)?

What do my students need to know in order to perform the tasks I have set for them?

What is the best way to present this?

How can I make the students actively participate in this phase?

What can I elicit from the students and what do I need to "teach" ?

Do I need to review/preview vocabulary?

Will they be working with structures of functions they don't know?

Communicative Practice

Are the tasks, activities, and/or experiences I have chosen based on what was presented in the previous phase?

Are the tasks communicative? Are they learner-centred?

What should my role as teacher be during this phase (e.g., facilitator, resource, participant, etc.)?

What types of activities would work best here (e.g., information-gap, jigsaw, interview, etc.)?

What sort of classroom arrangement would best fit the learning experiences I have chosen (e.g., discussion circle, small groups, etc.)?

Evaluation

How can I best determine if the students have learned what I wanted them to?

Is this part of my lesson student-centred?

What is the best way to arrange the class for this phase?

Can I help the students learn to evaluate themselves?

What types of learning experiences would be best for this phase of the lesson (e.g., a general discussion, student presentations, group projects, role-plays, etc.)?

Follow-up

What can I have the students do that will reinforce what they have learned in this lesson?

Should this be done as homework or in class (maybe for the next lesson)?

Figure 6

Reflecting on the lesson:

What was the best thing about the lesson?

What did I enjoy most? What did the students enjoy most?

How did the students react? Why?

What would I change about the lesson if I used it again?

At what points in the lesson could I have engaged the students more?

How? Were the students able to do what I wanted them to do?

Why/why not?

Add your own questions.

2. The benefits of planning.

In teaching any subject planning is of utter or primary importance. It begins with the long perspective planning (planning for the whole course of studies) which then undergoes next steps in planning for a smaller periods of time dedicated to studying. Then we plan for the whole year; then - for a term; then we plan our work for a certain set of lessons which cover some topic, and finally we come to the lesson planning.

Proper lesson plans are essential. The teacher will be more relaxed and confident if he/she follows a clear plan. As you finish one phase, a glance reminds you of the next. The plan will enable you to improve your timing, too. By comparing the estimated time with the actual time taken for different types of activity, you soon learn to judge lesson stages and phases with great accuracy -both in planning the lesson and in executing it.

In addition, the plans are an aid to continuing improvement. After the lesson you can add an evaluation to the plan, identifying those parts which went well and those which were less successful. This plan, with your comments and corrections, provides a useful, timesaving reference when you next plan the same lesson.

All the skills, strategies, techniques and activities that teachers have at their disposal are considered at the planning stage. They exercise choice in deciding the lesson type and in choosing the learning activities to include within each stage. In

this way we can be eclectic, varying the approach from day to day. This is so much more motivating for the class than a predictable sequence of teaching steps.

It takes only a few minutes to plan a lesson, and the rewards far exceed the effort. With a clear plan you will be confident and the lesson will go well.

3. Planning principles.

The two overriding principles behind good lesson planning are *variety* and *flexibility*. *Variety* means involving students in a number of different types of activities and where possible introducing them to a wide selection of materials; it means planning so that learning is interesting and never monotonous for the students. *Flexibility* comes into play when dealing with the plan in the classroom; for any number of reasons what the teacher has planned may not be appropriate for the class on that particular day. The flexible teacher will be able to change the plan in such a situation. Flexibility is the characteristics that is expected from the genuinely adaptable teacher.

There is no need in a detailed commentary on the danger of routine and monotony and how students may become de-motivated if they are always faced with the same type of class. This danger can only be avoided if the teacher believes that the learning experience should be permanently stimulating and interesting. This is difficult to achieve, but at least if the activities the students are faced with are varied there will be the interest of doing different things. If new language is always introduced in the same way (e.g. it is always introduced in a dialogue) then the introduction stages of the class will become gradually less and less challenging. If all reading activities always concentrate on extracting specific information and never ask the students to do anything else, reading will become less interesting. The same is true of any activity that is constantly repeated. The teacher's aim must be to provide a variety of different learning activities which will help individual students to get to grips of the language. And this means giving the students a purpose and telling them what the purpose is. They need to know why they are doing something and what it is supposed they will achieve. That's why teachers

must have a purpose for all the activities they organize in a class and they should communicate that purpose to their students.

In any class there will be a number of different personalities with different ways of looking at the world. The activity that is particularly appropriate to one student may not be ideal for another. But teachers who vary their teaching approach may be able to satisfy most of their students at different times.

Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. In a general language course there will be work on the four skills (although a teacher will probably come to a decision about the relative merits of each skill at a particular lesson); there will be presentation and controlled practice, roughly tuned input and communicative activities. Different student groupings will be used.

If teachers have a large variety of techniques and activities that they can use with students they can then apply themselves to the central question of lesson planning: "What is it that my students will know or be able to do at the end of the lesson".

In answering the central question teachers will create the objectives for the lesson. Students may be involved in a game-like activity, for example, because the teacher's objective is to have them relax and feel more positive about their English classes. The students may be given a reading passage to work on because the teacher's objective is to improve their ability to extract specific information from written texts.

4. Sample lesson plans.

The following below skeleton lesson plans give you an overview of the shape of the lesson. This, or something similar, can be photocopied and used for your own planning.

Lesson №: Class: Aims: Teaching aids needed: Lexical items:

Structures/ Grammar:
Procedure
1. Warm-up/ Review: Stage 1. **Presentation.** a b. c. Stage 2. **Practice.** a b. c
Stage 3. b. c Other activities: etc. Reserve Home

The space at the foot of the plan for lesson comments is important. As soon after the lesson as possible you should note any improvements to be made when you next plan and execute this same lesson. Perhaps another word or two should have been presented. Maybe the timing was wrong. Possibly a new discussion point emerged and could be added to a certain stage at the lesson. Another visual aid may be needed. The next time you teach this lesson, and on subsequent occasions, you can produce improved versions of the plan and the lesson.

The following example of a reading lesson plan is suggested below. It may be used as a model for creating the similar lesson plans of the reading lessons, but the flexibility of the teacher should be the main point here to consider.

AIMS: a) To give practice in listening to a story, b) To give opportunities for expression of opinions about military service.

NEW LEXIS: a) from the text: mess (officer's), barracks room, compulsory, civilian, b) additional vocabulary: recruit, conscript.

STRUCTURE/GRAMMAR: No formal focus

PROCEDURE

WARM-UP (3 minutes):

Song, Happy birthday dear Jane (14 years)

STAGE 1, PRESENTATION (approx. 7 min):

a)New vocabulary: (Note 1).

b)Introduction: Story of a young conscript, etc.

c)Task setting: Why was John Smith in the army? What did the sergeant make him do?

STAGE 2, EXPLOITATION (approx: 10 min):

a)Reading aloud, once.

b)Check on pre-questions. Random.

c)Read the text second time, dramatically.

d)Familiarity, short answer Q's (Note 2).

e)Limited production, longer-answer Q's (Note 3). STAGE 3, PERFORMANCE (approx. 15 min):

a) Hypothetical Q's and Discussion (Note 4).

b) Written arguments, papers exchanged, discussed.

OTHER ACTIVITIES: Check yesterday's homework (approx. 5 min). Set homework, page 73, ex. 4.

RESERVE ACTIVITY: Substitution, game-like:

John Smith dreamed only of the day he would ... /often dream of the day I shall (win the lottery, etc). What about you?

TEACHING AIDS: Cassette recording of text. Tape player.

COMMENTS: (filled in immediately after the lesson).

There are two more examples of the sample lesson plan: one - for the dialogue-based lesson, the other - for an oral lesson.

The sample lesson plan for the dialogue-based lesson: AIMS: a) To have the class learn key structures by heart.

b)To have them practise the dialogue with substitutions.

c)To introduce some role play.

VISUAL AIDS: Set of flashcards with suggestions.

NEW VOCABULARY: How're things? (formula) = How are you?; a bike ride = an excursion on bicycles; a picnic = a meal in the open air.

NEW STRUCTURE: How about -ing ..*1* Function: Making a suggestion. ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE: Declining: I don't feel like -ing. Countering: I'd rather + basic verb.

PROCEDURE WARM-UP: Game (3 minutes), Going on a Picnic: You bring a/the/some ...! I'll bring ... (nominated students). STAGE 1, PRESENTATION (approx. 10 min):

a)New vocabulary (three lexical items above).

b)New structure (Note 1 and flashcards).

c) First model, spoken (BB drawings of speakers). STAGE 2, PRACTICE (15 min):

a)Repetition drill (Note 2, backward build-ups).

b)Cued substitution, chorus work (Note 2).

c)Public pairs: cued acceptance/refusal and counter suggestions (flash-cards).

d)Private pairs, substituting dialogue. Books open.

e)Ditto. Books closed.

f) Public check.

STAGE 3, PRODUCTION (to end of lesson, 17 min):

a)Public pairs, new suggestions.

b)Private pair role play; new suggestions, counter suggestions, agreeing weekend activities.

c)Acting out. Volunteer pairs.

d)Write out created dialogues. HOMEWORK: Complete writing of dialogues. RESERVE ACTIVITY: none COMMENTS:

The sample lesson plan for an oral lesson:

AIMS: a) To present nine new related lexical items.

b)To practise the grammar point, orally and in writing.

c)To exploit the text thoroughly.

d)To give opportunities for creative use of English.

VISUAL AIDS: Short length of wire. Small piece of concrete. 4 flashcards for review, 3 for new vocabulary.

NEW VOCABULARY: ironmonger's, goods, tools, corrugated iron, wire, concrete. Additional vocabulary: screw, screwdriver, wrench.

GRAMMAR POINT: People + their (possessive adjective).

PROCEDURE

WARM-UP: Revision (1 minute): hammer, nails, wood, cement (flash-cards).

STAGE 1, Presentation (approx. 10 min):

a)New vocabulary (Note 1, new flashcards, visuals).

b)Introduce new grammar point.

People buy *their* tools at the ironmonger's. STAGE 2, PRACTICE (approx. 20 min):

a)Cued reproduction of grammar point (Note 2).

b)Write 2-3 new sentences on the model, in pairs. Check.

c)Pre-questions on the text:

-Name of the ironmonger?

-Why was customer angry?

d)Silent reading.

e)Exploitation, increased comprehension (Note 3).

f) Scrutiny of the text to identify problems.

g) Copy vocabulary and grammar point. STAGE 3, PRODUCTION (14 min):

a)WH longer-answer questions (Note 4).

b)Discussion questions (Note 4).

c)Guided paragraph writing, from B B cue (Note 5).

RESERVE ACTIVITY: True-false on pictures, page 47 textbook, students to ask questions in public pairs. COMMENTS:

Literature for further reading:

1. Ellis, R. Instructed second language acquisition. - London: Basil Blackwell, 1990.

2. Haycraft, J. An introduction to English language teaching. - Singapore: Longman, 1992.

3. Schuster, D., & Gritton, C. Suggestive accelerative learning techniques. - London: Gordon and Breach Science Publishers, Inc, 1986.

4. Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language. (Marianne Celce-Murcia, the editor). - Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers, 1991.

5. Гапонова СВ. Сучасні методи викладання іноземних мов за рубежем // Іноземні мови. - 1997. - №4. - С.24-30.

6. Гапонова С.В. Сучасні методи викладання іноземних мов за рубежем // Іноземні мови. - 1998. - №1. - С.24-31.

7. Методика навчання іноземних мов у середніх навчальних закладах: Підручник / Кол. авторів під керівн. С.Ю.Ніколаєвої. - К.: Ленвіт, 1999.

PRACTICAL LESSON

Task 1. Get ready to discuss the following questions:

If variety is the cornerstone of good planning, is it possible to have too much variety?

Do you think activities can (or should) last for a whole class period? Give examples to back up your opinions.

How important is it for the teachers to know about their students? **Task 2.** Analyse the following lesson plan. What students would it be appropriate for? What level of knowledge should these students possess? *Cats and Dogs Lose Their Jobs Pre-reading activities A: Pair work.*

With a partner answer the following questions.

1. How are cats and dogs different? Write down some words that describe how they look and what they are like.

cats _____ J _____ dogs

2. Lots of animals have jobs. For example,

- the police use horses to control large crowds;
- dogs help blind people;
- and cats are used in advertisements.

Can you think of a 'dream job' for both cats and dogs? (This means a job that cats and dogs would really love to do.) Discuss this with a partner and then share your answer with the rest of the class.

B: Vocabulary.

The following words and phrases in **bold** are in today's article. Draw a line from the first half of each sentence to the second half.

Your **taste buds** are	...teased, laughed at,
Felines and **canines** are other words for...	...and they help you recognize the flavour of
When someone is	...killed because it is
When an animal	...cats and dogs.

Reading activities. A: Understanding the main idea. Read today's article and decide which of these sentences describes it the best.

1. Cats and dogs are being killed for food in Britain and France.

2. Cats and dogs in a British pet food taste centre have lost their jobs, because the centre has closed down.

3. Hundreds of sick and hungry cats and dogs were found in a British pet food tasting centre which had recently closed down.

4. French cats and dogs working for a company will no longer test British pet food.

B: Jumbled questions

The words in the following questions are in the wrong order. Rewrite the questions in the correct word order.

1.the name of the pet what is food company? Question:

2.the pet food do has company what decided to ?

Question: _____

3.British many cats and dogs how worked in the food pet taster centre? Question: _____ *i* _____

4.pet will the only food where taster be located now centre? Question:

British Food-Tester Pets Lose Out

Monday January 8 LONDON (Reuters) - British cats and dogs living in a pet paradise have lost out to the French in a battle of the taste buds.

'Friskies', the pet food company, has decided to close its British pet food evaluation centre — putting 331 cats and 217 dogs out of a dream job.

And, to add insult to injury, the company is now relying on its taster centre in the French city of Amiens to see whicli foods appeal most to felines and canines.

Since the British centre opened in 1968, the animals have lived a life of luxury, tasting new recipes for the company.

" The cats and dogs seem to enjoy the job," 'Friskies' development manager Susan McKay told Saturday's Daily Express."Some take it very seriously and are a bit too enthusiastic — we need to watch their diet."

The British are often mocked for treating their pets better than their children and the centre has been flooded with calls from volunteers eager to take on the retired tasters. None of them will be put down.

5. did the British taster open when centre?

Question: _____

6. the cats dogs and do in what do the taster centre?

Question: _____

7. enjoy they their do job?

Question: _____

C: Comprehension.

Read the questions again in Activity B and look for the answers in the article.

D: Thinking carefully.

Read these sentences from today's article and then answer the questions. 1. " Some take it very seriously and are a bit too enthusiastic—we need to watch their diet." What do you think 'too enthusiastic' means? What might the cats and dogs do that worries the caregivers in the centre? 2." The British are often mocked for treating their pets better than their children and the centre has been flooded with

calls from volunteers eager to take on the retired tasters. None of them will be put down." Who or what are the 'retired tasters'?

a. People from the tasting centre who recently retired.

b. Retired people who want to be volunteer tasters at the tasting cen tre.

c The cats and dogs who lost their jobs at the tasting centre, d. Cats and dogs who didn't like any of the recipes they tried at the centre.

E: Language.

Look at the following sentence from today's article.

" ...the company is now relying on its taster centre in the French city of Amiens to see which foods appeal most to felines and canines."

In this instance 'to' (the longer form is 'in order to...') is used to show the purpose for doing something . It answers the question: What for?

For example...

• Question: What is the company now relying on its taster centre in the French city Amiens for?

• Answer: To see which foods appeal most to felines and canines. Complete the following sentences with your own answers.

1. Puppies and kittens are often vaccinated to...

2. People put a leash on a dog to...

3. A bell is put on the collar of a cat to...

4. People often put a name tag on a dog's collar to...

5. Some dog owners must put a muzzle on their dog's mouth when they go for a walk to...

6. Some cat owners have their cat's claws trimmed to...

(Make a note of any new vocabulary you have learnt as you did this activity)

Post-reading activities.

You may do one or more of these.

A: Vocabulary.

The article mentions that the cats and dogs had a 'dream job' in the tasting center.

Look at the article again and find two other phrases the writer uses to describe the comfortable living conditions the cats and dogs had in the tasting center.

Below are the two phrases, but the letters are mixed up. Write the phrases correctly.

1. (four words) _____ (yifuforelaxul)

2. (three words) _____ (paaderapsite)

B: Telephone role nlay

Instructions for StUu.^'J A: *i*

• You are a worker at the Friskies tasting center that is closing down. Student B is a person interested in getting a new pet.

• People have been phoning and asking if they can take a cat or dog home as a pet. You want to be sure that these people would be suitable pet owners.

• Make a list of questions to ask the people who phone. Your list should help you decide if they would be good pet owners.

• Student B will phone you and ask about the animals at the center. Ask Student B your questions and answer Student B's questions.

• When you are ready, work with Student B, and perform the role play together.

You can begin your role play like this:

(The telephone rings at Friskies Tasting Center...*ring, ring ring, ring...)* Student A: "Hello, this is Friskies Tasting Center. Can I help you?" Student B: "Yes, I'm interested in getting a dog or cat for a pet and I understand you are giving them away to people."

Student A: "Well, yes but I'll need to ask you some questions. First...(you continue)..."

Instructions for Student B:

• You live in Britain. You have been thinking about getting a dog or cat for a long time. You heard that the 'Friskies' tasting center was closing. You think that

perhaps you may like to have one of the cats or dogs from the center. Student A is a worker at the center.

• You decide to phone and ask some questions about the retired cats and dogs.

• Make a list of questions to ask to help you decide if you want to have one of the cats or dogs as a pet.

• Phone the center and ask Student A your questions. Answer Student A's questions.

• When you are ready work with Student A and perform the role play together.

You can begin your role play like this:

(The telephone rings at Friskies Tasting Center...*ring, ring ring, ring)* Student A: "Hello, this is Friskies Tasting Center. Can I help you?" Student B: "Yes, I'm interested in getting a dog or cat for a pet and I understand you are giving them away to people."

Student A: "Well, yes but I'll need to ask you some questions. First... (you continue)..."

C: Writing.

• In a small group, develop a 30-second radio advertisement for a dog or cat food.

• Think about a name for the food, a slogan or jingle (short song), and how you can catch the listeners' attention.

• Remember, your advertisement is only 30 seconds in length, so choose your words carefully.

• When you have finished planning your advertisement, practice it.

• When you are ready, record it into a tape recorder and share it with the class.

D: Definitions.

Part One: Match the following definitions with the animal it is describing. Write the name of the animal next to the definition.

cat, dog, goldfish, mouse, parrot, rabbit, snake, turtle

1. From the family *Leporidae,* this animal has long ears and soft fur. People breed this animal for its meat and fur.

2. This animal, from the *Carassius auratus* or carp family, has brightly-colored scales that make it a very popular pet. The Chinese have been breeding it for hundreds of years.

3. This animal, from the family *Canis familiaris,* can be small or very large, and can have either short or long fur. It has been used as a pet for over 10,000 years and is often called, 'Man's best friend.'

4. This animal belongs to the *Chelonia* family and has a bony shell which has both an upper and lower part that covers most of its body. It protects itself by putting its head and legs into its shell.

5. From the family *Cricetidae,* this tiny animal with gray-brown fur has small ears and a long, thin, naked tail.

6. This furry animal, from the family *Felis catus,* does not vary much in size. It is often kept as a pet for catching mice or rats. It is very difficult to train because it is very independent.

7. This animal, which belongs to the *Psittaciformes* family, has brightly colored feathers and is between 8.5 cm and 40 cm in size. It is a popular pet because it can imitate human speech.

8. From the *Serpentes* family, this animal has a long body with no arms or legs. Its skin is covered in scales which it uses to move across the ground.

Part Two:

• Rate the pets from Part One from 1 (for the one you would most like to have as a pet) to 8 (for the animal you would least like to have as a pet.)

• Share your answers with a partner. Be sure to give reasons for your answers.

Task 3. Look at a unit in a textbook you are using (or are familiar with). What activities are there in the unit? Do you think you would have to include extra material when teaching the unit? Why?

Task 4. Look at a unit in a textbook you are using (or are familiar with) and say what language skills and language type is included in the unit. Is the language for presentation or controlled practice or is there some provision for communicative interaction?

Task 5. List the recent work your practical English class has been doing. Plan the next lesson.

Task 6. Make the rough plan to cover the next six lessons of practical English bearing in mind the need for variety, but keeping a coherent pattern.

Lecture 11: ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE STUDENTS

1. What is assessment in teaching English.

Assessment may be defined as "any method used to better understand the current knowledge that a student possesses." This implies that assessment can be as simple as a teacher's subjective judgement based on a single observation of student performance, or as complex as a five-hour standardized test. The idea of current knowledge implies that what a student knows is always changing and that we can make judgements about student achievement through comparisons over a period of time. Assessment may affect decisions about grades, advancement, placement, instructional needs, and curriculum.

Assessment is the process of gathering information about a student in order • to make decisions about this or her education. One kind of assessment procedure is testing. In elementary and secondary schools, tests are given routinely to measure the extent to which we profit from instruction. We may have taken intelligence, aptitude, interest, personality tests or any number of other kinds of tests. Testing means presenting a person with a set of questions or tasks in order to obtain a measure of performance often represented by a score. The score is intended to help answer questions and produce information about the person tested.

Increasingly, educators are finding new ways to evaluate students' school performances using informal rather than formal, or standardized, assessment procedures. Collection of information by means of observation is often thought of

as informal assessment, as is information gathered from interviews with parents or past teachers and by using teacher-constructed tests.

Since the influence of testing on curriculum and instruction is now widely acknowledged, educators, policymakers, and others are turning to alternative assessment methods as a tool for educational reform. The movement away from traditional, multiple-choice tests to alternative assessments - variously called authentic assessment or performance assessment - has included a wide variety of strategies such as open-ended questions, exhibits, demonstrations, hands-on execution of experiments, computer simulations, writing in many disciplines, and portfolios of student work over time. These terms and assessment strategies have led the quest for more meaningful assessments which better capture the significant outcomes we want students to achieve and better match the kinds of tasks which they will need to accomplish in order to assure their future success.

Teachers as decision makers strive to make a close match between curriculum objectives, instructional methods, and assessment techniques. The evaluation process carried out parallel to instruction is a cyclical one that involves four phases: preparation, assessment, evaluation, and reflection.

In the **preparation phase,** teachers decide what is to be evaluated, the type of evaluation to be used (diagnostic, formative, or summative), the criteria upon which student learning outcomes will be judged, and the most appropriate assessment techniques for gathering information on student progress. Teachers may make these decisions in collaboration with students.

During the **assessment phase,** teachers select appropriate tools and techniques, then collect and collate information on student progress. Teachers must determine where, when, and how assessments will be conducted, and students must be consulted and informed.

During the **evaluation phase,** teachers interpret the assessment information and make judgements about student progress. These judgements (or evaluation) provide information upon which teachers base decisions about student learning and report progress to students and parents/guardians. Students are encouraged to

monitor their own learning by evaluating their achievements on a regular basis. Encouraging students to participate in evaluation nurtures gradual acceptance of responsibility for their own progress and helps them understand and appreciate their growth.

The **reflection phase** allows teachers to consider the extent to which the previous phases in the evaluation process have been successful. Specifically, teachers evaluate the utility, equity, and appropriateness of the assessment techniques used. Such reflection assists teachers in making decisions concerning improvements or adaptations to subsequent instruction and evaluation.

2. **Characteristics of good assessment.**

Good assessment information provides accurate estimates of student performance and enables teachers or other decision makers to make appropriate decisions. The concept of test *validity* captures these essential characteristics and the extent that an assessment actually measures what it is intended to measure, and permits appropriate generalizations about students' skills and abilities. For example, a ten-item addition/subtraction test might be administered to a student who answers nine items correctly. If the test is valid, we can safely generalize that the student will likely do as well on similar items not included on the test. The results of a good test or assessment, in short, represent something beyond how students perform on a certain task or a particular set of items; they represent how a student performs on the objective which those items were intended to assess.

Measurement experts agree that test validity is tied to the purposes for which an assessment is used. Thus, a test might be valid for one purpose but inappropriate for other purposes. For example, our mathematics test might be appropriate for assessing students' mastery of addition and subtraction facts but inappropriate for identifying students who are gifted in mathematics. Evidence of validity needs to be gathered for each purpose for which an assessment is used.

A second important characteristic of good assessment information is its *consistency,* or *reliability.* Will the assessment results for this person or class be similar if they are gathered at some other time or under different circumstances or

if they are scored by different raters? For example, if you ask someone what his/her age is on three separate occasions and in three different locations and the answer is the same each time, then that information is considered reliable. In the context of performance-based and open-ended assessment, inter-rater reliability also is essential; it requires that independent raters give the same scores to a given student response.

Other characteristics of good assessment for classroom purposes:

-The content of the tests (the knowledge and skills assessed) should match the teacher's educational objectives and instructional emphasis.

-The test items should represent the full range of knowledge and skills that are the primary targets of instruction.

-Expectations for student performance should be clear.

-The assessment should be free of extraneous factors which unnecessarily confuse student responses. (For example, unclear directions and contorted questions may confuse a student and confound his/her ability to demonstrate the skills which are intended for assessment.

3. Testing writing.

Testing each skill is uniquely difficult, but testing writing presents two particular problems. The first is making decisions about the matter of control, objectivity of the evaluation, and naturalness in the writing test. If you decide to test writing in a controlled way and in a way that can be graded objectively, you must do so in a way that does not necessarily reflect how the writing is used by the students in the real world. If, on the other hand, you test writing in a way that would reflect how the students use writing in the real world, it is difficult to have control over the writing and to evaluate the student's work objectively.

The second major problem with testing writing is, if the test is done in a way that it cannot be graded objectively, it is necessary to develop a scale that allows it to be graded as objectively as possible. How this is done is one of the great difficulties of testing writing.

Components of writing.

The ability to write involves at least six component skills. They are:

- grammatical ability. This is the ability to write English in grammatically correct sentences.
- lexical ability. The ability to choose words that are correct and used appropriately.
- mechanical ability. The ability to correctly use punctuation, spelling, capitalization, etc.
- stylistic skills. The ability to use sentences and paragraphs appropriately.
- organizational skills. The ability to organize written work according to the conventions of English, including the order and selection of material.
- judgements of appropriacy. The ability to make judgements about what is appropriate depending on the task, the purpose of the writing, and the audience.

Perhaps the most difficult—and most important—of these skills is the last. Native English speakers develop a sense of what is appropriate in different writing situations (though they may be taught to use specialized registers, such as academic English or business English). Registers of English range from very informal forms such as colloquialisms, slang, and jargon to standard English to more formal forms, such as the language used for business letters, legal documents, and academic papers. Writers must be aware of these differences and learn to follow the conventions of different situations. A writing test needs to take these skills into account.

Types of writing tasks.

-*Gap filling.* One of the most controlled ways of testing writing is gap filling. Testees are presented with a passage with blanks, and they fill in the blanks. This is a mixture of both reading and writing skills, which is sometimes a problem, because it makes it difficult to decide what the scores really mean. However, with lower level students, it might be the only reasonable test of productive ability.

-*Form completion.* Another controlled way of testing writing is to have the testees fill out a form, for example, an application. The advantage of such a task is that it is at least somewhat communicative, but the disadvantage is that it does not

require any connected discourse or any use of language greater than lexical knowledge and a small amount of grammar.

-*Making corrections.* In some situations, testees are presented with a short piece of writing which has deliberate grammar, punctuation and spelling errors, and they are asked to correct the errors. While this task does something which is related to one thing that people do when they write—editing—and it is objectively corrected, but it does not represent the writing task as a whole.

-*Letter writing.* Letter writing is a common task for writing tests. The stimulus for the letter may be a situation that is explained in the instructions, a letter to which the testees are instructed to respond, information given in chart or graph form that is to be summarized in the testees' letter, pictures or drawings that give information about a situation the testees are expected to write a letter about, etc. In all of these possibilities, the tester must keep in mind that the situation must be as clear as possible for the testee, unless there is an intention to test reading and writing together. If the testee does not understand, for example, a letter that he/she is expected to respond to, it will be impossible to get a sample of writing to evaluate.

- *Essay writing.* Essay writing is probably one of the more common writing tasks, but it should be used carefully. If the future situation of the students will not include writing essays, the fester should carefully consider whether it is the best test of the students' writing ability.

Motivation, The tester should consider the issue of motivation. Will the topic motivate students of the age, sex, field of study, background, etc., of the testees to write? It is often difficult to find a topic that will motivate all students equally. Some testers choose the strategy of choosing a subject that none of the students is likely to be motivated by. If none of the students is motivated, they will at least be on equal footing. The problem with this approach is that it may be difficult for students to do their best at showing their writing skill if they are not motivated by the topic.

Breadth. The topic needs to be broad enough that every testee can approach it from some angle. If the topic is too narrow, the testees have little flexibility in their approach to it and may not have an opportunity to show their writing proficiency.

Allowing students to choose topics. In some cases, students are allowed to choose from a list of topics. This raises difficulties in the reliability of the grading, so unless skill in choosing a topic is an ability being tested, this is not recommended.

Choice oftask(s).

Connected discourse. The task should require testees to write a piece of connected discourse. While there may be valid arguments for testing the writing of beginning students by having them just fill in blanks, once students are beyond the beginning stage, their writing proficiency should not be tested by having them translate from their native language or fill in blanks.

Realistic task. The task that is chosen should reflect the type of writing that the testee is required to do in the real world. If the test is for students who will be going to English-medium universities, an appropriate task would be having students write an essay on an academic topic. Tasks which the testee would not usually perform in English would not be appropriate.

Clarity. The testees should be presented with a clearly defined task that cannot easily be misinterpreted. Pre-testing helps insure that the instructions are clear and that the testees can carry out the task based on them.

Modes of discourse. The test tasks should involve a mode or modes of discourse that are appropriate to the actual writing needs of the students. If necessary, the testees should be given more than one task so that they can demonstrate their mastery of different modes of discourse. In fact, a recent trend is to evaluate students, where possible, on different types of material that they have produced over a long period of time, rather than over one piece of writing on a particular occasion.

The number of tasks. The test should involve more than one task, which will give an adequate sample of the testees' writing for evaluation. As mentioned above,

different types of writing will also give a broader view of the students' writing skills.

Level of difficulty. The teacher should carefully consider the difficulty of the test. Like any other test, if a writing test presents a task that is too easy or too difficult, if the instructions are difficult to understand, etc., the responses that testees give will not reflect their true ability, either because the task is not challenging enough for their ability or because it is so difficult that they do not know how to respond. Pre-testing with a similar group is useful in determining the right level of difficulty.

Time allowed. The teacher should carefully consider the time allowed for the test. If insufficient time is allowed, the students do not have a chance to show what they can do, particularly on a test where the organization of a piece of writing is assessed. However, there may be cases, such as writing an essay for an examination, where the task that the student needs to be able to do in the real world will have restrictions on time, so in some cases, it is appropriate to limit the time allowed.

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PRACTICAL LESSON

Task. Read the following information about test designing and design two tests: one should deal with the testing of language habits (grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation); another - with the testing of speech skills (listening, speaking, reading or writing).

TEST DESIGN

Validity and reliability.

When making a test, there are two basic factors to consider- validity and reliability.

Validity. Validity can be defined as the degree to which a test actually tests what it is intended to. If the purpose of a test is to test ability to communicate in English, then it is valid if it does actually test ability to communicate. If what it is testing is actually knowledge of grammar, then it is not a valid test for testing ability to communicate.

This definition has two very important aspects. The first is that validity is a matter of degree. Tests are not either valid or not valid. There are degrees of validity, and some tests are more valid than others. A second important aspect of this definition is that tests are only valid or invalid in terms of their intended use. If a test is intended to test reading ability, but it also tests writing, then it may not be valid for testing reading—but it may test reading and writing together.

Types of validity

Validity is divided into different types. Broadly it is divided into internal and external validity.

Internal validity. Internal validity is validity in terms of the test itself—whether the content of the test and the way the test is carried out allows it to test what it is intended to. There are two types of internal validity-face validity and

content validity. Face validity is the extent to which a test looks like it will test what it is intended to. It is the opinion of non-experts about what a test is really getting at. While their opinion is not expert, it can be important, because it is the kind of response that you can get from the people who are taking the test. If a test does not appear to be valid to the test takers, they may not do their best, so the perceptions of non-experts are useful.

Content validity is the opinion of experts as to whether a test is valid. The experts should look at whether the test is representative of the skills you are trying to test. This involves looking at the syllabus, in the case of an achievement test, and the test specifications and deciding what the test was intended to test and whether it accomplishes what it is intended to. The problem is that even experts may disagree over the validity of a test, particularly if they are not given a systematic way of looking at it. However, even looking at a test systematically does not guarantee that all the experts will agree.

External validity. External validity has to do with the relationship between the test and other measures. There are two types of external validity—concurrent validity and predictive validity. Concurrent validity is the degree to which a test correlates with other tests testing the same thing. In other words, if a test is valid, it should give a similar result to other measures that are valid for the same purpose. When considering concurrent validity, there are several concerns. First, the measure that is being used for comparison of the test in question must be valid. If the measure is not valid, there is no point in testing another test's validity against it. For example, teacher's ranking might be used to test validity-but the teacher's ranking may be affected by a number of factors that are not related to the students' actual proficiency. One possible solution is to average the rankings of several teachers to compensate for this.

Second, the measure must be valid for the same purpose as the test whose validity is being considered. A reading test cannot be used to test the concurrent validity of a grammar test. In addition, if teachers' rankings are being used, it is necessary to make certain that they understand on what basis they are expected to

rank the students. If the test being considered is a grammar test, then the teacher's should be asked to rank the students according to their grammar proficiency, not their overall English language ability.

Predictive validity is the extent to which the test in question can be used to make predictions about future performance. For example, does a test of English ability accurately predict how well students will get along in a university in an English-speaking country? There are a number of problems with trying to answer such questions. Measures of how well a student does at a university are sometimes used to measure predictive validity, but the problem is that there are many factors other than English proficiency involved in academic success. In addition, it is not possible to know whether the students who scored low on the tests and therefore did not get to go to the university would have done if they had been allowed to go.

Reliability

There are two types of reliability. Test-retest reliability is the extent to which the test achieves the same result time after time. For example, if a ruler is used to measure a piece of paper, it should get the same result every time. Therefore a ruler is a reliable measure.

The other type of reliability is inter-item consistency. Inter-item consistency is the extent to which all the items on the test are measuring the same thing.

Test-retest reliability. Determining test-retest reliability is not a simple matter. There are various ways of trying to measure it, but each of them has potential problems.

- Test-retest. One way of measuring reliability is to give the students the same test twice to the same group of students. However, if a test is given twice, particularly if there is not much time between the two tests, the students might do better the second time due to a practice effect. On the other hand, if there is a longer time between the two tests, the practice effect is not as likely to be important, but it may be that with the passage of time, students' English proficiency has improved.

- Parallel groups. Another way to be determine reliability is to have two

parallel groups take the same test. The problem is determining whether the two groups are truly parallel.

- Parallel tests. Reliability can also be measured by giving parallel tests, that is, two similar tests with the same type and number of items, the same instructions, etc. The problem with this approach is determining whether the two tests are actually parallel.

Inter-item consistency. Inter-item consistency is usually determined using statistical tests.

Split-half. Another way of measuring inter-item consistency is to randomly assign test items to two groups and compare the results of the two groups. Of course, it is still possible that the tests will not be parallel. In addition, because the individual tests are shorter, they will be less reliable, which needs to be compensated for statistically, that is by calculating how reliable the test would have been with twice the number of items.

The relationship between validity and reliability.

Validity and reliability have a complicated relationship. If a test is valid, it must also be reliable. A test that gives different results at different times cannot be valid. However, it is possible for a test to be reliable without being valid. That is, a test can give the same result time after time but not be measuring what it was intended to measure.

Some common problems with test items.

There are certain problems that typically come up in test items or types of tests. Writing a perfect test item is difficult or impossible, and you cannot necessarily avoid all problems. However, being aware of some of the common problems will help you avoid them or compensate for them in other ways, or at least to take the issue into account in evaluating the results.

Grammar items

1. (an item intended to test the present perfect)

Write a sentence containing "since."

1) _____

In this case, the item may not elicit the present perfect. There are other uses of "since," and the testees may not produce the intended form. Another way of eliciting the present perfect is to give the testees a sentence where it is necessary, along with the verb, and have them change the verb to the correct form. Whenever you write an item that requires testees to produce something, there is a possibility that what they produce will not be what you intended. It is very important to either pretest the item to see what sorts of interpretations testees have of the or at least to have some other people try to answer the item.

2.1 feel like I for days.

a. had been awake
b. have not been awake
c. have been awake
d. has been awake

When writing multiple choice questions, it is natural to make one of the distracters an opposite of the correct answer. Therefore, experienced test takers tend to assume that if there are two opposites among the alternatives, one of them is probably correct. This is something that should be avoided in all types of multiple choice items, not just grammar items. For a similar reason, you should avoid incorrect items that have the same or similar meanings. Experienced test takers realize that if there are two items with similar meanings, they must both be wrong, which eliminates them from being possible answers.

Vocabulary

Choose the word that has the same meaning as the given word.

1. catastrophe

a. cataract
b. conservation
c. contiguous
d. calamity

In this case the alternative that testees are asked to choose from are as difficult, if not more difficult than, the word that is being tested. The testees might know

"catastrophe" but not "calamity" and thus would miss the item even though they knew the meaning of the word being tested. In the case of vocabulary items as well as other types of multiple choice questions, it is important that the alternatives be easy to understand so that it is the head word, the content of the reading, etc., that is being tested, not the ability to understand the alternatives.

2. Use each word in a sentence that shows that you understand the meaning
of the word:

government

industry

negotiations

This test item really tests two things—the testees' knowledge of the meaning of these words and their ability to write sentences that display that knowledge. Even for a native English speaker, the latter could be quite difficult. While it is useful to have the testees deal with the word in context, the problem with this approach is that the testees may understand the word perfectly well but not be able to make a sentence that shows its meaning.

Pronunciation

Which two words are the odd ones out? Consider the vowel sounds.

a. fail

b. male

c. land

d. reign

e. beak

This is intended to be a test of ability to pronounce, but studies have shown that there are no correlations between ability to do well on pencil-and-paper tests and ability to actually pronounce English. Therefore, this is not a good pronunciation tests.

Functions

Circle the letter of the function that each utterance serves.

Mike: Hey, give me back my coat.

A. command

B. complaint

C. accusation

D. request

In this case, there is more than one possible correct answer. Since the utterance is in the imperative form, it is probably a command though, depending on the context, it is possible that it is a request). However, it may also have the function of being an accusation (implying that the hearer took the coat without the speaker's permission) or a complaint (for taking the coat without permission). This item demonstrates two possible problems. First, when using multiple choice questions, it is very important to provide only one right answer. It is necessary in writing multiple choice questions to try them out on students in advance, if possible, or, at minimum to have another person read the test and make judgements about whether there are any questions that have more than one answer. Second, utterances can serve more than one function, and it may be difficult to tell which one is intended, especially if the utterance is not presented in context.

Reading

1. (After a text on how Japan and the U.S. are different)

One way in which the United States and Japan are different is

a. Japan is a smaller country.

b. The U.S. has a more hetrogeneous population.

c. c There are more people in the U.S.

d. d. Japan has a longer history.

Based on general knowledge, all of these answers are correct. It should be emphasized in the question itself or in the instructions for all of the questions that testees should answer the questions based on the information in the reading passage. Even so, this type of question might be difficult for lower level testees, because it might be difficult for the testees to distinguish between what they know

and what they have read, so it might be best to avoid it when making tests for lower level tests.

In writing multiple choice items, it is very important to write good correct and incorrect alternatives. The correct alternative in a multiple choice question should not come directly from the text. It should be re-worded, so that the testees have to understand the meaning of the text and they cannot just identify the repeated words. Incorrect alternatives should be based on a possible misunderstanding of the text. They should be clearly incorrect, but not illogical. If they are illogical, the testees will eliminate them, even if they do not understand the text. The problem in writing good multiple choice items is often that it is difficult to write three or four good alternatives that are both logical and clearly incorrect.

When writing multiple choice questions, you should avoid giving the testees clues to the correct answer in the way you write the alternatives. For example, there is a tendency for the correct answer to be much longer or much shorter than the other alternatives, so it is best if the alternatives are nearly the same length. Test item writers have a tendency to put the correct answer in the middle, that is, if there are four items, to make the correct item either B or C, or if there are five items to make it C. You should make sure that the correct answers are not predominately in the middle of the alternatives. As mentioned above, you should also avoid using the opposites of the correct alternative as an incorrect alternative, and you should avoid using two incorrect alternatives with very similar meanings.

2. Smallville is 82 miles from Metropolis, and it takes three hours and fifteen minutes by bus, including a thirty minute stop for lunch at Kayville. (If the bus arrives in Kayville before noon or after 1:00, the bus only stops twenty minutes for a snack.) One day, a bus left Smallville at 11:00 a.m. and had a flat tire five miles after leaving Kayville. The driver had to walk ten minutes to a telephone to call the bus company, it took the repair crew thirty minutes to get to the bus and ten minutes to fix the tire. At what time did the bus arrive in Metropolis?

The problem with using this type of item as a reading test is that the testees may understand the content of the reading perfectly but not be able to answer the

question, because they do not understand how to solve the puzzle. When writing reading items (or any other type of item), you need to carefully consider what skills or knowledge are necessary to answer the question. If a skill other than the one you want to test is necessary, that type of item is probably not a good item.

3. Read the passage and each statement that follows it. For each statement, indicate whether, according to the reading passage, it is true (T), false (F) or whether there is insufficient information to answer the question (I).

In a course I took at junior high school in Los Angeles, we discussed such problems as world hunger and homelessness, because those were problems that we thought were among the most important world issues at the time....

T FI 1. The students discussed important world issues.

T F12. The students in this class were 18 years old.

T FI 3. The students always discussed the topics they wanted to discuss.

T F I 4. The students discussed such problems as world hunger and homelessness.

The answer to the second question is clearly "false" - but this comes from a combination of cultural knowledge and what is in the text. The testees must know that students in American junior high schools are usually between the ages of 12 and 16, or they cannot answer the question correctly. Again, when writing a test, you need to be careful of questions that require information outside of the text, information that some testees might lack to be answered.

The third question uses the word "always." Since statements with words like "always" or "never" tend to be false (or at least insufficient information), they should be avoided. The fourth question uses the same wording as the original text. Testees might be able to answer the question by matching the words in the text and the words in the question, without understanding the meaning. Therefore, the wording in a true/false item or a multiple choice item should be different from the wording of the passage being tested and, if possible, should be based on a potential misunderstanding of the meaning of the text.

Like multiple choice items, false statements should be based on some possible misunderstanding of the text. True statements should not be worded exactly like the text, so that testees cannot just match the words with the question with the words in the text.

When writing true/false items, you should avoid words like "always" and "never." Items with these words are almost always false, and experienced testees know that.

Lecture 7: TEACHING ENGLISH BY MEANS OF COMPUTER TECHNOLOGIES

Computers and related electronic resources have come to play a central role in education. Whatever your feelings about what some have called the digital revolution, you must accept that many, perhaps most, of your students are fully immersed in it. At the very simplest level, you will rarely receive a paper or other assignment from a student that has not been written with the help of a computer. Most of your students will have considerable experience with the Internet and will, whether you like it or not, make use of it for much of their academic work. Many of them will be accustomed to using e-mail as a normal form of communication. But it is not just students who find electronic resources valuable. Teachers can benefit from these resources as well, by employing a series of useful tools.

We stress the word "useful" because electronic resources complement but seldom replace, more conventional teaching techniques. Electronic tools can make classes more efficient; lectures more compelling, informative, and varied; reading assignments more extensive, interesting, and accessible; discussions more free ranging and challenging; and students' papers more original and well researched. Only you, however, can judge if these techniques advance your own teaching goals.

1. Promising uses of computer technologies.

Of the many electronic teaching techniques that instructors have found useful, we have chosen five that we believe seem particularly likely to help significant numbers of teachers. All of these techniques demand an investment of tune if they are to succeed, and your willingness to use them should be balanced carefully against other, perhaps more important, teaching priorities. But for each technique, there are both simple and complex ways of proceeding, and we will try to make clear the respective advantages and disadvantages.

The five ways in which we suggest teachers consider using electronic resources involve tasks that you will usually have to perform in any case. New technologies can help you perform them better and more easily:

• *Administration:* The routine administration of courses (advertising a class, providing copies of the syllabus, assigning discussion sections, and getting out course news) can be more efficiently handled with a course home page, electronic discussion groups, and e-mail lists. These tools can also dramatically improve the continuity and the community aspects of courses, helping students to engage with and learn from each other and even from people outside the course.

• *Readings/sources:* The Web and CD-ROMs provide a wider variety of secondary and primary sources (including visual and audio sources) than has previously been available. With your guidance, your students can now gain access to materials that were once accessible only to experts because they were too cumbersome to reproduce for classroom use or too expensive for students to purchase. By taking their own paths through these sources, stu dents can bring their own evidence and arguments into lectures and discus sion sections, as well as write on a wider range of research topics.

• *Papers/presentations:* Rather than receiving assignments and taking exams from the teacher alone, students can perform more independent exercises in publishing, exhibit building, or assembling and presenting teaching units and other materials for their peers. A web archive of several terms' work can make the course itself an ongoing and collaborative intellectual construction.

• *Lectures:* A computer with presentation software can provide a single tool for augmenting lectures with outlines, slides, statistical charts and tables, images, music, and even video clips. In addition to printing them as handouts, you can save in-class presentations in a web-compatible format for later review and discussion.

• *Discussion:* Electronic discussion tools such as e-mail, conferencing software, and on-line chat services can seed discussion questions before the class meets, draw out your shy students, and follow up on discussions or questions on the reading between classes. For courses without face-to-face discussion sections,

these tools can bring the course to life over great distances and help overcome scheduling difficulties.

2. The necessary tools for using computer technologies in teaching English.

What the teacher needs will depend, of course, on what he wants to do. Most teachers have computers, and most have at least some access to e-mail and the Internet. In many schools and universities, most students do, too. Other techniques require more advanced technologies that the teacher may or may not wish to purchase on his own, and that his institution may or may not make available to him. It should be obvious, therefore, that the teacher should make no plans for using electronic tools before making sure that both he and his students will have access to the necessary technology.

But owning, or having access to, technology is usually only a first step. Even more important is learning how to use it. This is one of the biggest challenges facing anyone who wishes to use electronic tools, because the knowledge is not always easy to acquire. Many people, of course, are highly skilled in computer technology and know how to teach themselves to do almost anything. But many other people have limited computer skills, are easily intimidated by new and unfamiliar tasks, and tend to avoid doing anything that requires them to learn something very different from the things to which they are accustomed. If you fall in the latter group but wish to expand your ability to use electronic tools, you need to find help. Some institutions offer extensive assistance through their computer centers or their information technology services. Some departments have staff members or graduate student assistants who are hired to handle computer-related problems. There are also many excellent reference works to help you learn about various electronic tools. Just as you must be sure that you have the necessary technology at your disposal before you decide to use electronic tools in your teaching, so you must also make sure that you have access to the necessary help in learning to use it.

Keep in mind, finally, that the technology associated with computers and the Internet changes with breathtaking speed. Although certain skills will remain

useful to you over long periods of time, there will be many things that will have to be relearned time and time again. The rapidity of change in this field can be bewildering and intimidating. But it is also the source of some valuable innovations that can be of great use to you.

Before introducing new teaching techniques, therefore, it is wise to make a quick inventory of your own and your school's electronic teaching resources. You will not want to discover halfway through a project that there are major obstacles such as insufficient equipment, inadequate support, or negative professional incentives. Answering a few simple questions can help you determine how practical and promising potential, innovations in electronic teaching are likely to be. While some answers may lie as close as your departmental colleagues, others might require conferring with departmental administrators, librarians, or computer support organizations.

•Does your school have a web page? What courses have material on-line? Which departments and faculty have web pages? Where are they stored? (One source for help in understanding how your institution's web site works is the person who is in charge of constructing it, usually known as the *webmaster*. If your school has a web site, look at the bottom of the home page or on the credits page of the site to find the e-mail address of your webmaster.)

•What kinds of computers and Internet access do students have? Do most students own their own computers? If not, are there long waits for access? Twenty-four-hour computer labs? Provisions for off-campus students? What software is on these computers? And what Internet browser (and version) do students typically use?

•Has your school purchased or is it planning to purchase a standard software package to manage the creation of course web pages? These tools offer simple nll-in-the-blank on-line forms to allow you to place standard course material on the Internet, after which the program creates the course home page for you. If not, is there a school style sheet or recommended format for course pages? Does your school recommend or support any particular software for web pages? For

presentations, word processing, spreadsheets, and databases?

• What staff is available to assist instructors with educational technology? Are there any work-study students or teaching assistants trained for new media support? What handouts or on-line guides have been prepared for electronic teaching?

• Are there particular classrooms designed for multimedia presentations? Do any classrooms have Internet access? Are classes that are making use of this technology given extra technical or financial support?

• Are there special funds or - professional recognition for innovative uses of technology in teaching? Are any of your colleagues working on grants that support electronic teaching? What is the attitude of your department and of school officials to this activity?

• Does your institution have a plan for on-line course materials? Does the school have distance learning plans {methods by which students with online access can take courses remotely)? How is your department's teaching and funding going to be affected by these plans?

• What can you use on the Internet? The new media is so new that no clear guidelines have been established for determining fair use and copyright policies for on-line teaching materials. In general, however, the same copyright rules that govern photocopied packets and other more familiar teaching tools are likely to apply to online material. You should, however, identify the office or officer at your institution responsible for monitoring such policies.

• Will your on-line materials belong to you? Investigate your institution's policies (or ask for one to be made) on whether you or the school owns your on-line materials. This is especially important if you are investing considerable creative time and energy, making heavy use of university equipment and staff, or may wish to take the material with you to another institution.

3. The course home page.

A course home page can serve several functions. Even before the course begins, it can advertise your course to prospective students. Before and during the

term it can reduce demand for paper copies of course materials. More importantly, it can present a broader range of material than paper handouts would by including multimedia material and on-line sources. As its name implies, a home page can act as a twenty-four-hour communications center for news, assignments, and discussions. Indeed, it can play host to the four other electronic techniques discussed below.

Before you create a home page for your course, you should first carefully define its scope and content. It is best to start simply and enhance your site in stages to benefit from experience and feedback. The simplest sites consist of a single page reproducing the traditional paper syllabus. The next, more useful level includes separate pages or sections for paper assignments/ section lists/ and hyperlinks to readings and sources. The most advanced sites, such as those for distance learning courses, can include all the materials needed for the course: lectures/ readings, audio and video recordings, exams, and evaluations.

As with most projects/ a good outline and definition of your web site can save many hours of revisions and false starts. Ask a few basic questions before you start:

• What are the goals of your site? Is it going to perform administrative chores? Advertise the course? Introduce unique materials? Publish and archive student work? Answers to these questions should shape the design and scope of your site.

• What are the features you like and dislike about existing course sites at your school and on the Internet? What institutional support, standards, and tools might guide your efforts?

• What traditional materials will go on the site? Syllabus, assignments, handouts, bibliographies, slides, maps?

• What multimedia or otherwise cumbersome material might be easily included on a web page? Sound recordings, images, video, statistical data? Which of your readings are available or could be made available on-line? Are there reputable Internet sources on a particular topic? Can you scan material into your site without violating copyright laws?

• Will the home page host student publications/ lecture materials, or on-line discussions? Which of these items is essential to meeting your goals? Which could be saved for a second, third, or fourth stage? Which have little educational value and should be dropped?

• What are logical divisions for all this material? Home pages should usually limit their initial menus to seven or fewer choices.

When you set out actually to create a course home page, you will have a number of methods from which to choose. You may have access to someone expert at transferring material from word processing files to a web-compatible format; in this case/ prepare your material using a word processor, making sure to use simple formatting that will translate easily to the Web. (Italics and bold are best; underlining can create problems.) Then give it to whoever is transferring the material to your web site. If you are constructing the web page yourself, look for assistance - in computer manuals or from a knowledgeable colleague or student - in using the various editing tools available. These may include school-wide fill-in-the-blanks courseware; a word processor capable of opening and saving files in HTML (Hypertext Markup Language), the computer language in which web pages are written; a simple text editor for working directly in HTML; or specialized HTML editors such as Microsoft FrontPage or Netscape Composer, which provide a word processor-like interface for composing pages.

The most successful course web sites use the unique capabilities of the medium to provide material not available to students in other forms. This could include hyperlinks (words or phrases/ usually in a different color type, which will take students to other web sites with a simple click of the mouse button) to on-line readings, lecture outlines, or even sample exam questions that are not otherwise distributed to the class.

Whether you have constructed your web site yourself or had someone else do it for you, you should proofread your pages very carefully, test to make sure all the links work, and keep a careful eye on the overall size of your pages and individual images. Because web sites often look different on various computers, you should also

try to view your pages in as many different browsers as possible, especially in the Macintosh and Windows computer labs that the students might be using. If you have students who commute to campus, you should try to get access to your course materials from off campus using a modem (which connects computers to the Internet using a telephone line) to ensure that your pages and graphics can be displayed efficiently on computers not directly connected to your institution's network.

Once you have constructed a web site, make an effort to publicize it. Be sure that it is listed in all the proper places on your school's web site - that there are clear links to it from, for example, your department's home page. Put the site's Internet address (known as a URL) on your paper course materials. Describe the site to your students on the first few days of class, write the URL on the board, and indicate whether and where they can get help finding and using the Web.

4. Electronic sources.

For the moment, at least, textbooks and monographs have little to fear from on-line competition. Few students or faculty will submit to reading long passages of text on a computer screen. But many classrooms can benefit from electronic resources in at least two areas: supplementary readings and primary sources. Even the best published readers or photocopied packets tend to dampen the thrill of discovery because they have been preselected and packaged for a particular purpose (seldom your own). Electronic sources, whether on CD-ROM or the Web, can significantly open up the range of materials accessible to your students.

The most extensive, if still not fully developed, source for electronic resources is the World Wide Web. Many web sites can deliver primary documents, secondary literature, sound, and images from a wide variety of sources. Students who explore web sites related to a course can bring compelling evidence and arguments back to the class. Publishers are building companion web sites around their textbooks, and large international projects have been launched to provide on-line sources for standard humanities and social science survey courses. Finally, libraries and

scholars are making scanned materials accessible over the Web, although the copyright implications of this practice require close attention.

In all these cases, the relatively new forms of material require some special handling. You should approach selecting electronic sources for your course with the following guidelines in mind:

- Ensure that all electronic assignments contribute to the objectives of the course. The new materials should pass the same relevance test as traditional material.
- Personally evaluate the scholarly quality of your electronic sources. Although linking to electronic sources might be free, one substandard source can lower the credibility of the course.
- Use the appropriate medium. Can these materials be more easily or effectively used in a more traditional form? Try to use the Web for things that it can do particularly well: displaying multimedia material, hyper linking to other sources, providing interactive experiences, or improving access to otherwise cumbersome or distant materials. As on-line archives begin providing access to recordings and radio and television programs, its possible value to teachers will increase even further.

When dealing with massive collections of primary documents, make the task of using them more manageable by discussing ahead of time the particular questions the collection might help answer. Then divide the class into groups, each of which will explore the archive with a particular question in mind. Short review papers, web-page postings, or in-class presentations can enable each group to share small numbers of documents, images, and other artifacts that address the question or theme they have chosen. Reinforce traditional research skills. Using online information requires at least as much skill and discipline as using traditional sources. Just because students can "cut and paste" from online sources, the process of researching and writing is not fundamentally different from that for a project that uses more traditional sources. Encourage students to take the same detailed notes and to follow the same strict citation procedures they use for conventional printed sources. Mix traditional and electronic sources. Require students to consult traditional printed and microform source material as well as electronic resources.

Most valuable sources will not be digitized any time soon, if ever, so student research should include at least as many traditional sources as electronic ones. Students wedded to the Internet sometimes tend to assume that they need never use a traditional library; some act at times as if they think information that is not on the Web does not exist. Be sure that you structure assignments in a way that does not sever your students' ties to the most important sources of scholarly material.

• Caution your students to be especially critical readers of on-line sources. Explain the Web's fluid (or nonexistent) editorial standards and the need to determine the standards, origin, and scholarly discipline that went into the creation of each on-line source. Virtually anyone can create a web site, and there is no review process to test sites for accuracy or reliability unless the creator of the site initiates one. To avoid the problems such lax standards can cause, you should heavily emphasize the on-line offerings of established libraries, archives, and universities. To ensure that your students become critical consumers of on-line material, consider having them complete a quick questionnaire after reading the first electronic resource of the term. Ask them to identify the author of the material, give the address (URL) for the site, and comment on the scholarly methods and reputation of the sponsoring organization or individual. Have them try to discover how long a site has been in existence and how long the reference will remain on-line. Will more material be added or corrections made? How should they cite this material in their papers, and can they be sure the material will still be at that location? A short discussion of the answers in class will counteract many of the sources of confusion and disappointment.

Ordinarily, when students write essays or research papers for a course, they write for an audience of one: the instructor. But teachers who have persuaded students that they are writing for a broader audience have found that students take the work more seriously and devote a great deal more effort to it. Creating a system of on-line publications for your course, or for your department, can have a tremendous impact on student engagement with scholarly work. On-line publishing also creates opportunities for student collaboration, and for students to take a more

direct and responsible role in the learning process than they otherwise might. Another thing that makes electronic publishing valuable is that it exposes students to the stylistic constraints and opportunities of the new digital media. Already, a considerable portion of this nation's business, scholarly, and personal communication occurs through e-mail, the World Wide Web, and private networks of computers. A number of important periodicals, such as *Salon Magazine* and Microsoft's *Slate,* exist primarily or solely on-line.

The range of electronic publishing techniques you use in your course depends largely on the technical skills, resources, and imagination of you or your class. Students have performed the following with considerable success:

• *Multimedia in-class presentations:* A student uses a presentation program to supplement a standard spoken presentation with images, charts and graphs, or sound.

• *Essays in the form of World Wide Web pages:* While even a traditional text essay might be posted for comment, the best web essays will make use of the Web's unique ability to incorporate multimedia elements.

• *Web teaching units for your class or other classes:* Students can become teachers by sharing their research and analysis with the class or with an outside audience (including secondary and primary school classes).

• *Web exhibits:* By emulating the form and rigor of museum and library exhibits, students can produce a classroom and community resource on their topic.

• *Collaborative projects:* All of the above projects lend themselves to collaborative work by groups of students.

• *Classroom archive/library:* Over the years, a digitally savvy course might accumulate an excellent library of digital student essays, teaching units, exhibits, and dialogues.

The promise of electronic publishing is almost evenly matched by its perils. The following steps will help you avoid the most common pitfalls:

• Establish and communicate the pedagogical goals of the assignment. You should justify deviation from traditional forms of student work by establishing that

the innovation will improve the students' knowledge, skills, or learning experience.

•Make the assignment appropriate to the medium. Most rewarding are assignments that make use of multimedia sources, hyperlinks, and collaboration with resources or people over the Internet. For text-only essays, ensure that the students' classmates or an outside scholar or peer comments on the published papers.

•Provide appropriate technical and stylistic support. Even if the assignment is voluntary, many students will need help with the new requirements of publishing on-line or preparing multimedia presentations. Arrange for help from your school's computer department, devote a particular class to a group tutorial, or devote a portion of your office hours to technical assistance. Teaching computing skills in non-computer science classes is a controversial practice; be sure not to allow the technology to overwhelm the substance.

•Keep technological hurdles as low as possible. If possible, use web page templates, simple submission forms, and any other aid that can keep the focus of the class on the subject matter and not the tools. Keep abreast of the range of technical skill among your students through classroom and school wide surveys, or even a show of hands on the first day of class.

■ Arrange campus, local, scholarly, or international exposure for your students' work. The publishing aspect of the Web is too often assumed to happen spontaneously. A moderate effort at planning how to distribute and publicize your students' work can ensure that students feel their publications ha\^ been taken seriously.

■ Integrate and archive student work on the course home page. Many students appreciate contributing to the knowledge of the class and to th$_e$ learning experience of their peers. A gallery of past student work is also elective advertising of your course to prospective students. Pay careful attention to privacy issues regarding student work; school policy and privacy laws may j-equire pseudonyms and anonymous entries when student work is exposed to an ^utside audience. Certainly nothing should ever be published without the expr^s permission of its author. As

promising as these new media forms might be, дое lack of clear standards for evaluating this work has some times hampered the^ adoption. Teachers are comfortable guiding and evaluating students on traditional essays and presentations. Multimedia presentations or web pages requi$_r$J even more explicit guidelines to avoid highly uneven results. Electronic Kfojects should fulfill the assignment, make appropriate use of multimedia materj$_a$l, conform to online style conventions, and respect the diversity and size of theij- potential audience.

5. Multimedia lecturing.

Despite several generations of harsh criticism, lecturing remains on$_e$ of the most common, and often one of the most effective, means of teaching. At jts best a lecture enlivens academic subjects with the instructor's energy and cariosity and with the persuasive nuances of human speech. Nevertheless, lecturing has its limits, most notably the reputed twelve-minute average human attention s^n, the difficulty of representing complex material verbally, and the awkwardness of presenting diverse, multimedia sources.

These challenges have already led teachers to use chalkboards, overbad and slide projectors, and audiovisual equipment. Some schools are beginning *po* provide classrooms equipped with built-in or portable multimedia computer systems. You can take advantage of the electronic possibilities for lecturing by familiarizing yourself with the most popular and powerful computerized classroom tool: presen-tation software such as Microsoft PowerPoint. Business presenters were *t\p* early adopters of this software, driven by the less captive nature of their auqjences. Teachers have recently begun to use such programs to consolidate into one device the presentation of multimedia material that supplements their lectures.

The basic concept behind presentation software is a familiar one; ^ is the same as that for the slide show or over- head transparencies. The most ^jemen-tary use of presentation programs is as a glorified slide projector to di$_s$play a sequence of pictures or documents to accompany your lecture. When usiiy computerized presentation, however, you can easily add captions to the imager digitally highlight or annotate them, or combine multiple images on a single "slide." Teachers who

distribute lecture outlines or write them on the board might want to include that text on a projected slide.

At their most advanced, these programs can allow teachers to add sound, video, and even interactive charts and graphs to slides. You might, for example, project a map that demonstrates various changes as you advance along a time line. If the classroom computer system has Internet access, you can hyperlink your slides to World Wide Web resources, effectively incorporating that material into your lecture.

The use of presentation software in the classroom requires careful planning and a not inconsiderable investment of time. You should be prepared to take some or all of the following steps:

• Determine whether you have access to the equipment and special classrooms necessary to display electronic presentations. At a minimum, you will need a laptop computer, a projection device compatible with your software and hardware, and a classroom with a convenient electrical outlet, dimmable lights, and an appropriate screen. Check that the computer is capable of producing all the effects you plan for the class such as sound, video, or Internet access.

• Ensure that your own computer equipment will allow you to create and maintain these presentations. Manipulating multimedia resources requires a relatively powerful computer and, with some exceptions, a modern graphical operating system such as Microsoft Windows or the Macintosh Operating System.

• Acquire a presentation program. Many of the more popular office suites (for instance, from Microsoft, Corel, or Lotus) include them. Your campus may already have purchased licenses to one or more of these products. Finally, check to make sure your choice is compatible with the systems installed in classrooms.

• Write or revise your lectures with the multimedia slide show in mind. Begin to collect compelling pictures and artwork, explanatory maps and charts, music clips, even short videos that might enhance your analysis. Evaluate which of these materials can be rendered in digital form, and consider the copyright implications - if possible by discussing them with the relevant experts in your school. When

preparing text for your presentation - headings or explanatory captions -use simple clauses and standard fonts (for example, Arial or Times New Roman) to ensure that your presentation will look the same regardless of what computer you are using. The best font size for headings is twenty-four point, although you can use thirty point or larger if you wish.

•Be sure to calculate how long a visual or audio presentation will take and how much of a reduction in the other parts of your lecture may be necessary.

•Digitize the material that best advances your teaching goals. Your campus may have a central lab for digitizing materials, and you might find some of the equipment affordable enough for a department or individual to own. Make the file size of the slides as small as possible, even if it system such as Microsoft Windows or the Macintosh Operating System.

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6. Electronic discussions.

Perhaps the most controversial (and probably the most common) application of technology is as a supplement to or replacement for face-to-face conversation. Small group discussions are an irreplaceable forum for teaching, learning, and thoughtful collaboration. They are not, however, without problems. Small discussion groups are an expensive way to organize teaching, and as a result they are becoming less common in some of the budget-conscious schools and universities of our time. Some students - shy people, or those who are not native English speakers - are uncomfortable in small group discussions and do not actively participate in them. Students speaking in a classroom setting can make superficial contributions that would have benefited from more advance preparation. On-line discussions can help compensate for these problems.

On-line discussion tools fall into two basic categories: synchronous (chat) and asynchronous (e-mail, mailing lists, and threaded discussions). In a synchronous discussion, students in effect talk to one another over the Internet in much the same way they speak on the telephone; in asynchronous discussions, the communication is more like an exchange of letters, even if potentially much more rapid. In general, classes with no face-to-face meetings are the best candi- dates for synchronous on-line discussions that approximate the dynamic and serendipitous qualities of small discussion groups. Classes that already meet together may prefer asynchronous electronic forums as a more useful supplement to their regular discussions. A class can also, of course, get the advantages of both by using an asynchronous discussion forum over the course of the term with periodic chat sessions for special guests or events.

The most basic, but still very useful, technique is to use the campus e-mail system to broadcast messages to your students. For large lecture courses or classes that require frequent out-of-class communication this method alone can save

considerable amounts of time. E-mail lists - a group of e-mail addresses grouped under a single alias such as "English" or "us-survey" and often known as a *list serve* - can be particularly useful for large classes. Lists can also allow members of the class to communicate with each other. Slightly more complicated and resource intensive are threaded discussion forums such as Usenet and various web-based forums; such forums keep a permanent record of each person's contribution so that each succeeding participant can review the entire course of a conversation and add his or her own contribution to it. Chat sessions take perhaps the most planning, the most specialized software, and considerable guidance on chat room etiquette and procedures.

To use electronic discussion tools in your class, consider the following steps:

• Determine whether electronic discussions contribute to your pedagogical goals. These tools require a significant time commitment from teacher and students and should only be used if they serve an important educational function. Most teachers turn to electronic discussions to get students thinking critically about the reading before they come to class, to answer questions of comprehension and fact as they occur, and to provide some continuity of thought between one week's topic and the next.

• Investigate the tools and practices of your campus. E-mail is the only technique that has near-universal support on campuses in the United States. Your ability to implement other forms of electronic discussions will be significantly shaped by your school's choice of additional communication tools.

• Make the on-line discussion substantive and unique. Provide information in these sessions that cannot be found elsewhere or at least not as conveniently. On-line discussions can be a supplement to, or possibly a replacement for, some of the communications that occur during office hours. They can allow a student who has had a conversation with you in your office to continue that conversation with other questions and ideas as they arise; and they can allow a student who cannot attend your office hours or who was discouraged by a long line to communicate with you in other ways.

Think of particular purposes that would be well served by electronic discussions. You might, for example, create a web-based review session before an exam. Students can submit questions to you electronically, and you can respond to them by posting an answer on the Web that will be available to all the students in your class. You can organize similar targeted discussions at any point in a course.

Consider the demands of on-line discussions in light of students' work load and time commitments. Balance any required participation with reduced demands in other areas of the course. Otherwise, you can expect students to be reluctant or resentful of the new tasks. Require or reward participation to prevent your on-line discussions from suffering the "empty restaurant syndrome" (the aura of failure that surrounds any place or project that attracts few visitors) or becoming the preserve of a small group of computer enthusiasts. Without clear guidance from the instructor about the importance of this activity, even many of your hardest-working students will decline to participate. One particularly successful strategy is to assign one or two students in the class to post a discussion question at the beginning of each week, and another student or pair of students to write a response or follow-up message at the end of the week. Integrate on-line events (student presentations, debates, interaction with outside experts or other classes) into your course schedule.

•Evaluate the skills and habits of your students. Determine whether a simple list of e-mail addresses can meet your needs. Since many students already use e-mail for personal correspondence, e-mail messages about your course have a high chance of being read. Whatever system you use, you can dramatically reduce student confusion (and time-consuming requests for assistance) by distributing a detailed handout describing how students can perform such basic tasks as sending mail to your class list, reaching your course web site, or using a conferencing system.

•Republish (with permission from the authors and in edited form) interesting or provocative dialogues on the course web page or through handouts. Having their words taken seriously in this manner will encourage student participation.

•Evaluate accessibility problems. Off-campus, technologically challenged, and physically handicapped students may require special arrangements. Find out what campus resources are available to assist these groups.

Finally, to make these technologies work in your classroom, you must make regular contributions to the electronic discussions just as you would to a face-to-face discussion. On-line discussions have to be closely monitored to ensure their intellectual usefulness and to reinforce the importance of etiquette in this relatively unfamiliar terrain. You yourself must be a participant to ensure that students take them seriously. But guard your time. Be careful not to create an on- line discussion in which every query is directed at you. Your participation is essential, but you should not allow yourself to be overwhelmed with electronic communications.

Computer technology is becoming both more useful and more cost effective for many fields of teaching. And yet only you, the teacher, can determine whether these methods will prove effective in your classroom. Whatever you decide, remember that technology complements, but does not fundamentally alter, the elements of teaching.

Literature for further reading:

1. Conditions for Language Learning. Available at: http://www.sil.org/lingualinks/languagelearning/ mangngyrlngglrnngprgrm/ConditionsForLanguageLearning.htm
2. Some Ideas for Evaluating Websites. Availableat: http://www.sccd.ctc.edu/~schu/criteria.html
3. The Tower of English. Available at: http://towerofenglish.com
4. The WebQuest Page. Available at: http://edweb.sdsu.edu/webquest/webquest.html
5. Tillyer, A. Modem Times: English Teaching Forum, 33,4, 1994. - pp. 2-9.
6. Using the ESL Standards. Available at: http://www.tesol.org/assoc/kl2standards/it/06.html
7. Using the Internet for Teaching English. Available at: http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.ip/users/kkitao/online/internet/art-use.htm

8. Warschauer, M., & Healey, D. "Computers and Language Learning: An overview." *Language Teaching*, *31*, 1998. - pp. 57-71.

Willis, J. (1998). "Task-Based Learning: What Kind of Adventure?"

Lecture 8: TEACHING READING

1. The nature of the reading process.

Reading is an exercise dominated by the eyes and the brain. The eyes receive messages and the brain then has to work out the significance of these messages. Unlike a listening text, a reading text moves at the speed of the reader (except where the reader is trying to read an advertisement that flashes past a train window). In other words, it is up to the reader to decide how fast he or she wants to (or can) read a text whereas listeners often have to do their best with a text whose speed is chosen by the speaker. The fact that reading texts are stationary is a huge advantage.

It is often difficult to convince the students of English that texts can be understood even though there are vocabulary items and structures the students have never seen before. This is the case not only for non-native speakers of English, but also for native speakers as well.

The same is true for listening, but because the reading text is static the students are often tempted to read slowly, worrying about the meaning of every particular word. And yet if they do this they will never achieve the ability to read English texts in anything but a slow and ponderous way.

Getting students to read in English is vitally important for a number of reasons: firstly, reading is a necessary skill for many, if not all, foreign language learners. Whether they are faced with tourist brochures, instruction manuals, medical textbooks or even fiction, many students will have to be able to read effectively. But reading in the foreign language is also important because it shows the written language in action. And on top of that, frequent reading exposes students to the language in a way that, if successful, helps them to acquire language itself, either consciously or subconsciously.

What is a good reading material? Not all reading texts or activities are necessarily good for students, however. It is necessary to consider both what they read and how they read it.

Most teachers would not give beginner students a novel by Ernest Hemingway or even a 'blockbuster' by Jilly Cooper to read. There would simply be too many words that the students could not understand and they would give up disheartened. On the other hand, some of the reading passages, which those students do have put in front of them, are so simple and so unlike real written English that they may not be very useful either, because they are so obviously not authentic, not like the real thing.

The reading texts that the teachers give students to work with, then, must appear to some degree authentic, even if they are specially written for students. And they must be at a level that the students can cope with, even if they do not understand every single word.

Just about any kind of reading material is usable in the English teaching classroom. Students can be shown menus and timetables, application forms and E-mails. They can read poems and narratives, newspaper articles and advertisements, letters and postcards.

What the teacher chooses to show the students will depend on four things: the students' future needs, the students' interests, the teacher's interests and the textbook they are using.

What do teachers have to do? In order to make the reading experience a success for their students teachers need to do a number of things: they need to choose the right kind of text (as we have said), but they also have to get students engaged with the topic/task and allow them, even provoke them, to predict what they are going to read.

Teachers have the ability to make potentially boring texts interesting (and vice-versa!) by the way they introduce the task. They will probably not do this by saying 'Open your books at page 26 and answer question 1 by reading the text'. It is much more likely that students will be engaged if the teacher has aroused their curiosity about what they are going to see through provocative statements or questions, looking at pictures or predicting.

One way of getting students to predict is to let them look at the text but not read it. Does it have a headline? Then it's probably from a newspaper/magazine. Is there a picture? What does that tell you about the subject matter? The subject is 'Sleep': what would you expect to find in the article? Then, when the students start reading, curious to see if their predictions are right, they are engaged at least at some level.

Lastly, and most importantly, teachers have to tell students how to read. Explain that 'you don't have to understand every word; just try to get a general picture of what the writer is saying', if that is what you want the students to do. Tell them to only look for the specific information they need if you want to give them scanning practice.

What happens when the reading is finished? Reading texts contain a great deal of language, topic information and lots of other information (in accompanying photos or maps, and through the layout of the text). It would not be sensible, therefore, to get students to read and then forget the text and move on to something else. On the contrary, reading practice should be part of an integrated teaching/learning sequence. The reading text might be preceded by a discussion and then, after the reading has taken place, used perhaps as a stimulus for a role-play or letter-writing. If the reading text contains (the possibility for) a dialogue students can be asked to act it after 'acting training'. If it is controversial they can be asked to 'reply' to it by writing to a newspaper. Part or all of the reading text can be used as a model for student writing.

It is important to plan a text-related or follow-up task to come after close reading has taken place. The students will have invested effort and time in the text. Don't waste it!

Key points. Make sure that:

•the reading text is the right level for the students;

•the reading topic has some chance of engaging the students' interest;

•the students know what kind of reading they are going to do;

•the tasks suit the text and vice versa;

•the students are involved with the topic, the language of the text and, where appropriate, the text construction;

•there is both an introduction and a follow-up to the reading text.

2. The types of reading. Techniques for teaching reading.

There are many different types of reading. We can scan an article or a time-table for the particular piece of information we want. We can skim a play review to get a 'general picture' of the reviewer's opinion. We can read in a leisurely way for pleasure, or we can read a set of instructions in order to perform a task. We can also read aloud for others. All of these reading activities are valid, of course; the job of the materials designer and the teacher is to match the activity style to the type of reading.

Matching text and task is a vital skill for teachers. Except in surreal comedy you would not expect someone to read a train timetable for pleasure, just as you would be unhappy if students insisted on skim-reading a poem by Keats, which they were supposed to be studying.

As a rule we can say that students benefit by reading for general comprehension first, and looking for details later (though of course this would not be the case for an airport announcement board, for example). If the first task the students have to deal with is relatively simple, then their anxiety is decreased, and they can approach the more difficult tasks that follow with confidence.

Understanding the message of the text is not the only use for reading material, however. We also want our students to see how texts are constructed. What language is used to give examples or make generalizations? What language devices do writers use to refer backwards and forwards? How are humour and irony conveyed and what kind of lexis signals conditions and contrasts, for example?

When students understand paragraph and text construction they have a better chance of understanding text meaning.

There are the following types of reading and the corresponding types of activities to develop the corresponding reading skills:

Skimming reading - reading to confirm expectations; reading for communicative tasks;

General reading or scanning - reading to extract specific information; reading for general understanding;

Close reading or searching reading - reading for complete understanding; reading for detailed comprehension (information; function and discourse).

Skimming reading. The following techniques are useful here to develop skills in this type of reading:

- Reading to confirm expectations. While doing exercises in this type of reading the students are involved in reading in order to confirm their expecta tions about the information they think the text will contain. These techniques to develop skills in this type of reading put great emphasis on the lead-in stage (where students are encouraged to become interested in the subject matter in the text), encourage students to predict the content of the text, and give them an in teresting and motivating purpose for reading.

In order to foster this type of reading "a reading to confirm expectation" technique is used. It is highly motivating and successful since it interests students, creates expectations and gives them purpose for reading.

- Reading for communicative tasks. A popular reading technique is the re-assembling of a text that has become disordered (jumbled text). The students can do this activity in pairs and then the teacher can ask different pairs to read the story out aloud in correct order.

General or scanning reading. The following techniques are useful here to develop skills in this type of reading:

- Reading to extract specific information. A vital feature of this type of ac tivity is that the students should see the questions or tasks they are going to answer or perform before reading the text. If they do this it will be possible for them to read in the required way: they should scan the text only to extract the information which the questions demand. The students do not have to worry about parts of the text they have difficulty with but only those that they need to extract information.

When the students have finished answering the questions they can check their answers with each other. The teacher then conducts feedback, finding out how well they did and explaining misunderstandings.

- Reading for general understanding. The students are reading the text to get the general picture of the story. Here are five standard questions that can be asked to any story to practice this type of activity: 1) What is the text about? 2)Who was it written by? 3) Who was it written for? 4) What is the writer's intention? 5) Do you like it?

Close or research reading.

-Reading for detailed comprehension: information. Performing this activity the students are asked to answer many questions, usually special ones, which require complete understanding of the text. Most texts lend themselves to detailed comprehension work. It can give students a valuable opportunity to study written English in detail and thus learn more about the topic and about how language is used.

- Reading for detailed comprehension: function and discourse. Understanding the message of the text is not the only use for reading material. We also have to make our students be able to see how texts are constructed, what language is used to give examples or make generalizations, what language devices writers use to refer backwards and forwards, how humour and irony are conveyed, etc. It is important for students to understand the way in which texts are structured (paragraphs), and to recognize the functions that are being performed.

3. Reading activities for effective top-down processing.

In one current perspective on reading comprehension, the reading process is an interaction between a reader's prior knowledge and the information encoded in the text. This theoretical framework emphasizes that the reader is an active participant who can contribute to the construction of meaning. When reading, students interpret the text in light of their previous knowledge and simultaneously modify their original schemata as new information is learned.

From this perspective, there are two simultaneous and complementary ways of processing a text: top-down and bottom-up. In top-down processing, readers use their prior knowledge to make predictions about the text. In bottom-up processing, readers rely on their knowledge of language to recognize linguistic elements - letters, words, and sentence structures - for the construction of meaning. It is logical to suppose that readers must understand the individual parts of the text before they can grasp the overall meaning; but in practice, effective readers continually adopt a top-down approach to predict the probable theme and then move to the bottom-up approach to check their assumption by reading details. This implies that in teaching reading, teachers should instruct students to start their reading by using a top-down approach and later switch between the two approaches, as each kind of interpretation supports the other.

Teachers often come across learners who report having understood each individual word and sentence in a particular paragraph of a passage, but not the main idea that paragraph conveys as a whole. Most of the students rely too much on bottom-up processing in recognizing individual words and analysing sentence - structure, but do not apply top-down processing for the overall view of the text. This may result from the lack of appropriate instruction and practice in applying reading strategies.

Many teaching techniques have been developed to activate students' prior knowledge for effective top-down processing in order to facilitate reading comprehension. Several of them have been empirically proven to be helpful, but some have not. Surprisingly, prereading vocabulary exercises, despite widespread use, do not improve overall comprehension. In fact, vocabulary study may result in a word-by-word, bottom-up approach that is detrimental to comprehension. However, there are several activities that do help. We will introduce three of them, together with certain problems that an English teacher may confront when applying them in class as well as possible solutions.

Three activities: - Semantic map.

The first activity that activates students' appropriate background knowledge of a given topic is the semantic map. The map is an organized arrangement of vocabulary concepts which reveals what students already know about the topic and provides them with a base upon which they can construct the new information learned from the text.

The teacher begins by telling students the topic they are going to read about and then asks them to make free associations with it. That is, students write down whatever words they think of when they hear the topic. Then the teacher asks students to group their associated words into categories and helps them label the categories. After reading the selection, the students may wish to revise the original map. The resulting map is the integration of students' pre-existing knowledge and their knowledge acquired from the text.

At first, students may have difficulty in categorizing free associations. The teacher can help them by conducting the discussion with the whole class. When students offer their associations, the teacher can list the responses on the black-board and discuss with the students how to put the associations into categories and what to label them. If there is more than one way to construct the relations among different concepts, the teacher may show students the different possibilities. This demonstration indicates how concepts can be organized around a topic.

After some illustrations, students can be divided into groups to carry out the discussion in teams. Interestingly, each group will usually come up with different versions, categories, and labels. The teacher may ask a representative from each group to draw the map on the board and decide if the concepts are appropriately constructed. From the demonstration, modelling, and discussion, students themselves will gradually learn how to categorize and label associations appro-priately. The same procedure can be applied to the post-reading discussion about revising the maps.

When generating associations, students are encouraged to look up new words in their dictionaries. The teacher may also consult a dictionary, preferably English-

English, to help the students determine if the meaning and usage of new words fit the topic.

The following is a brief sample of a semantic map done by students on the topic of North American Indians:

Hunting: buffalo, spear, bow and arrow

Lifestyle: nomad, riding horses, tent

Clothing: animal skin, long hair, feather

Ceremony: chief, dance, song, legend

Movie: Dances with Wolves, Pocahontas

- Questioning. Another type of top-down processing activity is questioning. Questions may be generated by the teacher or by the students and should be done before the reading, rather than after the reading. A problem in class is that not all the questions originally designed as post-reading exercises can be appropriately converted to prereading activities. For instance, a question like "What is the main idea of the second paragraph?" does not provide learners any clue to the content of the passage and fails to stimulate their prior knowledge which would enable them to make feasible predictions.

How do students generate text-related questions even before they read the passage? Our approach begins by introducing the topic of the passage that students are going to read. Once the topic is presented, students are asked to work in groups and write a list in two columns. The first column lists things about the topic that they are sure of, and the second lists things that they are not sure of or don't know.

It is suggested that each member of the group in turn volunteer a fact or question, so that no group member is neglected. Afterwards, the teacher asks a representative from each group to write one or two items from their lists on the blackboard so that some interesting items, which other groups may not have thought of, can be included.

In the reading phase, students are asked to read the text to verify what they were sure of and find the answers to questions they were not sure of. Using the list

on the board, the teacher can ask students which sentences provide evidence for their responses.

In the post-reading phase, the students are assigned tasks that consolidate their prior knowledge of the topic with information acquired from the text. For example, they may write an account of whales based on the information in their lists, or they may research the questions on their lists that have not been addressed in the text.

However, it has its practical limitations. For example, it may not be appropriate for opinion-giving text or fiction. It is best used with the text that provides factual information. Furthermore, the length of the text should be moderate, because longer passages, which usually express more complicated concepts, may open too many possibilities for the students to question. As a result, the students may spend too much time generating questions in the prereading phase, and the list of questions may be too long to handle effectively. One possible solution to this problem is for the teacher to divide the text into sections and implement the approach section by section.

Another problem may occur when students generate statements and questions about the topic. This stage clearly requires a range of topic-related vocabulary and adequate writing competence. For the vocabulary problem, the same dictionary solution suggested for the semantic map can be adopted. When it comes to writing, if learners are not competent enough to produce correct sentences to reflect their ideas, they are allowed to write them in their native language. This writing does not focus on mechanics but gives priority to idea development for activating and developing background knowledge.

- Previewing. The aim of previewing is to help readers predict or make some educated guesses about what is in the text and thus activate effective top-down processing for reading comprehension. Several stimuli in a text, such as the title, photographs, illustrations, or subtitles, are usually closely connected to the author's ideas and content. So, based on any of them, students can make predictions about the content of the text.

Example 1. You are going to read a passage about a woman's encounter with a bear while hiking in an American national park. Before reading, answer the following questions:

(d)Do bears live in the wild in your country? What kind of bears?

(e)How would you feel if you met a bear while hiking?

(f)What do you think we should do if we encounter a bear in the wild? Example 2. You are going to read a passage about a man's bad experience

on a camping trip in the north of England. Before reading, do the following exercises:

(c)Write down five problems the man could have had when he was camping.

(d)Look at the title of the passage and the list of words. What do you think might have happened?

TITLE: "Our Terrible New Year".

WORDS (in order): holiday, happy, drove, far, camped, beautiful, night, freezing, snow, morning, engine trouble, help, no phone, ran, ice, slipped, cut, disaster.

To make more specific predictions, however, students obviously need more guidance. The following guidelines can help:

4.Ask the students to read the title of the article. Do they know anything about this subject?

5.Have the students read the first few paragraphs, which generally introduce the topics discussed in the text. Can they determine the general themes of the text?

6.Then ask them to read the first sentence of each paragraph, usually the topic sentence, which gives the main idea of the paragraph. Can they determine the major points of the article?

4. Read the last paragraph, which often reveals the conclusion of the author. Have the students discuss how the author organizes the information to present his point of view.

The students then read the entire article for more detailed information. Since they already have an overview of the text, they can understand the rest of the information much more easily.

The successful application of previewing depends on the presence of certain conventional features of English writing, namely, topic sentences and paragraphs of introduction and conclusion. However, not all kinds of texts have these rhetorical features. Often, an expository passage follows the pattern more closely and therefore is more suitable for the steps described above.

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Lecture 9: ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE STUDENTS

1. What is assessment in teaching English.

Assessment may be defined as "any method used to better understand the current knowledge that a student possesses." This implies that assessment can be as simple as a teacher's subjective judgement based on a single observation of student performance, or as complex as a five-hour standardized test. The idea of current knowledge implies that what a student knows is always changing and that we can make judgements about student achievement through comparisons over a period of time. Assessment may affect decisions about grades, advancement, placement, instructional needs, and curriculum.

Assessment is the process of gathering information about a student in order • to make decisions about this or her education. One kind of assessment procedure is testing. In elementary and secondary schools, tests are given routinely to measure the extent to which we profit from instruction. We may have taken intelligence, aptitude, interest, personality tests or any number of other kinds of tests. Testing means presenting a person with a set of questions or tasks in order to obtain a measure of performance often represented by a score. The score is intended to help answer questions and produce information about the person tested.

Increasingly, educators are finding new ways to evaluate students' school performances using informal rather than formal, or standardized, assessment procedures. Collection of information by means of observation is often thought of as informal assessment, as is information gathered from interviews with parents or past teachers and by using teacher-constructed tests.

Since the influence of testing on curriculum and instruction is now widely acknowledged, educators, policymakers, and others are turning to alternative assessment methods as a tool for educational reform. The movement away from traditional, multiple-choice tests to alternative assessments - variously called authentic assessment or performance assessment - has included a wide variety of

strategies such as open-ended questions, exhibits, demonstrations, hands-on execution of experiments, computer simulations, writing in many disciplines, and portfolios of student work over time. These terms and assessment strategies have led the quest for more meaningful assessments which better capture the significant outcomes we want students to achieve and better match the kinds of tasks which they will need to accomplish in order to assure their future success.

Teachers as decision makers strive to make a close match between curriculum objectives, instructional methods, and assessment techniques. The evaluation process carried out parallel to instruction is a cyclical one that involves four phases: preparation, assessment, evaluation, and reflection.

In the **preparation phase,** teachers decide what is to be evaluated, the type of evaluation to be used (diagnostic, formative, or summative), the criteria upon which student learning outcomes will be judged, and the most appropriate assessment techniques for gathering information on student progress. Teachers may make these decisions in collaboration with students.

During the **assessment phase,** teachers select appropriate tools and techniques, then collect and collate information on student progress. Teachers must determine where, when, and how assessments will be conducted, and students must be consulted and informed.

During the **evaluation phase,** teachers interpret the assessment information and make judgements about student progress. These judgements (or evaluation) provide information upon which teachers base decisions about student learning and report progress to students and parents/guardians. Students are encouraged to monitor their own learning by evaluating their achievements on a regular basis. Encouraging students to participate in evaluation nurtures gradual acceptance of responsibility for their own progress and helps them understand and appreciate their growth.

The **reflection phase** allows teachers to consider the extent to which the previous phases in the evaluation process have been successful. Specifically, teachers evaluate the utility, equity, and appropriateness of the assessment tech-

niques used. Such reflection assists teachers in making decisions concerning improvements or adaptations to subsequent instruction and evaluation.

2. **Characteristics of good assessment.**

Good assessment information provides accurate estimates of student performance and enables teachers or other decision makers to make appropriate decisions. The concept of test *validity* captures these essential characteristics and the extent that an assessment actually measures what it is intended to measure, and permits appropriate generalizations about students' skills and abilities. For example, a ten-item addition/subtraction test might be administered to a student who answers nine items correctly. If the test is valid, we can safely generalize that the student will likely do as well on similar items not included on the test. The results of a good test or assessment, in short, represent something beyond how students perform on a certain task or a particular set of items; they represent how a student performs on the objective which those items were intended to assess.

Measurement experts agree that test validity is tied to the purposes for which an assessment is used. Thus, a test might be valid for one purpose but inappropriate for other purposes. For example, our mathematics test might be appropriate for assessing students' mastery of addition and subtraction facts but inappropriate for identifying students who are gifted in mathematics. Evidence of validity needs to be gathered for each purpose for which an assessment is used.

A second important characteristic of good assessment information is its *consistency*, or *reliability*. Will the assessment results for this person or class be similar if they are gathered at some other time or under different circumstances or if they are scored by different raters? For example, if you ask someone what his/her age is on three separate occasions and in three different locations and the answer is the same each time, then that information is considered reliable. In the context of performance-based and open-ended assessment, inter-rater reliability also is essential; it requires that independent raters give the same scores to a given student response.

Other characteristics of good assessment for classroom purposes:

-The content of the tests (the knowledge and skills assessed) should match the teacher's educational objectives and instructional emphasis.

-The test items should represent the full range of knowledge and skills that are the primary targets of instruction.

-Expectations for student performance should be clear.

-The assessment should be free of extraneous factors which unnecessarily confuse student responses. (For example, unclear directions and contorted questions may confuse a student and confound his/her ability to demonstrate the skills which are intended for assessment.

3. Testing writing.

Testing each skill is uniquely difficult, but testing writing presents two particular problems. The first is making decisions about the matter of control, objectivity of the evaluation, and naturalness in the writing test. If you decide to test writing in a controlled way and in a way that can be graded objectively, you must do so in a way that does not necessarily reflect how the writing is used by the students in the real world. If, on the other hand, you test writing in a way that would reflect how the students use writing in the real world, it is difficult to have control over the writing and to evaluate the student's work objectively.

The second major problem with testing writing is, if the test is done in a way that it cannot be graded objectively, it is necessary to develop a scale that allows it to be graded as objectively as possible. How this is done is one of the great difficulties of testing writing.

Components of writing.

The ability to write involves at least six component skills. They are:

- grammatical ability. This is the ability to write English in grammatically correct sentences.
- lexical ability. The ability to choose words that are correct and used appropriately.
- mechanical ability. The ability to correctly use punctuation, spelling, capitalization, etc.

- stylistic skills. The ability to use sentences and paragraphs appropriately.
- organizational skills. The ability to organize written work according to the conventions of English, including the order and selection of material.
- judgements of appropriacy. The ability to make judgements about what is appropriate depending on the task, the purpose of the writing, and the audience.

Perhaps the most difficult—and most important—of these skills is the last. Native English speakers develop a sense of what is appropriate in different writing situations (though they may be taught to use specialized registers, such as academic English or business English). Registers of English range from very informal forms such as colloquialisms, slang, and jargon to standard English to more formal forms, such as the language used for business letters, legal documents, and academic papers. Writers must be aware of these differences and learn to follow the conventions of different situations. A writing test needs to take these skills into account.

Types of writing tasks.

-*Gap filling.* One of the most controlled ways of testing writing is gap filling. Testees are presented with a passage with blanks, and they fill in the blanks. This is a mixture of both reading and writing skills, which is sometimes a problem, because it makes it difficult to decide what the scores really mean. However, with lower level students, it might be the only reasonable test of productive ability.

-*Form completion.* Another controlled way of testing writing is to have the testees fill out a form, for example, an application. The advantage of such a task is that it is at least somewhat communicative, but the disadvantage is that it does not require any connected discourse or any use of language greater than lexical knowledge and a small amount of grammar.

-*Making corrections.* In some situations, testees are presented with a short piece of writing which has deliberate grammar, punctuation and spelling errors, and they are asked to correct the errors. While this task does something which is related to one thing that people do when they write—editing—and it is objectively corrected, but it does not represent the writing task as a whole.

- *Letter writing.* Letter writing is a common task for writing tests. The stimulus for the letter may be a situation that is explained in the instructions, a letter to which the testees are instructed to respond, information given in chart or graph form that is to be summarized in the testees' letter, pictures or drawings that give information about a situation the testees are expected to write a letter about, etc. In all of these possibilities, the tester must keep in mind that the situation must be as clear as possible for the testee, unless there is an intention to test reading and writing together. If the testee does not understand, for example, a letter that he/she is expected to respond to, it will be impossible to get a sample of writing to evaluate.

- *Essay writing.* Essay writing is probably one of the more common writing tasks, but it should be used carefully. If the future situation of the students will not include writing essays, the fester should carefully consider whether it is the best test of the students' writing ability.

Motivation, The tester should consider the issue of motivation. Will the topic motivate students of the age, sex, field of study, background, etc., of the testees to write? It is often difficult to find a topic that will motivate all students equally. Some testers choose the strategy of choosing a subject that none of the students is likely to be motivated by. If none of the students is motivated, they will at least be on equal footing. The problem with this approach is that it may be difficult for students to do their best at showing their writing skill if they are not motivated by the topic.

Breadth. The topic needs to be broad enough that every testee can approach it from some angle. If the topic is too narrow, the testees have little flexibility in their approach to it and may not have an opportunity to show their writing proficiency.

Allowing students to choose topics. In some cases, students are allowed to choose from a list of topics. This raises difficulties in the reliability of the grading, so unless skill in choosing a topic is an ability being tested, this is not recommended.

Choice oftask(s).

Connected discourse. The task should require testees to write a piece of connected discourse. While there may be valid arguments for testing the writing of

beginning students by having them just fill in blanks, once students are beyond the beginning stage, their writing proficiency should not be tested by having them translate from their native language or fill in blanks.

Realistic task. The task that is chosen should reflect the type of writing that the testee is required to do in the real world. If the test is for students who will be going to English-medium universities, an appropriate task would be having students write an essay on an academic topic. Tasks which the testee would not usually perform in English would not be appropriate.

Clarity. The testees should be presented with a clearly defined task that cannot easily be misinterpreted. Pre-testing helps insure that the instructions are clear and that the testees can carry out the task based on them.

Modes of discourse. The test tasks should involve a mode or modes of discourse that are appropriate to the actual writing needs of the students. If necessary, the testees should be given more than one task so that they can demonstrate their mastery of different modes of discourse. In fact, a recent trend is to evaluate students, where possible, on different types of material that they have produced over a long period of time, rather than over one piece of writing on a particular occasion.

The number of tasks. The test should involve more than one task, which will give an adequate sample of the testees' writing for evaluation. As mentioned above, different types of writing will also give a broader view of the students' writing skills.

Level of difficulty. The teacher should carefully consider the difficulty of the test. Like any other test, if a writing test presents a task that is too easy or too difficult, if the instructions are difficult to understand, etc., the responses that testees give will not reflect their true ability, either because the task is not challenging enough for their ability or because it is so difficult that they do not know how to respond. Pre-testing with a similar group is useful in determining the right level of difficulty.

Time allowed. The teacher should carefully consider the time allowed for the test. If insufficient time is allowed, the students do not have a chance to show what they can do, particularly on a test where the organization of a piece of writing is assessed. However, there may be cases, such as writing an essay for an examination, where the task that the student needs to be able to do in the real world will have restrictions on time, so in some cases, it is appropriate to limit the time allowed.

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PRACTICAL LESSON

Task. Read the following information about test designing and design two tests: one should deal with the testing of language habits (grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation); another - with the testing of speech skills (listening, speaking, reading or writing).

TEST DESIGN

Validity and reliability.

When making a test, there are two basic factors to consider- validity and reliability.

Validity. Validity can be defined as the degree to which a test actually tests what it is intended to. If the purpose of a test is to test ability to communicate in English, then it is valid if it does actually test ability to communicate. If what it is testing is actually knowledge of grammar, then it is not a valid test for testing ability to communicate.

This definition has two very important aspects. The first is that validity is a matter of degree. Tests are not either valid or not valid. There are degrees of validity, and some tests are more valid than others. A second important aspect of this definition is that tests are only valid or invalid in terms of their intended use. If a test is intended to test reading ability, but it also tests writing, then it may not be valid for testing reading—but it may test reading and writing together.

Types of validity

Validity is divided into different types. Broadly it is divided into internal and external validity.

Internal validity. Internal validity is validity in terms of the test itself—whether the content of the test and the way the test is carried out allows it to test what it is intended to. There are two types of internal validity-face validity and content validity. Face validity is the extent to which a test looks like it will test what it is intended to. It is the opinion of non-experts about what a test is really getting at. While their opinion is not expert, it can be important, because it is the kind of response that you can get from the people who are taking the test. If a test does not appear to be valid to the test takers, they may not do their best, so the perceptions of non-experts are useful.

Content validity is the opinion of experts as to whether a test is valid. The experts should look at whether the test is representative of the skills you are trying to test. This involves looking at the syllabus, in the case of an achievement test, and the test specifications and deciding what the test was intended to test and

whether it accomplishes what it is intended to. The problem is that even experts may disagree over the validity of a test, particularly if they are not given a systematic way of looking at it. However, even looking at a test systematically does not guarantee that all the experts will agree.

External validity. External validity has to do with the relationship between the test and other measures. There are two types of external validity—concurrent validity and predictive validity. Concurrent validity is the degree to which a test correlates with other tests testing the same thing. In other words, if a test is valid, it should give a similar result to other measures that are valid for the same purpose. When considering concurrent validity, there are several concerns. First, the measure that is being used for comparison of the test in question must be valid. If the measure is not valid, there is no point in testing another test's validity against it. For example, teacher's ranking might be used to test validity-but the teacher's ranking may be affected by a number of factors that are not related to the students' actual proficiency. One possible solution is to average the rankings of several teachers to compensate for this.

Second, the measure must be valid for the same purpose as the test whose validity is being considered. A reading test cannot be used to test the concurrent validity of a grammar test. In addition, if teachers' rankings are being used, it is necessary to make certain that they understand on what basis they are expected to rank the students. If the test being considered is a grammar test, then the teacher's should be asked to rank the students according to their grammar proficiency, not their overall English language ability.

Predictive validity is the extent to which the test in question can be used to make predictions about future performance. For example, does a test of English ability accurately predict how well students will get along in a university in an English-speaking country? There are a number of problems with trying to answer such questions. Measures of how well a student does at a university are sometimes used to measure predictive validity, but the problem is that there are many factors other than English proficiency involved in academic success. In addition, it is not

possible to know whether the students who scored low on the tests and therefore did not get to go to the university would have done if they had been allowed to go.

Reliability

There are two types of reliability. Test-retest reliability is the extent to which the test achieves the same result time after time. For example, if a ruler is used to measure a piece of paper, it should get the same result every time. Therefore a ruler is a reliable measure.

The other type of reliability is inter-item consistency. Inter-item consistency is the extent to which all the items on the test are measuring the same thing.

Test-retest reliability. Determining test-retest reliability is not a simple matter. There are various ways of trying to measure it, but each of them has potential problems.

- Test-retest. One way of measuring reliability is to give the students the same test twice to the same group of students. However, if a test is given twice, particularly if there is not much time between the two tests, the students might do better the second time due to a practice effect. On the other hand, if there is a longer time between the two tests, the practice effect is not as likely to be important, but it may be that with the passage of time, students' English proficiency has improved.

- Parallel groups. Another way to be determine reliability is to have two parallel groups take the same test. The problem is determining whether the two groups are truly parallel.

- Parallel tests. Reliability can also be measured by giving parallel tests, that is, two similar tests with the same type and number of items, the same instructions, etc. The problem with this approach is determining whether the two tests are actually parallel.

Inter-item consistency. Inter-item consistency is usually determined using statistical tests.

Split-half. Another way of measuring inter-item consistency is to randomly assign test items to two groups and compare the results of the two groups. Of

course, it is still possible that the tests will not be parallel. In addition, because the individual tests are shorter, they will be less reliable, which needs to be compensated for statistically, that is by calculating how reliable the test would have been with twice the number of items.

The relationship between validity and reliability.

Validity and reliability have a complicated relationship. If a test is valid, it must also be reliable. A test that gives different results at different times cannot be valid. However, it is possible for a test to be reliable without being valid. That is, a test can give the same result time after time but not be measuring what it was intended to measure.

Some common problems with test items.

There are certain problems that typically come up in test items or types of tests. Writing a perfect test item is difficult or impossible, and you cannot necessarily avoid all problems. However, being aware of some of the common problems will help you avoid them or compensate for them in other ways, or at least to take the issue into account in evaluating the results.

Grammar items

1. (an item intended to test the present perfect)

Write a sentence containing "since."

1) _____

In this case, the item may not elicit the present perfect. There are other uses of "since," and the testees may not produce the intended form. Another way of eliciting the present perfect is to give the testees a sentence where it is necessary, along with the verb, and have them change the verb to the correct form. Whenever you write an item that requires testees to produce something, there is a possibility that what they produce will not be what you intended. It is very important to either pretest the item to see what sorts of interpretations testees have of the or at least to have some other people try to answer the item.

2.I feel like I for days.

e. had been awake

f. have not been awake

g. have been awake

h. has been awake

When writing multiple choice questions, it is natural to make one of the distracters an opposite of the correct answer. Therefore, experienced test takers tend to assume that if there are two opposites among the alternatives, one of them is probably correct. This is something that should be avoided in all types of multiple choice items, not just grammar items. For a similar reason, you should avoid incorrect items that have the same or similar meanings. Experienced test takers realize that if there are two items with similar meanings, they must both be wrong, which eliminates them from being possible answers.

Vocabulary

Choose the word that has the same meaning as the given word.

1. catastrophe

e. cataract

f. conservation

g. contiguous

h. calamity

In this case the alternative that testees are asked to choose from are as difficult, if not more difficult than, the word that is being tested. The testees might know "catastrophe" but not "calamity" and thus would miss the item even though they knew the meaning of the word being tested. In the case of vocabulary items as well as other types of multiple choice questions, it is important that the alternatives be easy to understand so that it is the head word, the content of the reading, etc., that is being tested, not the ability to understand the alternatives.

2. Use each word in a sentence that shows that you understand the meaning

of the word:

government

industry

negotiations

This test item really tests two things—the testees' knowledge of the meaning of these words and their ability to write sentences that display that knowledge. Even for a native English speaker, the latter could be quite difficult. While it is useful to have the testees deal with the word in context, the problem with this approach is that the testees may understand the word perfectly well but not be able to make a sentence that shows its meaning.

Pronunciation

Which two words are the odd ones out? Consider the vowel sounds.

f. fail

g. male

h. land

i. reign

j. beak

This is intended to be a test of ability to pronounce, but studies have shown that there are no correlations between ability to do well on pencil-and-paper tests and ability to actually pronounce English. Therefore, this is not a good pronunciation tests.

Functions

Circle the letter of the function that each utterance serves.

Mike: Hey, give me back my coat.

E. command

F. complaint

G. accusation

H. request

In this case, there is more than one possible correct answer. Since the utterance is in the imperative form, it is probably a command though, depending on the context, it is possible that it is a request). However, it may also have the function of being an accusation (implying that the hearer took the coat without the speaker's permission) or a complaint (for taking the coat without permission). This item

demonstrates two possible problems. First, when using multiple choice questions, it is very important to provide only one right answer. It is necessary in writing multiple choice questions to try them out on students in advance, if possible, or, at minimum to have another person read the test and make judgements about whether there are any questions that have more than one answer. Second, utterances can serve more than one function, and it may be difficult to tell which one is intended, especially if the utterance is not presented in context.

Reading

1. (After a text on how Japan and the U.S. are different)

One way in which the United States and Japan are different is

e. Japan is a smaller country.

f. The U.S. has a more hetrogeneous population.

g. c There are more people in the U.S.

h. d. Japan has a longer history.

Based on general knowledge, all of these answers are correct. It should be emphasized in the question itself or in the instructions for all of the questions that testees should answer the questions based on the information in the reading passage. Even so, this type of question might be difficult for lower level testees, because it might be difficult for the testees to distinguish between what they know and what they have read, so it might be best to avoid it when making tests for lower level tests.

In writing multiple choice items, it is very important to write good correct and incorrect alternatives. The correct alternative in a multiple choice question should not come directly from the text. It should be re-worded, so that the testees have to understand the meaning of the text and they cannot just identify the repeated words. Incorrect alternatives should be based on a possible misunderstanding of the text. They should be clearly incorrect, but not illogical. If they are illogical, the testees will eliminate them, even if they do not understand the text. The problem in writing good multiple choice items is often that it is difficult to write three or four good alternatives that are both logical and clearly incorrect.

When writing multiple choice questions, you should avoid giving the testees clues to the correct answer in the way you write the alternatives. For example, there is a tendency for the correct answer to be much longer or much shorter than the other alternatives, so it is best if the alternatives are nearly the same length. Test item writers have a tendency to put the correct answer in the middle, that is, if there are four items, to make the correct item either B or C, or if there are five items to make it C. You should make sure that the correct answers are not predominately in the middle of the alternatives. As mentioned above, you should also avoid using the opposites of the correct alternative as an incorrect alternative, and you should avoid using two incorrect alternatives with very similar meanings.

2. Smallville is 82 miles from Metropolis, and it takes three hours and fifteen minutes by bus, including a thirty minute stop for lunch at Kayville. (If the bus arrives in Kayville before noon or after 1:00, the bus only stops twenty minutes for a snack.) One day, a bus left Smallville at 11:00 a.m. and had a flat tire five miles after leaving Kayville. The driver had to walk ten minutes to a telephone to call the bus company, it took the repair crew thirty minutes to get to the bus and ten minutes to fix the tire. At what time did the bus arrive in Metropolis?

The problem with using this type of item as a reading test is that the testees may understand the content of the reading perfectly but not be able to answer the question, because they do not understand how to solve the puzzle. When writing reading items (or any other type of item), you need to carefully consider what skills or knowledge are necessary to answer the question. If a skill other than the one you want to test is necessary, that type of item is probably not a good item.

3. Read the passage and each statement that follows it. For each statement, indicate whether, according to the reading passage, it is true (T), false (F) or whether there is insufficient information to answer the question (I).

In a course I took at junior high school in Los Angeles, we discussed such problems as world hunger and homelessness, because those were problems that we thought were among the most important world issues at the time....

T FI 1. The students discussed important world issues.

T F12. The students in this class were 18 years old.

T FI 3. The students always discussed the topics they wanted to discuss.

T F I 4. The students discussed such problems as world hunger and homelessness.

The answer to the second question is clearly "false" - but this comes from a combination of cultural knowledge and what is in the text. The testees must know that students in American junior high schools are usually between the ages of 12 and 16, or they cannot answer the question correctly. Again, when writing a test, you need to be careful of questions that require information outside of the text, information that some testees might lack to be answered.

The third question uses the word "always." Since statements with words like "always" or "never" tend to be false (or at least insufficient information), they should be avoided. The fourth question uses the same wording as the original text. Testees might be able to answer the question by matching the words in the text and the words in the question, without understanding the meaning. Therefore, the wording in a true/false item or a multiple choice item should be different from the wording of the passage being tested and, if possible, should be based on a potential misunderstanding of the meaning of the text.

Like multiple choice items, false statements should be based on some possible misunderstanding of the text. True statements should not be worded exactly like the text, so that testees cannot just match the words with the question with the words in the text.

When writing true/false items, you should avoid words like "always" and "never." Items with these words are almost always false, and experienced testees know that.

TEST DESIGN

Validity and reliability.

When making a test, there are two basic factors to consider- validity and reliability.

Validity. Validity can be defined as the degree to which a test actually tests what it is intended to. If the purpose of a test is to test ability to communicate in English, then it is valid if it does actually test ability to communicate. If what it is testing is actually knowledge of grammar, then it is not a valid test for testing ability to communicate.

This definition has two very important aspects. The first is that validity is a matter of degree. Tests are not either valid or not valid. There are degrees of validity, and some tests are more valid than others. A second important aspect of this definition is that tests are only valid or invalid in terms of their intended use. If a test is intended to test reading ability, but it also tests writing, then it may not be valid for testing reading—but it may test reading and writing together.

Types of validity

Validity is divided into different types. Broadly it is divided into internal and external validity.

Internal validity. Internal validity is validity in terms of the test itself—whether the content of the test and the way the test is carried out allows it to test what it is intended to. There are two types of internal validity-face validity and content validity. Face validity is the extent to which a test looks like it will test what it is intended to. It is the opinion of non-experts about what a test is really getting at. While their opinion is not expert, it can be important, because it is the kind of response that you can get from the people who are taking the test. If a test does not appear to be valid to the test takers, they may not do their best, so the perceptions of non-experts are useful.

Content validity is the opinion of experts as to whether a test is valid. The experts should look at whether the test is representative of the skills you are trying

to test. This involves looking at the syllabus, in the case of an achievement test, and the test specifications and deciding what the test was intended to test and whether it accomplishes what it is intended to. The problem is that even experts may disagree over the validity of a test, particularly if they are not given a systematic way of looking at it. However, even looking at a test systematically does not guarantee that all the experts will agree.

External validity. External validity has to do with the relationship between the test and other measures. There are two types of external validity—concurrent validity and predictive validity. Concurrent validity is the degree to which a test correlates with other tests testing the same thing. In other words, if a test is valid, it should give a similar result to other measures that are valid for the same purpose. When considering concurrent validity, there are several concerns. First, the measure that is being used for comparison of the test in question must be valid. If the measure is not valid, there is no point in testing another test's validity against it. For example, teacher's ranking might be used to test validity-but the teacher's ranking may be affected by a number of factors that are not related to the students' actual proficiency. One possible solution is to average the rankings of several teachers to compensate for this.

Second, the measure must be valid for the same purpose as the test whose validity is being considered. A reading test cannot be used to test the concurrent validity of a grammar test. In addition, if teachers' rankings are being used, it is necessary to make certain that they understand on what basis they are expected to rank the students. If the test being considered is a grammar test, then the teacher's should be asked to rank the students according to their grammar proficiency, not their overall English language ability.

Predictive validity is the extent to which the test in question can be used to make predictions about future performance. For example, does a test of English ability accurately predict how well students will get along in a university in an English-speaking country? There are a number of problems with trying to answer such questions. Measures of how well a student does at a university are sometimes

used to measure predictive validity, but the problem is that there are many factors other than English proficiency involved in academic success. In addition, it is not possible to know whether the students who scored low on the tests and therefore did not get to go to the university would have done if they had been allowed to go.

Reliability

There are two types of reliability. Test-retest reliability is the extent to which the test achieves the same result time after time. For example, if a ruler is used to measure a piece of paper, it should get the same result every time. Therefore a ruler is a reliable measure.

The other type of reliability is inter-item consistency. Inter-item consistency is the extent to which all the items on the test are measuring the same thing.

Test-retest reliability. Determining test-retest reliability is not a simple matter. There are various ways of trying to measure it, but each of them has potential problems.

- Test-retest. One way of measuring reliability is to give the students the same test twice to the same group of students. However, if a test is given twice, particularly if there is not much time between the two tests, the students might do better the second time due to a practice effect. On the other hand, if there is a longer time between the two tests, the practice effect is not as likely to be important, but it may be that with the passage of time, students' English proficiency has improved.

- Parallel groups. Another way to be determine reliability is to have two parallel groups take the same test. The problem is determining whether the two groups are truly parallel.

- Parallel tests. Reliability can also be measured by giving parallel tests, that is, two similar tests with the same type and number of items, the same instructions, etc. The problem with this approach is determining whether the two tests are actually parallel.

Inter-item consistency. Inter-item consistency is usually determined using statistical tests.

Split-half. Another way of measuring inter-item consistency is to randomly assign test items to two groups and compare the results of the two groups. Of course, it is still possible that the tests will not be parallel. In addition, because the individual tests are shorter, they will be less reliable, which needs to be compensated for statistically, that is by calculating how reliable the test would have been with twice the number of items.

The relationship between validity and reliability.

Validity and reliability have a complicated relationship. If a test is valid, it must also be reliable. A test that gives different results at different times cannot be valid. However, it is possible for a test to be reliable without being valid. That is, a test can give the same result time after time but not be measuring what it was intended to measure.

Some common problems with test items.

There are certain problems that typically come up in test items or types of tests. Writing a perfect test item is difficult or impossible, and you cannot necessarily avoid all problems. However, being aware of some of the common problems will help you avoid them or compensate for them in other ways, or at least to take the issue into account in evaluating the results.

Grammar items

1. (an item intended to test the present perfect)

Write a sentence containing "since."

1) _____

In this case, the item may not elicit the present perfect. There are other uses of "since," and the testees may not produce the intended form. Another way of eliciting the present perfect is to give the testees a sentence where it is necessary, along with the verb, and have them change the verb to the correct form. Whenever you write an item that requires testees to produce something, there is a possibility that what they produce will not be what you intended. It is very important to either pretest the item to see what sorts of interpretations testees have of the or at least to have some other people try to answer the item.

2.1 feel like I for days.

i. had been awake

j. have not been awake

k. have been awake

l. has been awake

When writing multiple choice questions, it is natural to make one of the distracters an opposite of the correct answer. Therefore, experienced test takers tend to assume that if there are two opposites among the alternatives, one of them is probably correct. This is something that should be avoided in all types of multiple choice items, not just grammar items. For a similar reason, you should avoid incorrect items that have the same or similar meanings. Experienced test takers realize that if there are two items with similar meanings, they must both be wrong, which eliminates them from being possible answers.

Vocabulary

Choose the word that has the same meaning as the given word.

1. catastrophe

i. cataract

j. conservation

k. contiguous

l. calamity

In this case the alternative that testees are asked to choose from are as difficult, if not more difficult than, the word that is being tested. The testees might know "catastrophe" but not "calamity" and thus would miss the item even though they knew the meaning of the word being tested. In the case of vocabulary items as well as other types of multiple choice questions, it is important that the alternatives be easy to understand so that it is the head word, the content of the reading, etc., that is being tested, not the ability to understand the alternatives.

2. Use each word in a sentence that shows that you understand the meaning

of the word:

government

industry

negotiations

This test item really tests two things—the testees' knowledge of the meaning of these words and their ability to write sentences that display that knowledge. Even for a native English speaker, the latter could be quite difficult. While it is useful to have the testees deal with the word in context, the problem with this approach is that the testees may understand the word perfectly well but not be able to make a sentence that shows its meaning.

Pronunciation

Which two words are the odd ones out? Consider the vowel sounds.

k. fail

l. male

m. land

n. reign

o. beak

This is intended to be a test of ability to pronounce, but studies have shown that there are no correlations between ability to do well on pencil-and-paper tests and ability to actually pronounce English. Therefore, this is not a good pronunciation tests.

Functions

Circle the letter of the function that each utterance serves.

Mike: Hey, give me back my coat.

I. command

J. complaint

K. accusation

L. request

In this case, there is more than one possible correct answer. Since the utterance is in the imperative form, it is probably a command though, depending on the context, it is possible that it is a request). However, it may also have the function of

being an accusation (implying that the hearer took the coat without the speaker's permission) or a complaint (for taking the coat without permission). This item demonstrates two possible problems. First, when using multiple choice questions, it is very important to provide only one right answer. It is necessary in writing multiple choice questions to try them out on students in advance, if possible, or, at minimum to have another person read the test and make judgements about whether there are any questions that have more than one answer. Second, utterances can serve more than one function, and it may be difficult to tell which one is intended, especially if the utterance is not presented in context.

Reading

1. (After a text on how Japan and the U.S. are different)

One way in which the United States and Japan are different is

i. Japan is a smaller country.

j. The U.S. has a more hetrogeneous population.

k. c There are more people in the U.S.

l. d. Japan has a longer history.

Based on general knowledge, all of these answers are correct. It should be emphasized in the question itself or in the instructions for all of the questions that testees should answer the questions based on the information in the reading passage. Even so, this type of question might be difficult for lower level testees, because it might be difficult for the testees to distinguish between what they know and what they have read, so it might be best to avoid it when making tests for lower level tests.

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