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METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN GENERAL SECONDARY SCHOOL

A Compendium of Lectures

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Конспект лекцій із дисципліни «Методика викладання іноземної мови та літератури в закладах загальної середньої освіти» містить лекційні матеріали, що узагальнюють теоретичні відомості про традиційні й інноваційні методи та засоби навчання, і практичні стратегії, прийоми та техніки навчання іноземним мовам. Лекційні матеріали містять огляд нормативної документації; особливостей організації навчання англійській мові в контексті навчання літературі в початковій / базовій середній / профільній середній школах.

Для здобувачів вищої освіти денної та заочної форм навчання першого (бакалаврського) та другого (магістерського) рівнів вищої освіти спеціальності «014 Середня освіта (Мова і література (англійська))» факультету іноземної філології Волинського національного університету імені Лесі Українки та студентів інших закладів вищої освіти зацікавлених запропонованою тематикою.

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Конспект лекцій із дисципліни «Методика викладання іноземної мови та літератури в закладах загальної середньої освіти» призначено для студентів денної та заочної форм навчання першого (бакалаврського) та другого (магістерського) рівнів вищої освіти спеціальності «014 Середня освіта (Мова і література (англійська))» факультету іноземної філології Волинського національного університету імені Лесі Українки та студентів інших закладів вищої освіти зацікавлених запропонованою тематикою.

Лекційні матеріали мають на меті окреслити нормативні документи, що регулюють освітній процес в закладах загальної середньої освіти, ознайомити із традиційними та новаторськими методами викладання іноземних мов і літератури при безпосередньому (очному) та опосередкованому (дистанційному) навчанні, встановлення особливостей організації уроків для здобувачів освіти в початковій, базовій середній та профільній середній школах.

Лекційний курс нормативної дисципліни «Методика викладання іноземної мови та літератури в закладах загальної середньої освіти» допомагає студентам усвідомити взаємозв'язок та вплив лінгвістичних, психологічних та педагогічних основ у процесі навчання іноземним мовам і літературі; відмежовувати компоненти та етапи уроку при плануванні занять на кожному етапі навчання в закладах загальної середньої освіти; коректно формулювати очікувані результати при навчанні іншомовному матеріалу; обирати та поєднувати інтерактивні способи організації навчальної діяльності в НУШ; забезпечувати гармонійне поєднання рецептивних, продуктивних та інтеракційних видів мовленнєвої діяльності в процесі навчання іноземним мовам і літературі; опанувати методики та способи організації навчальної діяльності при дистанційному навчанні. Кожна лекція мітить повний і вичерпний перелік рекомендованих джерел літератури.

PREFACE

The teaching aid “Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language in General Secondary School” is for both full-time students and part-time students of the Foreign Philology Faculty. Its main purpose is to share the information concerning some major theoretical and practical issues in the sphere of methods and training techniques.

The teaching aid assists in handling such key notions as governing regulatory documents in the sphere of education; linguistic, psychological and educative peculiarities for teaching foreign languages and literature; the phenomenon of critical thinking; the 21st century skills; traditional and innovative methods and techniques of teaching; distance learning platforms; the perspectives of literary schooling, the educational programmes for primary, basic secondary, and field-specific secondary school. Each lecture is accompanied with an extensive set of references to provide clues for finding any further information if necessary.

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"The difference between school and life? In school, you're taught a lesson and then given a test. In life, you're given a test that teaches you a lesson."

Tom Bodett

I) THE LAW OF UKRAINE "*ON EDUCATION*" AS A FRAMEWORK DOCUMENT OF THE NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

On September 5, 2017 the Parliament of Ukraine adopted the Law "On Education" – a framework document that is a basis for the reform of the national system of education. The Law establishes new approaches to the organization of educational process in schools, in particular the use of languages of instruction. The Law consists of 12 parts comprising 83 articles in general. The Law "On Education" represents general provisions, outlines the structure of education and institutions of education, clarifies educational standards, educational programmes, qualifications and documents about education, guarantees quality assurance in education, defines the matters concerning both the participants of the educational process and education, professional development and remuneration of educational and academic workers. It deals with the issues of management and control in educational sphere, describes educational infrastructure, regulates the financial and economic relations in education, and handles the international cooperation.

Education is defined as a fundament of the intellectual, moral, physical and cultural development of an individual, their successful socialization, economic wellbeing, a guarantee of development of the society united by shared values and culture, and of the State.

According to the law, a goal of the education is comprehensive development of the human being as a personality and as the supreme value of the society, development of its talents, intellectual, creative and physical abilities, formation of values and competences necessary for successful self-realization, raising responsible citizens capable to make a conscious choice and channel their activities for the good of other people and the society, and enriching the intellectual, economic, creative, cultural potential of the Ukrainian people on this basis, improving an educational level of the people in order to ensure Ukraine's sustainable development and its European choice.

This Law regulates social relations arising in the process of realization of the constitutional human right for education, rights and responsibilities of physical and legal persons participating in implementation of this right, and establishes powers of the state authorities and bodies of local self-government in the area of education.

The main terms, used in the document, are as follows:

1) ***autonomy*** – a right of the agent of educational activity for self-governance, which resides in its self-dependence, independence and responsibility in making decisions regarding academic (educational), organizational, financial, staffing and other issues of activities implemented in the manner and limits established by laws of Ukraine;

2) ***academic freedom*** – self-dependence and independence of educational process participants during implementation of pedagogical, academic, scientific and/or innovative activities which is performed based on the principles of the freedom of speech, thought and creativity, dissemination of knowledge and information, free disclosure and use of scientific research results taking into consideration restrictions established by laws of Ukraine;

3) **tuition-free education** – education pursued by a person on expense of the state and/or local budgets in accordance with the legislation;

4) **teaching activity** – activity aimed at formation of knowledge, other competences, world outlook, development of intellectual and creative capacities, emotional, volitional and/or physical qualities of education seekers (lecture, seminar, training, course, master class, webinar etc.) and is performed by: an educational (academic) worker, a self-employed person (except for persons for which such form of educational activity is forbidden by the law) or another physical person based on the respective labour or civil agreement;

5) e-textbook (manual) – an electronic educational publication where material is presented in a systematized manner, in line with the curriculum, contains digital objects in various formats and enables interactive communication;

6) institution of education – a legal person of the public or private law whose main type of activity is the educational activity;

7) founder of the institution of education – a public authority on behalf of the state, a respective council on behalf of the territorial community (communities), physical and/or legal person by whose decision and out of whose assets an institution of education has been established, or who in other ways, in accordance to the law, acquired rights and responsibilities of the founder;

8) education seekers – pupils, students, cadets, course participants, trainees, aspirants (adjuncts), doctoral students, other persons who obtain education according to any type and any form of obtaining education;

9) individual educational trajectory – an individual path of achieving a personal potential of the education seeker, which is formed based on their capabilities, interests, needs, motivation, opportunities and experience, rests on the types, forms and pace of obtaining education, educational agents and educational programmes, academic disciplines and their complexity level, teaching methods and means selected by the seeker of education. An individual educational trajectory may be implemented in the institution of education via an individual educational plan;

10) individual development programme – a document that provides individualization of education of a person with special educational needs, establishes a list of required psychological, pedagogical, remedial needs/services for development of the child, and is developed by a groups of professionals which must engage parents of the child in order to define specific educational strategies and approaches to education;

11) individual educational plan – a document that defines a sequence, form and pace of mastering educational components of the educational programmes by the education seeker with a goal of implementing their individual educational trajectory, and is developed by the institution of education in cooperation with the education seeker subject to availability of necessary resources;

12) inclusive education – a system of educational services guaranteed by the State which is based on the principle of non-discrimination, human diversities, effective involvement and engagement of all participants of the educational process into this process;

13) inclusive educational environment – a totality of conditions, ways and means of their realization for co-education, upbringing and development of education seekers based on their needs and capabilities;

14) qualification – a standardized set of competences (learning outcomes) achieved by the person, which is recognized by an authorized body and confirmed by a respective document;

15) competence – a dynamic combination of knowledge, skills, ways of thinking, opinions, values, other personal qualities, which recognizes person's ability to successfully socialize, perform professional and/or further educational activity;

16) educational process – a system of scientific, methodological and pedagogical measures aimed at development of the personality by means of forming and using their competences;

17) educational activity – activities of the educational actor aimed at organization, provision and implementation of the educational process in the formal and/or informal education;

18) educational service – a complex of actions of the educational agent, which are established by the legislation, educational programme and/or an agreement, have an established price and are aimed at achievement of expected learning outcomes by the education seeker;

19) educational programme – an integrated set of educational components (study subjects, disciplines, individual assignments, control activities, etc.), planned and organized in order to achieve established learning outcomes;

20) person with special educational needs – a person that needs additional permanent or temporary support in the educational process in order to ensure their right to education;

21) pedagogical activity – an intellectual, creative activity of the educational (academic) worker or a self-employed person in the area of formal and/or informal education aimed at teaching, upbringing and development of the personality, their general cultural, civic and/or professional competences;

22) learning outcomes – knowledge, skills, mindset, values, other personal qualities gained in the process of education, upbringing and development, which may be identified, planned, evaluated and measured, and which a person can demonstrate after having completed an educational programme or individual educational components;

23) level of education – a final stage of education characterized by a level of difficulty of the educational programme, a totality of competences that are determined, as a rule, by the educational standard, and meet a certain level of the National Qualification Framework;

24) reasonable adjustment – introduction, when it is required in a particular case, of necessary modifications and adaptations, with a goal to ensure

realization of their constitutional right to education by persons with special educational needs on a par with other persons;

25) educational system – a sum total of educational components, levels and degrees of education, qualifications, educational programmes, educational standards, licensing conditions, institutions of education and other educational agents, participants of the educational process, administrative bodies in the area of education, as well as laws and regulations that regulate relations among them;

26) special laws – the Laws of Ukraine "On Pre-School Education," "On General Secondary Education," "On Out-of-School Education," "On Vocational Education," "On Higher Education";

27) educational agent – a physical or legal person (institution of education, enterprise, establishment, organization) that conducts educational activities;

28) universal design in the area of education – the design of objects, environment, educational programmes and services, that should make those to be suitable, to the greatest possible extent, for use by all persons without a need in adaptation or special design;

29) quality of education – compliance of learning outcomes to requirements established by the legislation, respective educational standards and/or an agreement on provision of educational services;

30) quality of educational activity – a level of organization, provision and realization of the educational process, which ensures obtaining high-quality education by persons and meets requirements established by the legislation and/or an agreement for provision of educational services.

Education is highlighted as a state priority that ensures innovative, socio-economic and cultural development of the society. Funding education is an investment to the human potential and sustainable development of the society and the State.

II) THE LAW OF UKRAINE "ON GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION" AS A BASIS FOR REFORMING THE NEW UKRAINIAN SCHOOL

On May 30, the MPs approved the draft law "On Complete General Secondary Education" in the first reading, in September it was re-registered under No. 0901. The Verkhovna Rada Committee on Science and Education has considered more than 1,500 amendments, preparing the document for the second reading. The adoption of the draft law by the end of the year meant its entry into force as early as 2020.

The law defines legal, organizational and economic provisions of the functioning and development of the general secondary education system. It became

a logical continuation of the legislative regulation of the education reform, initiated by the Law of Ukraine "On Education". The new law ensures the norms that will determine in the coming years a coordinate system for the functioning of school education in communities.

Regarding the education levels and the timeframe for their completion, the following stages are separated:

- ❖ elementary education – the first level of complete general secondary education, period for obtaining is four years (grades 1–4);
- ❖ basic secondary education – the second level of complete general secondary education, period for obtaining is five years (grades 5–9);
- ❖ specialized secondary education – the third level of complete general secondary education, period for obtaining is three years (grades 10–12).
- ❖ in addition, the educational cycles are also introduced:
- ❖ the first cycle of elementary education – adaptation-games (1st–2nd year of study);
- ❖ second cycle of primary education – basic (3d–4th year of study);
- ❖ first cycle of basic secondary education – adaptation (5th-6th year of study);
- ❖ second cycle of basic secondary education - basic subject education (7th–9th year of study);
- ❖ first cycle of specialized secondary education – specialization-adaptation (10th year of study);
- ❖ second cycle of specialized secondary education – specialization (11th-12th year of study)

Regarding general secondary education institutions, the types of educational institutions that provide complete general secondary education are:

- ➢ Elementary school that provides elementary education;
- ➢ Gymnasium that provides basic secondary education;
- ➢ Lyceum that provides specialized secondary education.

A general secondary education institution, that is providing educational activities at several levels of general secondary education, has the type of higher education institution, where the educational activity is conducted.

To ensure the receipt of complete general secondary education can be provided also by the special institutions of general secondary education, educational institutions on vocational (vocational-technical) training, specialized pre-higher education, higher education, specialized education institutions (art lyceum, sports lyceum, military lyceum, scientific lyceum) and other educational institutions, that are licensed to conduct educational activities in the field of general secondary education.

On the request of the educational institution, inclusive-resource centers, inter-school resource centers and after school educational institutions may be involved to the implementation of the educational program.

The following internal structural units may operate within general secondary education institutions:

- preschool unit (as part of elementary school or gymnasium);
- extracurricular unit;
- boarding school (consists of lyceums, specialized general secondary education and specialized education institutions);
- other internal structural units.

A general secondary education institution may include a branch (branches).

The decision on the formation, reorganization, liquidation or conversion (change of type) of a general secondary education institution is taken by its founder (founders).

The development of a network of communal elementary schools, gymnasiums is provided by rayon, city, village, town councils. Accordingly, they make decisions about their formation.

The law stipulates that the development of a network of communal lyceums is planned and provided by the Verkhovna Rada of the Autonomous Republic of Crimea, oblast and city councils (cities with a population of more than 50 thousand), and they make decisions on their formation. Starting from September 1, 2024, for the commencement and implementation of educational activities of the communal lyceum from this time on, it should have at least four classes with 10-graders. From this time on, the elementary school will be able to function as a separate legal entity or as a structural unit of the gymnasium. The gymnasium and lyceum will function as separate legal entities. As an exception, upon the decision of the founder, the lyceum may also provide basic secondary education.

Reorganization and liquidation of general secondary education institutions in rural areas is allowed only after public discussion of the draft of the relevant decision of the founder. There is no question about the consent, which is expressed in any way.

Each institution of general secondary education should develop educational programs, the main component of which is the curriculum with the definition of educational subjects and the distribution of study time. All educational programs, that are designed on the basis of the standard ones, do not need to be approved. However, the school can also develop its own version of the program. The main thing is to ensure that all students can achieve learning results, that are not lower than those set by the state standards. This program still must be approved by the State Agency of Education Quality Control . However, if the school successfully

passed the institutional audit and decided to work by its own program, it does not need to be approved.

Complete general secondary education can be obtained not only full-time but also using the following forms: remote, network, external, family (home), form of pedagogical patronage, as well as full-time (evening), part-time (at the levels of basic and specialized education). However, this will only be possible after the Ministry of Science and Education will develop and approve the appropriate provision(s) for these forms.

III) EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS AND EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES. THE NEW UKRAINIAN SCHOOL

The educational standard specifies requirements to mandatory competences and learning outcomes of the education seeker of the respective level; general academic load of education seekers; other components envisaged by special laws. Educational standards are developed according to the National Qualification Framework. Educational standards are developed and approved according to the procedure stipulated by special laws and other regulations. Central state authorities, which are entitled to approve educational standards by this Law, post the following at their web sites:

respective draft standards with a goal of their public discussion;
educational standards no later than 10 days from the date of their approval.

The educational programme is based on the educational standard of the respective level (if available). The educational programme contains:

requirements to individuals who can start education under this programme;
a list of educational component and their logical sequence;
total academic load and expected learning outcomes of education seekers.

Educational programmes are developed by institutions of education, scientific institutions, other educational agents, and are approved in accordance to this Law and special laws. Educational programmes should envisage educational components for free selection by education seekers. Institutions of education may use typical or other educational programmes that are developed and proved in accordance to this and special laws.

Specialized institutions of education, educational associations and institutions of education that implement educational activities at different levels of education may use comprehensive educational programmes that cover different levels of education and are developed and approved (accredited) in accordance to the Law "*On Education*" and special laws. Educational programmes may contain a correction and development component for children with special educational needs.

The new framework Law "On Education" envisages three levels for complete general secondary education:

- ❖ *Primary education (four years);*
- ❖ *Basic secondary education at secondary schools (five years);*
- ❖ *Specialized secondary education at focused high schools or vocational education and training centers (three years).*

Total duration of complete general secondary education increases to 12 years. As a rule, education starts at the age of six. Children with special needs will be able to go to school at a different age. For such children, duration of their study at a primary school may be prolonged and supplemented with a correctional developmental component. The quality of education, in particular, in foreign languages, will be increased in every primary school. Study will be organized according to a uniform standard; no advanced-level subjects will be introduced. This will take place to avoid social segregation and selection of children at primary school age. The first cycle of primary education will help the pupil to get used to school life. In particular:

***Primary Education*:**

- ✓ *Class assignments and time for their completion are based on individual abilities;*
- ✓ *It is possible to integrate educational materials into the content of related subjects or to introduce them as modules;*
- ✓ *The amount of home assignments is restricted;*
- ✓ *Study is organized through activities, using games methods both in and out of class;*
- ✓ *The teacher is free to choose or create educational programs within the primary education standards;*
- ✓ *No marks are given; the main task of the teacher is to support self-confidence and motivation for knowledge in every child.*

The second cycle of primary education forms a sense of responsibility and self-dependence, in particular:

- ✓ *Methods that teach children to make independent choices, to link educational material with practical life, and to take into account each pupil's personality, are used in the process of study;*
- ✓ *Subject-based study is introduced; some subjects are to be marked.*

After completion of primary school, each pupil's educational outcomes should meet the standard set for primary schools. The national final assessment of pupils in primary education is performed exclusively for the purposes of assessing the quality of educational activities at schools, and is performed by school teaching staff. There will be no "one-hour" special courses or subjects at the primary school (as well as at

the gymnasiums or lyceum). There will be no more than 8 mandatory subjects in a single grade.

Basic Secondary Education

A special focus in the educational process is placed on the study of the national language and foreign languages.

At this level, foundations are laid for each pupil's conscious self-identification as a person and a member of a family, a nation and society, giving them the ability to deal with diversity in the world and humankind with tolerance and understanding.

The first cycle awakens and supports an interest in areas of knowledge and activities envisaged within the curriculum. The second cycle of basic secondary education contributes to educating children as responsible members of society, able to deal with everyday problems independently, and to choose a path for further education in accordance with their interests and abilities.

Education is mostly subject-specific. Some time is allocated to the options chosen by individuals. After completion of basic secondary education, pupils should be able to realize what values underpin their actions, rely on the strongest traits of their character, and accept responsibility for results of their actions.

Educational outcomes will be evaluated through the national final attestation in the form of external independent assessment.

Profession-Oriented Secondary Education

In the framework of the profession-oriented education, a high school pupil can choose one of two concentrations:

- *Academic, with advanced study in certain subjects and a goal to continue education at a university;*
- *Professional, which, alongside attaining complete general secondary education, provides training for a first profession (does not restrict the potential for continuing education).*

Obtaining specialized secondary education under academic concentration will be enabled at academic lyceums (high schools), which are, as a rule, separate educational establishments. A network of academic high schools will be established following the example of professional high schools, i.e. the third phase of schooling will be separate from the second phase.

The first year of education at academic high schools will be transitional. At this stage, the pupil still can change their direction of study. Pupils will be able to select not only subjects, but the levels of their complexity as well.

Academic high school leavers will be subject to the national final attestation in the form of the external independent assessment. Leavers of professional high schools and colleges will take the national final attestation (NFA) in the form of the external independent assessment. Leavers of professional high schools and colleges

who successfully pass NFA in the form of EIA will be able to enter higher educational establishments, and college leavers will be able to study at universities under an accelerated programme.

IV) KEY COMPETENCIES FOR LIFELONG LEARNING

In 2006, the European Parliament and the Council adopted a Recommendation on Key Competences for Lifelong Learning. It defined the competences each European citizen needs for personal fulfillment and development, employment, social inclusion and active citizenship. It invited Member States to ensure that their education and training systems are able to equip people with these competences.

Social developments change daily life, both at work and leisure. Society and economy rely heavily on highly competent people while competence requirements are changing; in addition to good basic skills (literacy, numeracy and basic digital skills) and civic competences; skills such as creativity, critical thinking, initiative taking and problem solving play an increasing role in coping with complexity and change in today's society. The "Reflection Paper on the Social Dimension of Europe" emphasises the importance of the right set of skills and competences to sustain living standards in Europe. Skills such as creativity, critical thinking, initiative taking and problem solving play an important role in coping with complexity and change in today society.

Competence needs are not static; they change throughout life and across generations. It is therefore important to make sure that all young people and adults have the opportunity to aquire the required competences in initial education and training, higher education, continious professional training, adult education or different forms of non-formal and informal learning.

The 2006 Recommendation of Key Competences for Lifelong Learning supported the development of competence-oriented teaching and learning and related curricula reforms. Competence-oriented educational concepts and curricula focus on the outcomes of a learning process but also on the application of that learning in new or different contexts. Competences include more than knowledge and understanding and take into account the ability to apply that when performing a task (skill) as well as how – with what mind-set – the learner approaches that task (attitude). Competence-oriented education is regarded as advantageous in a time when the knowledge base of our societies is developing at an immense speed and when the skills required need to be transferred to and developed in many different societal contexts, including those unforeseen in the future.

Moving to a competence-oriented approach in education, training and learning represents a paradigm shift. It impacts not only on the structure of curricula, but also changes the organisation of learning. Implementing competence-oriented education,

training and learning requires often cross-curricular approaches, a greater emphasis on interactive learning and teaching styles, combining formal with non-formal and informal learning, more collaboration with non-education stakeholders and local community, a new role of the teacher, trainer and educator in guiding learning processes as well as new approaches to assessment.

Key competencies are those that everyone needs for personal fulfillment, development, an active role in the community, social involvement, and employment, and that can secure personal attainment and self-actualization throughout life.

10 KEY COMPETENCIES OF THE NEW UKRAINIAN SCHOOL:

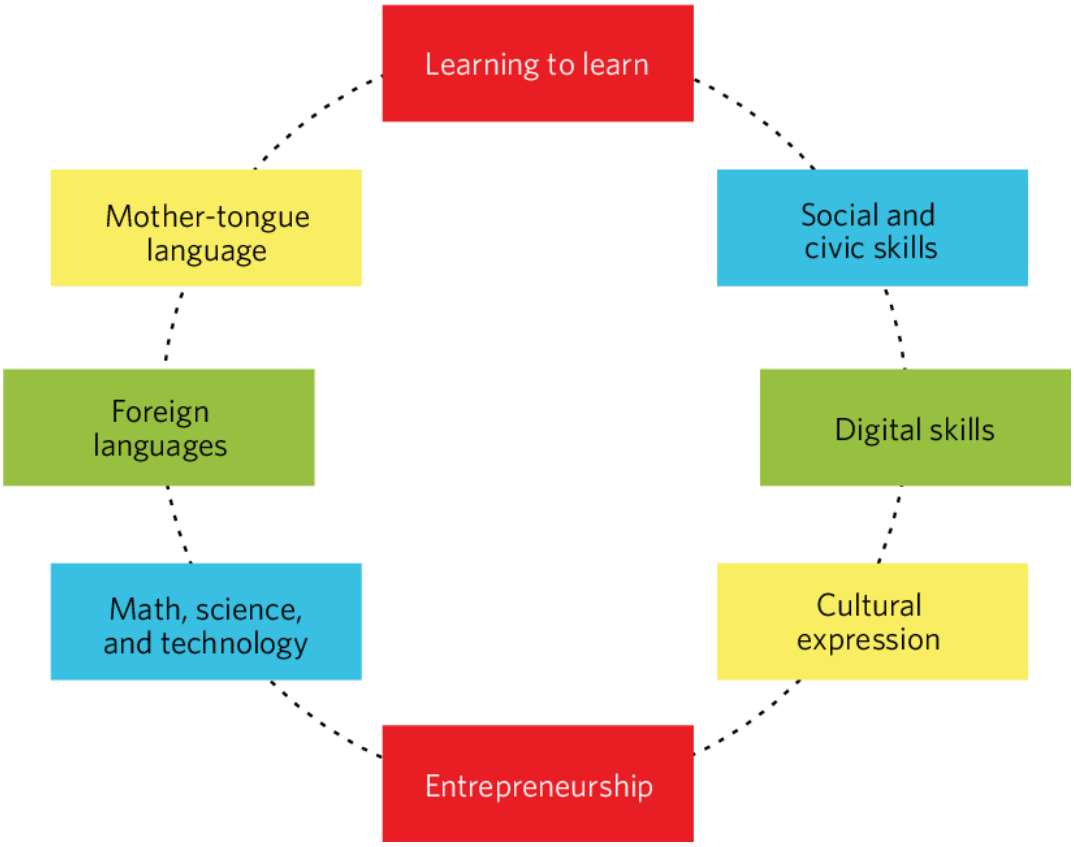
Communication in the national language (and mother tongue, if different). The ability, in speech and writing, to express and interpret ideas, thoughts, feelings, facts and views: by listening, speaking, reading, writing, and the use of multimedia. The ability to interact by linguistic means with the full spectrum of social and cultural aspects in education, at work, at home, and during spare time. The realization of the role of effective communication.

Communication in foreign languages. The ability to understand adequately concepts expressed in a foreign language, to express both in speech and in writing the ideas, thoughts, feelings, facts and views. By listening, speaking, reading and writing in a broad range of societal and cultural contexts. The skills of direct activity and intercultural communication.

Mathematical literacy. A culture of logical and algorithmic thinking. The ability to use mathematical (numerical and geometrical) methods to solve practical tasks in various areas of activity. The ability to understand and use simple mathematical models. The ability to build such models to solve problems.

Competencies in Science and Technology. A scientific understanding of nature and modern technology, as well as the ability to use it in practical terms. The ability to apply scientific methods to observe, analyze, formulate hypotheses, collect data, conduct experiments and analyze their results.

ICT and digital competencies envisage confidence and critical appraisal in the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to produce, research, process and exchange information at the workplace, in the public domain and in personal communication. Information and media competence, the fundamentals of programming, algorithmic thinking, working with databases, and skills in Internet security and cyber security. Understanding of the ethics in information processing (copyright, intellectual property, etc.).



Lifelong learning skill. The ability to search and master new knowledge, to gain new skills, to organize an educational process (individually and in groups), in particular, through effective resource and information flow management, an ability to set educational goals and determine means to achieve them, to build one's own educational and professional trajectory, to appraise your own educational achievements, and to learn throughout life.

Sense of entrepreneurship. The ability to generate and bring to life new ideas and initiatives in order to increase both one's own social status and wellbeing, and development of the community and the nation as a whole. The ability to behave rationally as a consumer, effectively use personal savings, and make rational decisions in employment, finance and other areas.

Social and civic competencies. All forms of behaviour that are needed for effective and constructive participation in society, in the family, and at work. The ability to work with others to achieve results, to prevent and resolve conflicts and reach compromises. Respect for the law, human rights and support for social and cultural diversity.

Cultural awareness. The ability to appreciate objects of art, form one's own artistic tastes, independently express ideas, experiences and feelings towards art. This competence envisages a deep understanding of each person's own national identity

as a basis for an open attitude and respect for the diversity of the cultural expression of others.

Environmental awareness and healthy lifestyles. The ability to use natural resources in a prudent and rational way within the framework of sustainable development, the realization of the role of the environment in human life and health, and the ability and willingness to live a healthy lifestyle.

All mentioned competencies are equally important and interrelated. Children acquire each of them consistently, gradually, and when studying different subjects at every stage of education. All competencies have the following skills in common:

- *The ability to read and understand what has been read;*
- *The ability to express ideas in oral and written forms;*
- *Critical thinking;*
- *The ability to logically justify a position taken;*
- *Leadership;*
- *Creativity;*
- *The ability to resolve problems, estimate risks and make decisions;*
- *The ability to modulate emotions in a constructive manner, to apply emotional intelligence;*
- *The ability to work together in a team.*

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LECTURE 2
LINGUISTIC, PSYCHOLOGICAL AND EDUCATIVE FUNDAMENTALS FOR TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE. THE PHENOMENON OF CRITICAL THINKING. THE 21ST CENTURY SKILLS.

The Plan

I) LINGUISTIC FACTORS FOR TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

II) PSYCHOLOGICAL FUNDAMENTALS FOR TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

III) EDUCATIVE FUNDAMENTALS FOR TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

IV) THE PHENOMENON OF CRITICAL THINKINGTHE AS THE 21ST CENTURY SKILL

"A different language is a different vision of life."

Federico Fellini

I) LINGUISTIC FACTORS FOR TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

BASIC GRAMMATICAL CONCEPTS. Languages differ in a host of ways. Some languages, like English, are rather strict about word order, as Alice learned in the opening quotation. The words in sentences (1) and (2) are the same; the only difference is the order in which the words are arranged. When we learn English, we must learn syntactic rules including those pertaining to word order. In English, the basic word order is subject – verb – object, or SVO.

Other languages use word order in different ways. In Japanese, the basic word order is subject-object-verb (SOV). Still other languages, such as Ukrainian, are much more flexible about word order, especially in case when meaning is conveyed less by word order than by the affixes (suffixes and prefixes) that are attached to words and slightly modify their meaning. In English, we know that we can express a word in a variety of interrelated forms (such as trip, tripped, tripping, and so forth), but other languages have far greater numbers of such forms. The system of affixing is considerably more complex in most languages, than in English.

Not only do languages differ in their general tendency to emphasize word order versus affixes, they also differ in the particular affixes they employ. For example, to say the sentence *The elephant ate the peanuts* in English, we must

include tense – the fact that the event occurred in the past. In Mandarin Chinese, indicating when the event occurred is optional. In Turkish, speakers must specify whether the eating was witnessed or just hearsay (Boroditsky, 2003).

These and other linguistic differences might tempt us to conclude that languages differ so greatly that no common patterns can be found. Despite these differences, linguists who have investigated the world's languages have concluded that although languages differ in a number of ways, the differences are not random, and there are impressive underlying similarities. All languages have a preferred word order, even though some languages allow more flexibility than others. The point is that underneath the impressive diversity we see patterns. The variations consist of different combinations of similar underlying elements.

If this is so, then we need to identify features that are found, in some form, in all human languages but are not present in animal communication systems.

DUALITY OF PATTERNING. Grammatical concept that is basic to the study of language is called duality of patterning (Hockett, 1966). At one level, there is a large number of meaningful elements, or words. At another level, there is a relatively small number of meaningless elements that are combined to form the words. In spoken languages, these meaningless elements are individual speech sounds. As Hockett notes, this form of duality does not appear to exist in animal communication.

Phones and Phonemes: to explain this duality, we need to make a few distinctions. Phones are speech sounds. Two sounds are different phones if they differ in a physically specifiable way. For example, consider the [p] in the words pill and spill. There is a puff of air, known as aspiration, in pill that is not present in spill. You can tell the difference easily by placing a lighted match a few inches in front of your mouth as you pronounce the two sounds. The aspirated sound is symbolized as [p^h], the unaspirated as [p].

Phonemes are differences in sound that make a contribution to meaning; they are indicated by slashes. For example, the sounds [b] and [d] are considered to be different phonemes in English because they contribute to the difference in meaning between big and dig. Phonemes may be thought of as categories of phones; each phone is a physically distinct version of the phoneme, but none of the differences between phones makes a difference to meaning. Notice that these phonemic categories vary from language to language. In English, aspiration is not phonemic, although it is in Thai, which would represent the sounds as [p^h] and [p].

We can understand these patterns better if we think of phonemes as combinations of discrete features. A distinctive feature is a characteristic of a speech sound whose presence or absence distinguishes the sound from other sounds. The phoneme [b] is similar to the phoneme [p] except that the vocal cords vibrate during

the production of [b] but not [p]. In distinctive feature theory, contrasts are binary with the presence of the feature indicated by + and its absence by – . The phoneme [b] is said to be + voicing, whereas [p] is – voicing.

The question remains of how these small linguistic units are combined. The sequence of phonemes that may occur in any given language is constrained. Consider the sounds port, plort, and pbort. We easily recognize that the first one is a word, the second could be, and the third could not be, at least not in English. As a first approximation, we can state a phonological rule that explains these patterns in the following way:

(R1) [p] cannot be followed by [b] at the beginning of a word.

The problem with this rule is that it is stated too narrowly. A number of other sequences in the language, such as *pt*, *bg*, *td*, *kb*, and many others, are not allowed, either. We must look for a broader generalization. The concept of distinctive features is helpful here, because p, t, b, g, d, and k are all + (stop). This enables us to reformulate the rule more generally:

(R2) A word cannot begin with two stop consonants.

In the same vein, we may notice that aspiration is predictable in English. The pattern noted with pill and spill also applies to other voiceless stop consonants, such as t (till/still) and k (kill/skill). The aspirated sound occurs only at the beginning of the word; otherwise, the unaspirated sound is pronounced. The proper rule is (R3) Voiceless stop consonants are aspirated when they occur at the beginning of a word. Thus, distinctive features are useful in identifying how to formulate linguistic rules. These distinctive features have psychological validity.

Duality of patterning appears to be a universal property of language. Languages differ in their phonemes and in the rules by which the phonemes may be combined to form words. However, all languages have duality: a level at which there is a relatively small number of basic, meaningless elements and another level at which there is a large number of meaningful elements. And all languages have a systematic set of rules for combining the former into the latter.

Morphology: We have seen that the phonemes are combined to form words. Another important way in which we use words is to use different forms of the same word to convey different shades of meaning. The system of rules that governs this aspect of language is referred to as morphology.

The smallest meaningful unit in a language is referred to as a morpheme. Some words, such as *truck*, consist of only a single morpheme. Others consist of two or more morphemes; *bedroom* consists of the morphemes bed and room. We may also distinguish between free morphemes, which may stand alone, and bound morphemes (also called grammatical morphemes, e.g.: travell***ed***), which, although contributing to word meaning, are not words themselves.

Although all languages have a morphological system, languages differ in the grammatical distinctions they make and in the way in which they make them. When we use English correctly, we are, at some level, paying attention to these properties. For instance, we must pay attention to the number of both pronouns and verbs because they must agree in number for a sentence to be grammatical in English. When choosing tense, we must decide when a given action took place.

Phrase Structure: A third central concept in grammatical description is phrase structure. Intuitively, we know that sentences can be divided into groups of words, or constituents. Consider the simple declarative sentence: *The young swimmer accepted the silver medal*. Think about how you might put these words into groups. The primary break in the sentence is between the noun phrase and the verb phrase – that is, between *swimmer* and *accepted*. This can be indicated by parentheses, as in sentence: (*The young swimmer*) (*accepted the silver medal*). We can further subdivide the last group as follows: (*The young swimmer*) (*accepted* [*the silver medal*]). The items in parentheses are the constituents of this simple declarative sentence. The first item is a noun phrase (NP), which consists of a determiner (*the*), an adjective (*young*), and a noun (*swimmer*). The second constituent is a verb phrase (VP), which consists of the verb (*accepted*) and then a second NP (*the silver medal*).

Another way to clarify the concept of constituent is to look at replacement patterns across sentences. For example, suppose we said, *The young swimmer accepted the silver medal*. *Then he smiled for the camera*. Notice that *he* replaces *the swimmer*. We can do the same for *accepted the silver medal*. For example, we could say, *The young swimmer accepted the silver medal, and the young ice skater did too*. Here *accepted the silver medal* is replaced by *did too*. The replacement test shows that a string of words is a constituent such as a NP or VP; NPs are replaced by NPs and VPs are replaced by VPs.

Phrase-structure rules are syntactic rules that specify the permissible sequences of constituents in a language. Each phrase-structure rule ‘‘rewrites’’ a constituent into one or more other constituents. By using a series of rules, we can derive a sentence from top to bottom (that is, from the largest to the smallest constituent). Phrase-structure rules provide a good account of one type of sentence ambiguity called phrase-structure ambiguity.

Linguistic Productivity: There is no limit to the number of sentences in a language. The vast percentage of sentences we utter are novel but grammatically acceptable arrangements of words (the main exceptions being clichés, proverbs, and the like). Our ability to create and comprehend novel utterances is called linguistic productivity (or linguistic creativity). This notion was discussed by Hockett (1966).

Linguistic productivity distinguishes human language from animal communication systems, which consist of a small number of discrete signals. In contrast, all human languages are open communication systems in which new words are coined as they are needed. Moreover, not only can we create new words, but we can, as we have seen with recursion, blend existing words in new combinations. These productive processes provide a measure of how complex and open ended our language faculty is.

Not all aspects of language are productive. Some aspects of language are not rule governed and so must be mastered by rote learning. One instance is the existence of strong verbs, which are verbs that are morphologically irregular. The most common in English are verbs that are irregular in the past tense, such as *went*, *fell*, and *ate*. Children trip over these forms early in their language development, preferring to overuse the past tense marker (for example, *goed*). Interestingly, most strong verbs are rather frequently used in the language, which is precisely what we would expect to see if children needed to learn each one in a rote manner.

Differences Between Signed and Spoken Languages:

The first difference is iconicity and arbitrariness. In English, as with most spoken languages, the principle of arbitrariness holds: No intrinsic relationship exists between the set of sounds and the object to which the sounds refer. For instance, there is no relation between the size of a word and the size of its referent; we have big words for small objects (for example, *caterpillar*) and small words for big objects (for example, *train*). According to Hockett (1966), this is a universal feature of human language.

American Sign Language, in contrast, possesses a high degree of iconicity: Many of the signs resemble the objects or activities to which they refer. Interestingly, different sign languages have developed in different parts of the world. Examination of ASL, Danish Sign Language, and Chinese Sign Language indicates that even though all have iconic signs, the signs differ from language to language in the actual details.

Thus, even though ASL is iconic, this property does not automatically determine the form of the signs. Each language represents the object iconically in different ways. As a consequence, it is not necessarily easy for observers to guess the meaning of signs. Thus, iconic signs are not necessarily transparent in meaning.

The second difference between signed and spoken languages deals with the distinction between simultaneous and sequential structure. The structure of spoken languages is largely sequential in nature. There are rules that specify the correct order of phonemes within syllables, syllables within words, and words within sentences. Sign language differs in that it is organized spatially more than temporally. The meaning of utterances is not specified primarily by the order of signs

(although order does matter) but by the combination of features simultaneously present in the sign.

II) PSYCHOLOGICAL FUNDAMENTALS FOR TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

Language acquisition is the process by which humans acquire the capacity to perceive and comprehend language. Language acquisition also looks at how people produce and use words and sentences to communicate. It is a very complex process that psycholinguists look at more closely than most. Researchers break language acquisition into two categories, first-language acquisition and second-language acquisition.

First-language acquisition is a universal process regardless of the language an individual will begin to speak. First-language acquisition starts with babies cooing, crying and babbling which is known as the pre-linguistic stages of first-language acquisition. Almost all humans will be fluent in a language before the age of five, which is remarkable. Some claim that if a person does not acquire any language before they become a teenager, they will never do so successfully.

Second-language acquisition assumes knowledge from a first language and applies that knowledge and process as an individual goes through the steps to learning a second language. After acquiring language, it can then be comprehended.

Language **comprehension** is an important part of linguistics that focuses on understanding communication. In order for language to be understood it is first acquired and then interpreted. Comprehending language might seem easy, but it is actually an extremely complex process. Alone, most words only have one meaning, but when they are used to form sentences and phrases they can become misconstrued. Things such as lexical ambiguity can make comprehending language hard. However, comprehending your native language comes much easier than trying to comprehend a second-language. After comprehending the language an individual has acquired and is surrounded by they must finally produce language in a **coherent** way.

Language production is the last process psycholinguistics will observe to see how far individuals have come in fully grasping all aspects of language. Once language is obtained and understood it can be transformed in a way to communicate ideas with others. Language can be produced in a variety of ways including; spoken, written and even signed. These forms of communication allow for a positive flow of opinions to be conveyed in such a way that both parties fully understand what is being stated.

Language acquisition is dependent on many factors. **Age** is a factor that impacts a person’s ability to acquire a language and will determine the level of

difficulty it takes in doing so. Childhood is said to be a critical period for the acquisition of language. Children may also have a better chance learning a second-language than most adults. Therefore, scientists conclude it is much harder for an adult to acquire a new language.

With **gender** comes an additional set of pre-assumed traits that argue the higher difficulty that men have when learning. **Motivation** also plays a crucial role in a person's success in acquiring a language. A person's mind set can alter the difficulty in learning a new language which is something that supports why children are able to grasp language much better. A child learning a first or second language does not need motivation or reinforcement the way an adult does when trying to acquire a second-language.

As a person continues to learn more languages besides that of their native one, the process becomes increasingly easier. Language acquisition is an important part of linguistics because it is the first stop on the long train ride of language.

Again psycholinguists are concerned with how language is acquired, comprehended and produced. This means that the field of psycholinguistics studies the cognitive processes that makes it possible to create a meaningful sentence with vocabulary and grammatical structures. Furthermore, it explores the processes that make it possible to understand utterances, words, text, etc. Every individual has unique **character traits** that allow them to function in different ways which makes this process different for everyone. Even though there are general assumptions of when certain process will occur and the order in which they will arise each case is different. These discrepancies leave room for an abundant amount of possibilities which is why further research in the field of Psycholinguists is very much necessary.

There are many different approaches to studying the range of topics within the field. A variety of distinct research continues to be conducted in relation to this topic. The reason for the variety of approaches is due to the fact that there are so many factors that contribute to how language is developed and each one promotes a different direction of research.

Mechanisms of acquiring any language, a foreign language in particular, and communication are universal, though they can be modified, become complicated, acquire specific features in every concrete situation:

- ***Way of Cognition.*** Cognition is a complicated totality of mental processes which are grounded upon the previous cognition experience. The exploration occurs automatically, with the help of usual frames and scripts. Cognition must be accomplished carefully and consciously to overcome obstacles. J. P. Guilford singles out two leading cognitive patterns based upon convergent and divergent mentality. Convergent mentality concerns the situations when two communicators come to the same conclusion under the influence of factors' set.

Divergent mentality takes place when two communicators come to different conclusions under the influence of the same factor. Divergent mentality doesn't predict the unique answer; it presupposes some alternative solutions.

E. Chaika supposes that the knowledge of two languages must result in cognitive flexibility indicated by such factors:

- readiness to apprehend unknown phenomena;
- the refuse to frame new experience due to previous conceptions;
- acknowledgement of strangers' right for their own point of view;
- the ability to overcome stereotypes.

➢ ***Abstraction and Filtration.*** Abstraction presupposes the selection of information, when its larger amount is neglected, and the smaller amount is picked out. Filtration is some kind of self-preservation that helps avoid the excessive amount of information. Abstraction has two levels. They are sensorial or initial and the level of filtrating systems that depend upon mood, geographical origin, ethnic origin, credo, values. These filters can explain some misunderstanding in case when words are interpreted beyond the bounds of context. Thus, we may conclude that humans prefer:

- familiar to unfamiliar;
- pleasant to unpleasant;
- smth that must be emotionally responded to;
- important and interesting to unimportant and boring.

➢ ***Simplification.*** Having apprehended the new information, a communicator tries to simplify it, to make it more clear, distinct and intelligible. This rule is positive when the purpose is to reduce pains. But sometimes simplification as a phenomenon can be negative. A person tries to minimize the new information to familiar frames intending to prove his / her point of view and to avoid misbalance. Such conception of the world is schematic.

➢ ***Association and Prototypes.*** The intention to reduce the amount of cognitive activities influences upon the identification of new objects and phenomena. Such identification means to find an analogue among familiar objects and phenomena. Then these objects or phenomena are classified on the basis of their resemblance with some prototypes fixed in human memory. But the wrong use of experience can form false prototypes.

➢ ***Information's Combination and Re-organization.*** To filter and simplify information is not enough. Information must be organized systematically for each participant of communication. Reference is an important part of mentality that marks a higher level of cognition, when information is systematized due to the existing conscious patterns in order to emphasize and actualize only some of them.

➢ ***Filling Gaps.*** Rendering message, an addresser / sender skips some part of information which he considers to be well-known. An addressee fills such information gaps with the help of presuppositions and background or basic knowledge. *Presupposition* (from Latin *prae-suppositio*, e.g. «preceding supposition») is information that is referred to. Background or basic knowledge is information about some cultural environment that functions as a communicative context. Background can be influenced by time and space.

Interpretation. The selected information is rendered in the light of individual interpretation and becomes an integral part of subjective experience and an important constituent of human inner structure. The way of interpretation depends upon national and cultural origin, political convictions, set of values, fixed ideas and so on. However, the interpretational difference doesn't mean the impossibility of mutual understanding.

III) EDUCATIVE FUNDAMENTALS FOR TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

Language education – the process and practice of teaching a second or foreign language can be an interdisciplinary field.https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_education - cite_note-1 There are four main learning categories for language education: communicative competencies, proficiencies, cross-cultural experiences, and multiple literacies.

The need to learn foreign languages is as old as human history itself. In the Ancient Near East, Akkadian was the language of diplomacy, as in the Amarna letters. For many centuries, Latin was the dominant language of education, commerce, religion, and government in much of Europe, but it was displaced for many purposes by French, Italian, and English by the end of the 16th century. John Amos Comenius was one of many people who tried to reverse this trend. He wrote a complete course for learning Latin, covering the entire school curriculum, culminating in his *Opera Didactica Omnia*, 1657.

In this work, Comenius also outlined his theory of language acquisition. He is one of the first theorists to write systematically about how languages are learned and about methods for teaching languages. He held that language acquisition must be allied with sensation and experience. Teaching must be oral. The schoolroom should have models of things, or else pictures of them. He published the world's first illustrated children's book, *Orbis sensualium pictus*. The study of Latin gradually diminished from the study of a living language to a mere subject in the school curriculum. This decline demanded a new justification for its study. It was then claimed that the study of Latin developed intellectual ability, and the study of Latin grammar became an end in and of itself.

“Grammar schools” from the 16th to 18th centuries focused on teaching the grammatical aspects of Classical Latin. Advanced students continued grammar study with the addition of rhetoric.

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

Innovation in foreign language teaching began in the 19th century and became very rapid in the 20th century. It led to a number of different and sometimes conflicting methods, each claiming to be a major improvement over the previous or contemporary methods. The earliest applied linguists included Jean Manes ca, Heinrich Gottfried Ollendorff (1803–1865), Henry Sweet (1845–1912), Otto Jespersen (1860–1943), and Harold Palmer (1877–1949). They worked on setting language teaching principles and approaches based on linguistic and psychological theories, but they left many of the specific practical details for others to devise.

The history of foreign-language education in the 20th century and the methods of teaching (such as those related below) might appear to be a history of failure. Very few students in U.S. universities who have a foreign language as a major attain “minimum professional proficiency”. Even the “reading knowledge” required for a PhD degree is comparable only to what second-year language students read, and only very few researchers who are native English speakers can read and assess information written in languages other than English. Even a number of famous linguists are monolingual.

However, anecdotal evidence for successful second or foreign language learning is easy to find, leading to a discrepancy between these cases and the failure of most language programs. This tends to make the research of second language acquisition emotionally charged. Older methods and approaches such as the grammar translation method and the direct method are dismissed and even ridiculed, as newer methods and approaches are invented and promoted as the only and complete solution to the problem of the high failure rates of foreign language students.

Most books on language teaching list the various methods that have been used in the past, often ending with the author’s new method. These new methods are usually presented as coming only from the author’s mind, as the authors generally give no credence to what was done before and do not explain how it relates to the new method. For example, descriptive linguists seem to claim unhesitatingly that

there were no scientifically based language teaching methods before their work (which led to the audio-lingual method developed for the U.S. Army in World War II). However, there is significant evidence to the contrary. It is also often inferred or even stated that older methods were completely ineffective or have died out completely, though in reality even the oldest methods are still in use (*e.g. the Berlitz version of the direct method*). Proponents of new methods have been so sure that their ideas are so new and so correct that they could not conceive that the older ones have enough validity to cause controversy. This was in turn caused by emphasis on new scientific advances, which has tended to blind researchers to precedents in older work.

There have been two major branches in the field of language learning, the empirical and theoretical, and these have almost completely separate histories, with each gaining ground over the other at one time or another. Examples of researchers on the empiricist side are Jesperson, Palmer, and Leonard Bloomfield, who promote mimicry and memorization with pattern drills. These methods follow from the basic empiricist position that language acquisition results from habits formed by conditioning and drilling. In its most extreme form, language learning is seen as much the same as any other learning in any other species, human language being essentially the same as communication behaviors seen in other species.

On the theoretical side are, for example, Francois Gouin, M. D. Berlitz, and Emile B. De Sauzé, whose rationalist theories of language acquisition dovetail with linguistic work done by Noam Chomsky and others. These have led to a wider variety of teaching methods, ranging from the grammar-translation method and Gouin's "series method" to the direct methods of Berlitz and De Sauzé. With these methods, students generate original and meaningful sentences to gain a functional knowledge of the rules of grammar. This follows from the rationalist position that man is born to think and that language use is a uniquely human trait impossible in other species. Given that human languages share many common traits, the idea is that humans share a universal grammar which is built into our brain structure. This allows us to create sentences that we have never heard before but that can still be immediately understood by anyone who understands the specific language being spoken. The rivalry between the two camps is intense, with little communication or cooperation between them

Over time, language education has developed in schools and has become a part of the education curriculum around the world. In some countries, such as the United States, language education (also referred to as World Languages) has become a core subject along with main subjects such as English, Maths and Science.

In some countries, such as Australia, it is so common nowadays for a foreign language to be taught in schools that the subject of language education is referred to

LOTE or ***Language Other Than English***. In the majority of English-speaking education centers, French, Spanish and German are the most popular languages to study and learn. English as a ***Second Language*** is also available for students whose first language is not English and they are unable to speak it to the required standard.

Language education may take place as a general school subject or in a specialized **language school**. There are many methods of teaching languages. Some have fallen into relative obscurity and others are widely used; still others have a small following, but offer useful insights.

While sometimes confused, the terms “approach”, “method” and “technique” are hierarchical concepts.

An **approach** is a set of assumptions about the nature of language and language learning, but does not involve procedure or provide any details about how such assumptions should be implemented into the classroom setting. Such can be related to second language acquisition theory.

There are three principal “approaches”:

The structural view treats language as a system of structurally related elements to code meaning (e.g. grammar).

The functional view sees language as a vehicle to express or accomplish a certain function, such as requesting something.

The interactive view sees language as a vehicle for the creation and maintenance of social relations, focusing on patterns of moves, acts, negotiation and interaction found in conversational exchanges. This approach has been fairly dominant since the 1980s.

A **method** is a plan for presenting the language material to be learned, and should be based upon a selected approach. In order for an approach to be translated into a method, an instructional system must be designed considering the objectives of the teaching/learning, how the content is to be selected and organized, the types of tasks to be performed, the roles of students, and the roles of teachers.

1. Examples of structural methods are grammar translation and the audio-lingual method.
2. Examples of functional methods include the oral approach / situational language teaching.
3. Examples of interactive methods include the direct method, the series method, communicative language teaching, language immersion, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, the Natural Approach, Tandem Language Learning, Total Physical Response, Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling and Dogme language teaching.

A **technique** (or strategy) is a very specific, concrete stratagem or trick designed to accomplish an immediate objective. Such are derived from the controlling method, and less directly, from the approach.

IV) THE PHENOMENON OF CRITICAL THINKINGTHE AS THE 21ST CENTURY SKILL

Critical Thinking:

a way of thinking about particular things at a particular time; it is not the accumulation of facts and knowledge or something that you can learn once and then use in that form forever, such as the nine times table you learn and use in school

Critical thinking is the ability to think clearly and rationally, understanding the logical connection between ideas. Critical thinking has been the subject of much debate and thought since the time of early Greek philosophers such as Plato and Socrates and has continued to be a subject of discussion into the modern age, for example the ability to recognise fake news.

Critical thinking might be described as the ability to engage in reflective and independent thinking.

In essence, critical thinking requires you to use your ability to reason. It is about being an active learner rather than a passive recipient of information.

Critical thinkers rigorously question ideas and assumptions rather than accepting them at face value. They will always seek to determine whether the ideas, arguments and findings represent the entire picture and are open to finding that they do not.

Critical thinkers will identify, analyse and solve problems systematically rather than by intuition or instinct.

Someone with critical thinking skills can:

- Understand the links between ideas.
- Determine the importance and relevance of arguments and ideas.
- Recognise, build and appraise arguments.
- Identify inconsistencies and errors in reasoning.
- Approach problems in a consistent and systematic way.
- Reflect on the justification of their own assumptions, beliefs and values.

Critical thinking is thinking about things in certain ways so as to arrive at the best possible solution in the circumstances that the thinker is aware of. In more everyday language, it is a way of thinking about whatever is presently occupying your mind so that you come to the best possible conclusion.

The Skills We Need for Critical Thinking

The skills that we need in order to be able to think critically are varied and include observation, analysis, interpretation, reflection, evaluation, inference, explanation, problem solving, and decision making.

Specifically we need to be able to:

- Think about a topic or issue in an objective and critical way.
- Identify the different arguments there are in relation to a particular issue.
- Evaluate a point of view to determine how strong or valid it is.
- Recognise any weaknesses or negative points that there are in the evidence or argument.
- Notice what implications there might be behind a statement or argument.
- Provide structured reasoning and support for an argument that we wish to make.

None of us think critically all the time. Sometimes we think in almost any way but critically, for example when our self-control is affected by anger, grief or joy or when we are feeling just plain "bloody minded".

On the other hand, the good news is that, since our critical thinking ability varies according to our current mindset, most of the time we can learn to improve our critical thinking ability by developing certain routine activities and applying them to all problems that present themselves.

One of the most important aspects of critical thinking is to decide what you are aiming to achieve and then make a decision based on a range of possibilities.

Once a person has clarified that aim for themselves, they should use it as the starting point in all future situations requiring thought and, possibly, further decision making. Where needed, it is enhancing to make the workmates, family or those around aware of the intention to pursue this goal. It is vital to discipline themselves to keep on track until changing circumstances mean they have to revisit the start of the decision making process.

However, there are things that get in the way of simple decision making. We all carry with us a range of likes and dislikes, learnt behaviours and personal preferences developed throughout our lives; they are the hallmarks of being human. A major contribution to ensuring we think critically is to be aware of these personal characteristics, preferences and biases and make allowance for them when considering possible next steps, whether they are at the pre-action consideration stage or as part of a rethink caused by unexpected or unforeseen impediments to continued progress.

The more clearly we are aware of ourselves, our strengths and weaknesses, the more likely our critical thinking will be productive.

Perhaps the most important element of thinking critically is foresight. Almost all decisions we make and implement don't prove disastrous if we find reasons to

abandon them. However, our decision making will be infinitely better and more likely to lead to success if, when we reach a tentative conclusion, we pause and consider the impact on the people and activities around us.

To sum it up:

❖ Critical thinking is aimed at achieving the best possible outcomes in any situation. In order to achieve this it must involve gathering and evaluating information from as many different sources possible.

❖ Critical thinking requires a clear, often uncomfortable, assessment of your personal strengths, weaknesses and preferences and their possible impact on decisions you may make.

❖ Critical thinking requires the development and use of foresight as far as this is possible. As Doris Day sang, "*the future's not ours to see*".

❖ Implementing the decisions made arising from critical thinking must take into account an assessment of possible outcomes and ways of avoiding potentially negative outcomes, or at least lessening their impact.

❖ Critical thinking involves reviewing the results of the application of decisions made and implementing change where possible.

It might be thought that we are overextending our demands on critical thinking in expecting that it can help to construct focused meaning rather than examining the information given and the knowledge we have acquired to see if we can, if necessary, construct a meaning that will be acceptable and useful.

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LECTURE 3
THE PECULIARITIES OF TEACHING LITERATURE. THE PERSPECTIVES OF LITERARY SCHOOLING

The Plan

I) LITERATURE IN *ELT*

II) THE HISTORY OF TEACHING LITERATURE AND APPROACHES TO LITERATURE SCHOOLING

III) LITERATURE LESSON PLAN AND POSSIBLE CHALLENGES

IV) STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING LITERATURE IN THE 21ST CENTURY

"Only the very weak-minded refuse to be influenced by literature and poetry."

Cassandra Clare, Clockwork Angel

I) LITERATURE IN *ELT*

The use of literature in the ELT classroom is enjoying a revival for a number of reasons. Having formed part of traditional language teaching approaches, literature became less popular when language teaching and learning started to focus on the functional use of language. However, the role of literature in the ELT classroom has been re-assessed and many now view literary texts as providing rich linguistic input, effective stimuli for students to express themselves in other languages and a potential source of learner motivation.

British Council supports the idea of distinguishing between literature with a capital L – the classical texts e.g. Shakespeare, Dickens – and literature with a small l, which refers to popular fiction, fables and song lyrics. The literature used in ELT classrooms today is no longer restricted to canonical texts from certain countries e.g. UK, USA, but includes the work of writers from a diverse range of countries and cultures using different forms of English.

Literary texts can be studied in their original forms or in simplified or abridged versions. An increasing number of stories in English are written specifically for learners of other languages. The types of literary texts that can be studied inside and outside the ELT classroom include: 1) short stories; 2) poems; 3) novels; 4) plays; 5) song lyrics.

Literary texts provide opportunities for multi-sensorial classroom experiences and can appeal to learners with different learning styles. Texts can be supplemented

by audio-texts, music CDs, film clips, podcasts, all of which enhance even further the richness of the sensory input that students receive.

Literary texts offer a rich source of linguistic input and can help learners to practise the four skills – speaking, listening, reading and writing – in addition to exemplifying grammatical structures and presenting new vocabulary.

Literature can help learners to develop their understanding of other cultures, awareness of "difference" and to develop tolerance and understanding. At the same time literary texts can deal with universal themes such as love, war and loss that are not always covered in the sanitised world of course books.

Literary texts are representational rather than referential (McMillan Education: McRae, 1994). Referential language communicates at only one level and tends to be informational. The representational language of literary texts involves the learners and engages their emotions, as well as their cognitive faculties. Literary works help learners to use their imagination, enhance their empathy for others and lead them to develop their own creativity. They also give students the chance to learn about literary devices that occur in other genres e.g. advertising.

Literature lessons can lead to public displays of student output through posters of student creations e.g. poems, stories or through performances of plays. So for a variety of linguistic, cultural and personal growth reasons, literary texts can be more motivating than the referential ones often used in classrooms.

Literary texts can present teachers and learners with a number of difficulties including:

✓ *text selection* – texts need to be chosen that have relevance and interest to learners.

✓ *linguistic difficulty* – texts need to be appropriate to the level of the students' comprehension.

✓ *length* – shorter texts may be easier to use within the class time available, but longer texts provide more contextual details, and development of character and plot.

✓ *cultural difficulty* – texts should not be so culturally dense that outsiders feel excluded from understanding essential meaning.

✓ *cultural appropriacy* – learners should not be offended by textual content.

Teachers can cope with many of the challenges that literary texts present, if they ask a series of questions to assess the suitability of texts for any particular group of learners:

➢ *Is the subject matter likely to interest this group?*

➢ *Is the language level appropriate?*

➢ *Is it the right length for the time available?*

➢ *Does it require much cultural or literary background knowledge?*

➢ *Is it culturally offensive in any way?*

- *Can it be easily exploited for language learning purposes?*

Duff and Maley (2007) also emphasise the importance of varying task difficulty as well as text difficulty:

- Level 1 Simple text + low level task
- Level 2 Simple text + more demanding task
- Level 3 Difficult text + low level task
- Level 4 Difficult text + more demanding task

Teachers can exploit literary texts in a large number of ways in the classroom. Classroom work with literary works may involve pre-reading tasks, interactive work on the text and follow up activities.

Teachers can introduce the topic or theme of the text, pre-teach essential vocabulary items and use prediction tasks to arouse the interest and curiosity of students.

- Minimise the extent to which the teacher disturbs students' reading.
- Draw attention to stylistic peculiarity.
- Help students to appreciate the ways that writers use language to achieve particular effects.
- Provide frameworks for creative response.
- Invite learners to step into the shoes of the writer or invite them to modify, extend or add to a text.

II) THE HISTORY OF TEACHING LITERATURE AND APPROACHES TO LITERATURE SCHOOLING

Literature teaching has a long history, and a relatively established body of knowledge has also developed in the discipline. This lengthy history has contributed a relatively systematic understanding about why literature needs to be taught to pupils / students.

Carter & Long (1991), for example, specify three main reasons for teaching literature, each of which has its own learning objectives: the cultural model, the language model, and personal growth model. Instructors working within the cultural model value literature because it contains accumulated wisdom – "the best that has been thought and felt within a culture" (Carter & Long). Literature in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context in this case is then expected to promote students' understanding and appreciation of cultures and ideologies reflected in the literary texts the students read.

Believing in the idea that literature teaching is justifiable primarily because of its value for promoting students' language development, instructors who subscribe to the language model take literary texts as an authentic locus from which to study vocabulary items and structural aspects of the language. From this engagement with

literary texts, it is expected that students will later develop "ways into a text in a methodological way" (Carter & Long).

While proponents of the cultural model emphasize the cultural wisdom aspects of the literary texts, and the proponents of the language model stress linguistic realization contained in literary texts as the primary value of literature, instructors who subscribe to the personal growth model believe that students need to be encouraged to engage aesthetically with literary texts so that some sense of enjoyment develops in them out of their engagement with literary texts. It is this aesthetic literary experience which is believed to be transferable beyond the boundary of school context. In other words, the proponents of the personal growth model expect that as result of students' engagement with literary texts lasting love for reading will develop; and this love for reading will fuel students' further personal growth as literate individuals.

Four common approaches to literature teaching have been identified: language-based approach, literature as content, literature for personal enrichment (e.g., Carter & Long), and literature as a resource for empowerment.

1) Language-Based Approach

Guided by a methodological assumption that studying the language of English literary text helps integrate the language and literature syllabuses more closely, literature programs subscribing to this approach will focus on stylistic analyses of literary works being used as learning materials. With a primary focus being placed as it is, this program will encourage learners to draw on their linguistic-based knowledge resources to appreciate and make judgment of the literary texts they are reading.

Proponents of this approach to literature might argue for the adoption of this approach for a diverse instructional purposes. For instance, some instructors might use literary texts pedagogically as a locus from which students can learn registers and writing styles.

Some other instructors might use literary texts as an object of study by encouraging students to learn the tools they need to interpret literary texts and to make critical judgments of the texts they are reading.

Either way the focus is on texts and students are being encouraged to treat literary texts as a source for learning English.

2) Literature as a Content

As the title suggests, this approach treats literature as the primary materials for students' learning of English. Using English literature itself as the content of the course, instructors of English engage their students in reading set texts and literary criticism relating to them. The course contents might be organized in terms of

literary genres, rhetorical devices, the history and characteristics of literary movements.

3) Literature for Personal Enrichment

Underpinning this approach is the assumption that literature is a useful tool for encouraging students to draw on their own personal experiences, feelings, and opinions. Materials for students' learning can be selected on the basis of their assumed relevance with students' interest and abilities and these materials can be organized thematically together with other non-literary texts which deal with a similar theme.

4) Literature as a Resource for Empowerment

Using literature as a resource means treating literary texts as a locus to invite students' highest personal response and involvement. Unlike treating literature as a content which tends to focus on the acquisition of a body of knowledge about literature (i.e., accumulation of facts about literary contexts, dates, authors, titles of texts, literary terms, etc.), treating literature as a resource has the primary purpose of imparting personal pleasure and enjoyment in reading literary texts.

III) LITERATURE LESSON PLAN AND POSSIBLE CHALLENGES

There have been different models suggested on the teaching of literature to ESL/EFL students (Carter & Long). How the teacher will use a literary text depends on the model they choose.

The cultural model views a literary text as a product. This means that it is treated as a source of information about the target culture. It is the most traditional approach, often used in university courses on literature. The cultural model will examine the social, political and historical background to a text, literary movements and genres. There is no specific language work done on a text. This approach tends to be quite teacher-centred.

The language model aims to be more learner-centred. As learners proceed through a text, they pay attention to the way language is used. They come to grips with the meaning and increase their general awareness of English. Within this model of studying literature, the teacher can choose to focus on general grammar and vocabulary (in the same way that these are presented in coursebooks for example) or use stylistic analysis. Stylistic analysis involves the close study of the linguistic features of the text to enable students to make meaningful interpretations of the text – it aims to help learners read and study literature more competently.

The personal growth model is also a process-based approach and tries to be more learner-centred. This model encourages learners to draw on their own opinions, feelings and personal experiences. It aims for interaction between the text and the reader in English, helping make the language more memorable. Learners are

encouraged to "make the text their own". This model recognises the immense power that literature can have to move people and attempts to use that in the classroom.

Literature Lesson Plan

Stage one: warmer

There are two different possible routes you can take for this stage:

- Devise a warmer that gets students thinking about the topic of the extract or poem. This could take several forms: a short discussion that students do in pairs, a whole class discussion, a guessing game between you and the class or a brainstorming of vocabulary around that topic.
- Devise a warmer that looks at the source of the literature that will be studied. Find out what the students already know about the author or the times he/she was writing in. Give the students some background information to read (be careful not to make this too long or it will detract from the rest of the lesson; avoid text overload). Explain in what way this piece of literature is well-known (maybe it is often quoted in modern films or by politicians). This sort of warmer fits more into the cultural model of teaching literature

Stage two: before reading

This stage could be optional, or it may be a part of the warmer. Preparing to read activities include:

- Pre-teaching very difficult words (note: pre-teaching vocabulary should be approached with caution). Often teachers "kill" a text by spending too much time on the pre-teaching stage. Limit the amount of words you cover in this stage. If you have to teach more than seven or eight there is a good chance the text will be too difficult.
- Predicting. Give students some words from the extract and ask them to predict what happens next. If it is a play, give them a couple of lines of dialogue and ask them to make predictions about the play.
- Giving students a "taste". Read the first bit of the extract (with their books closed, or papers turned over) at normal speed, even quickly. Ask students to compare what they have understood in pairs. Then ask them to report back to you. Repeat the first bit again. Then ask them to open the book (or turn over the page) and read it for themselves.

Stage three: understanding the text, general comprehension

Often with extracts or poems, it is possible to read the whole thing to the students so that they can get more of a "feel" for the text. With very evocative pieces of literature or poetry this can be quite powerful. Then let students read it to themselves. It is important to let students approach a piece of literature the first time without giving them any specific task other than to simply read it. One of the aims

of teaching literature is to evoke interest and pleasure from the language. If students have to do a task at every stage of a literature lesson, the pleasure can be lost.

Once students have read it once, you can set comprehension questions or ask them to explain the significance of certain key words of the text. Another way of checking comprehension is to ask students to explain to each other (in pairs) what they have understood. This could be followed up by more subjective questions (e. g.: Why do you think *X* said this? How do you think the woman feels? What made him do this?)

Stage four: understanding the language

At this stage, get to grips with the more difficult words in the text. See how many of the unfamiliar words students can get from context. Give them clues.

You could also look at certain elements of style that the author has used. Remember that there is some use in looking at non-standard forms of language to understand the standard.

If appropriate to the text, look at the connotation of words which the author has chosen. For example, if the text says "She had long skinny arms," what does that say about the author's impression of the woman? Would it be different if the author had written "She had long slender arms"?

Stage five: follow up activities

Once you have read and worked with your piece of literature it might naturally lead on to one or more follow up activities. Here are some ideas:

Using poems

❖ Enhance students to read each other the poem aloud at the same time, checking for each other's pronunciation and rhythm. Do a whole class choral reading at the end.

❖ Ask students to rewrite the poem, changing the meaning but not the structure.

❖ Ask students to write or discuss the possible story behind the poem. Who was it for? What led to the writing of this poem?

❖ Have a discussion on issues the poem raised and how they relate to the students' lives.

Using extracts from stories or short stories

➢ Ask students to write what they think will happen next, or what they think happened just before.

➢ Ask students to write a background character description of one of the characters which explains why they are the way they are.

➢ Ask students to imagine they are working for a big Hollywood studio who wants to make a movie from the book. They must decide the location and casting of the movie.

➢ Ask students to personalise the text by talking about if anything similar has happened to them.

➢ Ask students to improvise a role play between two characters in the book.

Using extracts from plays

Most of the ideas from stories (above) could be applied here, but obviously, this medium gives plenty of opportunity for students to do some drama in the classroom. Here are some possibilities:

✓ Ask students to act out a part of the scene in groups.

✓ Ask students to make a radio play recording of the scene. They must record this onto cassette. Listen to the different recordings in the last five minutes of future classes. Whose was the best?

✓ Ask students to read out the dialogue but to give the characters special accents (very "foreign" or very "American" or "British"). This works on different aspects of pronunciation (individual sounds and sentence rhythm).

✓ Ask students to write stage directions, including how to deliver lines (e.g. angrily, breathlessly etc) next to each character's line of dialogue. Then they read it out loud.

✓ Ask students to re-write the scene. They could either modernise it (this has been often done with Shakespeare), or imagine that it is set in a completely different location (in space for example). Then they read out the new version.

Potential problems

Problem 1: Where do I find material?

Of course you may have a novel or book of poetry that you have been dying to use with your students for a long time. But where can you get more material? The internet brings you instant access to many works of literature. Use a search engine. Usually it is enough to key in the name of the author or the book you are looking for. Older books and plays can sometimes be found entirely on-line.

The following sites are excellent for book excerpts and stories:

❖ www.bookbrowse.com – a really great site which allows you to read an excerpt from a multitude of recently published books. You can search by author, book title or genre!

❖ www.readersread.com – brings you the first chapter of many recently published books.

Literature does not have to mean "books written by dead white English or American men". Look for literature from other English speaking countries (there is lots and lots) to give your students a richer variety of work written in the English language. Bookbrowse.com (above) for instance has a whole section on Asian and Indian writers. You can also try the following link: www.blackliterature.com

Try the following two sites for poetry:

- www.favoritepoem.org – a site collecting America's favourite poems. You can also read comments about why people like them and hear them being read aloud.
- www.emule.com/poetry – an archive of classical poetry, easy to browse through by poet. It has got a top ten list of favourite poems (chosen by visitors to the site) which makes an interesting starting point.

Problem 2: How do I choose material?

Think about the following factors when you choose a piece of literature to use with learners:

✓ Do you understand enough about the text to feel comfortable using it?
✓ Is there enough time to work on the text in class?
✓ Does it fit with the rest of your syllabus?
✓ Is it something that could be relevant to the learners?
✓ Will it be motivating for them?
✓ How much cultural or literary background do the learners need to be able to deal with the tasks?
✓ Is the level of language in the text too difficult (see below)

Problem 3: Is the text too difficult?

Obviously a teacher would not want to use a text that is completely beyond their learners. This would ultimately be frustrating for everyone involved. However, the immediate difficulty with vocabulary in a text might not be an obstacle to its comprehension. Learners can be trained to infer meaning of difficult words from context. The selection of a text must be given careful thought, but also the treatment of the text by the teacher (this means think about the tasks you set for a reading of a piece of literature, not just the text).

IV) STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING LITERATURE IN THE 21ST CENTURY

In today's globalized, technology-mediated society, a course on contemporary world literature can be especially useful for exploring national, ethnic, linguistic, and socio-political issues, in addition to serving as a model of connected and active student learning.

World literature instructors must consider several critical issues as they make choices concerning course readings, content, themes, and activities. First, the definitions of *contemporary*, *global, and literature* are fraught with conflict and constantly shifting. Second, faculty encounter a variety of barriers in the availability of international literature, including inadequate publishing, translation, and dissemination of foreign-language texts; lack of scholarly research and reviews of non-English, non-European, and / or non-dominant literary works; and the normalizing and exclusionary tendencies of world literature anthologies and World

Literature course reading lists. The third challenge lies in students' limited historical and cross-cultural knowledge and exposure, which creates an obstacle to reading and understanding texts from different countries and cultural traditions.

Finally, the sheer volume of online materials makes it difficult yet necessary for teachers and students to locate, evaluate, and select texts and resources. Moreover, the dismantling of the conventional notion of "the book" through self-publishing media and electronic texts exacerbates the problem of identifying which works to study within such a vast and diverse field.

Instructors can use online resources and multimedia in ways that help address problems of limited access to and understanding of foreign languages and cultures, and include lesser-known international writers and texts. Blogs and wikis; online self-publishing and translation sites; maps, timelines, primary documents, and other sources of historical and socio-political context; and social media platforms can help students attain a more inclusive understanding of contemporary world literature. Moreover, by integrating these resources into the course content as well as classroom activities, instructors promote a learning process that is dynamic, collaborative, and relevant to students' lives. By contributing to international blogs, collaborative Wikis, and interactive discussion, students actively participate in the concrete, quotidian realities and lives of contemporary literature.

Literary websites provide access to new writing in translation, so that students can see a range of authors and texts. Online translation and publishing sites such as *Words Without Borders* (*WWB*) provide a valuable resource in introducing students to a range of newly emerging authors and texts that may not yet be translated or anthologized in print publications. Another advantage of these sites is that they often offer bilingual versions of texts, so students can get the sound and look of the original version and teachers can point out divergences in the translated rendering of the text.

Terry Heick suggests his own ideas how to teach Shakespeare to students accustomed to tiny screens with brief flashes of communication that instantly fade away (both in meaning endurance and visible text):

1. Use combinations of media – classic and modern together, leveraging one against the other.
2. Have students analyze diverse media forms for their strengths and weaknesses –and involve both classic and digital forms.
3. Have students turn essays into videos into podcasts into letters into simply-coded games into poems into apps.
4. Allow students to choose media while you choose themes and / or academic and/or quality standards.
5. When designing units, choose the media first, then the standards (yes, this likely goes against what you were taught – but give it a try).

6. Insist all student work “leaves the classroom” and is published – then design units accordingly.

7. Use RAFT: Role, Audience, Format, and Topic / Tone / Theme. Then have them revise media in response to new roles, audiences, formats, or topics, tones, or themes. Martin Luther King’s “I Have A Dream Speech” in a new format (a video?), or to a new audience (modern hip-hop artists?), or with a new tone (angry?). Students experimenting here are experimenting with media design, which is exactly what authors do.

8. Use a thematic focus to design units, assessments, project-based learning – whatever activities students “touch”. One of the hallmark characteristics of classic literature is that it endures. This is, in part, due to timelessness of the human condition. Love lost, coming of age, overcoming obstacles, civil rights, identity, and more are all at the core of the greatest of literary works.

The ability to the texts to nail these conditions gives them their ability to endure, so teach through that. The author (e. g., Shakespeare) or media form (e. g., a play) may not seem relevant to a student – and that’s okay. The author chose that form based on prevailing local technology. Help them focus on what is being said and why – and how.

9. Use tools for digital text annotation on pdfs, note-sharing, and more to help students mark text, document questions and insights, and revisit thinking or collaborate with others during the reading of classic texts.

10. Create social media-based reading clubs. Establish a hash tag that anchors year-long discussion of certain themes, authors, text, or whatever other category/topic that makes sense for your curriculum.

11. Have students create and produce an ongoing podcast or *YouTube* channel on, as above, relevant themes, authors, texts, etc.

12. Connect the old with the new in authentic ways to center the knowledge demands of modern readers.

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LECTURE 4
THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL BY ROMAN SHYIAN AND OLEKSANDRA SAVCHENKO. EDUCATIONAL PROJECTS «ON THE WINGS OF SUCCESS». PLANNING A LESSON

The Plan

"You live a new life for every language you speak. If you know only one language, you live only once."

Czech proverb

I) THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL IN COMPARISON

A large-scale reform of Ukrainian education became possible with the adoption of the framework Law of Ukraine "*On Education"*. It determines the goal of education as holistically developing the human being as a personality and society's ultimate value, his/her talents, intellectual, creative, and physical abilities, shaping values and competences required for successful self-realization, raising responsible citizens who can make an informed social choice and act for the benefit of other people and society, using this as a basis for enriching intellectual, economic, creative, and cultural potential of the Ukrainian nation, raising the people's educational level to help Ukraine achieve sustainable development and support its European choice.

The new school greatly changes the teacher's role because he or she no longer is the sole source of knowledge for today's children, who can find any information in books or online. However, it is these conditions that emphasize the teacher's great role as a partner in bringing up a personality. An educational portal is being created

to aid the teacher that offers methodological and didactic materials, Ukrainian e-encyclopedias, multimedia textbooks, and interactive online resources.

New content of primary education defined:

- The State Standard of Primary Education was approved; it is based on a competence approach applied to teach first graders from September 1, 2018.
- Standard educational programs were approved for grades 1–4 of general secondary education.

The creators of the standard educational programs approved for grades 1–4 are Roman Shyian and Oleksandra Savchenko. It was originally planned to develop a single program. Still, there exist two at present and teachers are allowed to choose one. The program by Oleksandra Savchenko is considered to be more common and mainstream. The reason is that Oleksandra Savchenko and her co-authors have been working in the National Academy of Educational Sciences of Ukraine. They used to create a number of educational programmes.

At the same time, teachers and educators admit that the program by Roman Shyian delivers more chances and opportunities for integration. It is believed to be more advanced and forward-looking. However, teachers experience a lot of problems with keeping records and documents in case of the program by Roman Shyian. Roman Shyian became the chief executive in the team working out the State Standard of Primary Education. Roman Shyian admits that only one program was planned to be adopted.

In the course of the development two discrepancies arose: 1) What exactly and when should children know?; 2) What subjects can be integrated into one lesson? Integration in schooling means that children master skills in different subjects. To illustrate, the sample of pizza gives a chance to experience Maths (counting the pieces of pizza), language (giving descriptions), History (telling the story of its creation), and Handicraft (making a sample out of paper).

As far as the integration of branches is concerned, the program by Oleksandra Savchenko integrates 4 branches, whereas the program by Roman Shyian integrates seven branches. Those who choose the program by Roman Shyian also come across the fact that they have fewer "pure" lessons because integrated courses are prioritized. Still, Roman Shyian emphasizes that integrated courses facilitate motivation and helps avoid routine. At the same time, Oleksandra Savchenko highlights that multifunctiona disciplines should not be integrated.

Another discrepancy concerned outcomes. Oleksandra Savchenko suggests the outcomes that are planned in the program year by year. Alongside, Roman Shyian suggests the outcomes that are grouped in two cycles – after the second and fourth grade. He advocates the idea that some pupils should have more time to catch up with.

1.1. THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL BY ROMAN SHYIAN

Roman Shyian in his program emphasizes that it completely correlates with The State Standard of Primary Education; it is based on a competence approach applied to teach first graders. The aim of mastering English is defined as the necessity to form a communicative competence in order to facilitate other learning competences. The main aims are as follows:

1) to speak on the topics and situations outlined in the program;
2) to listen to and comprehend authentic messages;
3) to understand authentic texts in the course of reading;
4) to share ideas in the written form;
5) to apply all necessary experience received at the other lessons;
6) to add nonverbal communication to express the ideas adequately;
7) to assess information and argue it;
8) to speak out feelings and attitudes;
9) to interact in both oral and written forms of communication;
10) to choose and apply efficient communicative strategies;
11) to apply learning strategies for self-development.

The authors are sure that such an approach compliments successful cross-cultural interaction in future. They define that the skills of pupils equal *Pre-A1 Level* in the end of the second grade and they correspond to *A1 Level* in the end of the fourth grade.

The main strategic lines are grouped into following clusters: “Listening Comprehension”, “Visual Comprehension”, “Oral Interaction”, “Oral Communication”, “Written Interaction”, “Written Communication”, and “Online Interaction”.

“Listening Comprehension”: Pupils should respond to short statements, questions, orders, and requests. It is complimentary to use video fragments, images, and gestures. Pupils should also apprehend familiar nouns, names of the days, colours, and numbers.

“Visual Comprehension”: Pupils should find and understand the meaning of the familiar words in short texts and instructions. They should guess the meaning of new words if they are accompanied with pictures and images.

“Oral Interaction”: Pupils have to ask and answer questions about themselves and their routine activities. They should be able to greet each other, say good-bye and ask for details if necessary.

“Oral Communication”: Pupils have to give descriptions and comment on their feelings and emotions. They must speak out their ideas and share their suggestions.

"Written Interaction": Pupils ought to share simple information about their names, surnames, places of living, etc. They have to greet, excuse and say good-bye in writing.

"Written Communication": Pupils must describe themselves using simple words and structures. They can write down words expressing their feelings and emotions.

"Online Interaction": Pupils can contact online in a social way. They can share simple personal information, send congratulations, and interact with their partners.

The situations comprise such issues as "I, My Family and Friends", "Free Time", "Nature", "Holidays and Traditions in Ukraine and the UK", "A Person", "Eating Habits", and "School". Vocabulary lists are accentuated in accordance with each issue in particular.

1.2. THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL BY OLEKSANDRA SAVCHENKO: THE FUNDAMENTALS

The new State Standard for Primary Education was created as an innovative product with the participation of a wide range of stakeholders. A group of scholars from the NAES of Ukraine took an active part in its development. The experience of foreign countries where reforms of the content of primary education on the basis of standardization and competence-based approach have taken/are taking place has been taken into account (Poland, Scotland, Northern Ireland, etc.)

The Typical Educational Program developed by the scholars of the NAES of Ukraine is based on the principles of child-centeredness and environmental compatibility; coordination of the objectives of the subject (course) with the expected outcomes and content; practical orientation of the expected outcomes; accessibility and scientific content; continuity and perspective content for the development of a child; interconnected formation of key and subject competencies in each educational area; opportunities to implement the content of education through subjects or integrated courses; possibilities to adapt the content of the program to the individual peculiarities of children (intellectual, physical, cognitive).

Taking into account the integrated nature of each competence, the program recommends systematic use of intrinsic and interpersonal relationships that promote the integrity of the outcomes of primary education and the transfer of skills in new situations, and is a prerequisite for the formation of basic (crosscutting) abilities.

In the process of developing a typical educational program the scholars have defined the following aspects of research: how to prevent the possibility of overloading in a new primary school; how to define the "core of content" for integrated courses, what number of educational areas and what is appropriate to integrate, how to predict in each of the areas the interconnection of key and subject

competencies, because all competencies are important, but each educational area has its own priorities for their formation. The new document of the European Commission (Brussels) on the modernised European Reference Framework of Key Competencies for Lifelong Learning (January 2018) confirmed the effectiveness of the application of a competence-based approach in the education of different countries. It is determined that its correct implementation allows one to expect the development of critical thinking of young Europeans, the ability to solve problems, teamwork skills, communication and negotiation as well as analytical and creative abilities, and the perception of values between cultures.

The content of primary education was modernised in a way to improve the implementation of a child development priorities, preserve of children's health, strengthen Ukrainian-centric nature of instruction, humanisation, differentiation, and increase the proportion of practical and creative tasks; the work of pupils with a computer as a means of educational activity. With the purpose of social development of junior schoolchildren, the instruction of the ecological worldview was introduced in a format of an integrated course "Man and the World". Its content could be realized by means of various programs ("Environment at a glance", "Natural science", "Man and the world", "Environment"). Variable programs on labour education, fine arts, music, foundations of health and physical culture were approved as well.

II) THE EDUCATIONAL PROJECT "ON THE WINGS OF SUCCESS"

The educational project «On the Wings of Success» was suggested by Anzhelika Tsymbalaru as the program worked out in correspondence with the State Standard of Primary Education. The aims of the program are:

1) personality development comprising spiritual, psychological, social and physical evolution; the promotion of cognitive skills;
2) moral and ethic, civil, national, aesthetical, physical and ecological education of a child;
3) the formation of an integral concept of the scientific world;
4) positive emotional attitude of a child to their own personality, family, citizenship, schooling and education;
5) psychological and pedagogical adaptation of a child to the process of schooling and education;
6) the development of soft and key competences;
7) the enhancement of cultural interaction in various activities;
8) the formation of the abilities to express themselves, to adapt their behaviour due to requirements of constant self-development.

The program is based on the principles of humanization, predictive value, permanent development, and integrity. The fundamental approaches are personal, efficient, competitive, integrative, and consistent. Thus, the program creates fundamentals to launch education as a system characterized by humane strategy and being personally-oriented. The educational aims and outcomes are interrelated. A personally-oriented approach is realized thanks to the fact that all the themes correlate with interests and requirements of the recipients. Integration helps investigate interdisciplinary and intradisciplinary relations. The unified terminology is applied to all the subjects and helps avoid repetitions if they are not necessary.

The peculiarity of the program is that it consists of 6 subjects instead of 12. The main educational branches, namely "Natural", "Civil and Historical", and "Social and Health Enhancing", are combined with the help of integral subject "The Universe". Linguistic and literary educational branch is embodied in two subjects (Ukrainian and English). There exist two levels of the program. They are basic and advanced. Each school can choose the sphere to specialize in, though the can select none. In the case, one extra schooling hour is devoted to either declamation, or drama, or swimming, or choreography.

III) THE SCHEME FOR PLANNING AN ENGLISH LESSON

3.1. A STARTING POINT FOR PLANNING A LESSON

Every lesson and class is different. The content depends on what the teacher wants to achieve in the lesson. However, it is possible to make some generalisations. Students who are interested in, involved in and enjoy what they are studying tend to make better progress and learn faster. When thinking about an English lesson it is useful therefore to keep the following three elements in mind – ***Engage*** – ***Study*** – ***Activate***.

Engage: This means getting the students interested in the class. Engaging students is important for the learning process.

Study: Every lesson usually needs to have some kind of language focus. The study element of a lesson could be a focus on any aspect of the language, such as grammar or vocabulary and pronunciation. A study stage could also cover revision and extension of previously taught material.

Activate: Telling students about the language is not really enough to help them learn it. For students to develop their use of English they need to have a chance to produce it. In an activate stage the students are given tasks which require them to use not only the language they are studying that day, but also other language that they have learnt.

A lesson plan is a framework for a lesson. If you imagine a lesson is like a journey, then the lesson plan is the map. It shows you where you start, where you finish and the route to take to get there.

Essentially the lesson plan sets out what the teacher hopes to achieve over the course of the lesson and how he or she hopes to achieve it. Usually they are in written form but they don't have to be. New or inexperienced teachers may want to or be required to produce very detailed plans – showing clearly what is happening at any particular time in the lesson. However in a realistic teaching environment it is perhaps impractical to consider this detail in planning on a daily basis. As teachers gain experience and confidence planning is just as important but teachers develop the ability to plan more quickly and very experienced teachers may be able to go into class with just a short list of notes or even with the plan in their heads.

Whatever the level of experience, it is important that all teachers take time to think through their lessons before they enter the classroom. One of the most important reasons to plan is that the teacher needs to identify his or her **aims** for the lesson. Teachers need to know what it is they want their students to be able to do at the end of the lesson that they could not do before. Here are some more reasons planning is important:

- ❖ It gives the teacher the opportunity to predict possible problems and therefore consider solutions.
- ❖ It makes sure that lesson is balanced and appropriate for class.
- ❖ It gives teachers confidence.
- ❖ Planning is generally good practice and a sign of professionalism.

Many teachers will find themselves having to use a course book. There are advantages and disadvantages to having a course book – but although they do provide a ready-made structure for teaching material, it is very unlikely the material was written for the teachers' particular students. Each class is different and teachers need to be able to adapt material from whatever source so that it is suitable for their students. A course book can certainly help planning, but it cannot replace the teacher's own ideas for what he or she wants to achieve in a class.

What are the principles of planning?

- ➢ **Aims** – considering realistic goals for the lesson, not too easy but not too difficult. You may find the following checklist useful:
  - ✓ *What do the students know already?*
  - ✓ *What do the students need to know?*
  - ✓ *What did you do with the students in the previous class?*
  - ✓ *How well do the class work together?*
  - ✓ *How motivated* are the students?
- ➢ **Variety** – an important way of getting and keeping the students engaged and interested.
- ➢ **Flexibility** – expect the unexpected! Things do not always go to plan in most lessons. Experienced teachers have the ability to cope when things go wrong. It's useful

when planning to build in some extra and alternative tasks and exercises. Also teachers need to be aware of what is happening in the classroom. Students may raise an interesting point and discussions could provide unexpected opportunities for language work and practice. In these cases it can be appropriate to branch away from the plan.

Effective lesson planning is the basis of effective teaching. A plan is a guide for the teacher as to where to go and how to get there. However – do not let the plan dominate – be flexible in your planning so that when the opportunities arise you can go with the flow.

3.2. WRITING A PLAN: TIPS AND POINTS TO CONSIDER

Points to consider when writing the plan

1. *What is the main topic of the lesson?* If the activities in the lesson have a logical link then the learners will be able to follow you and the lesson, more easily.
2. *How can I enhance their interest?* Begin the lesson by involving the children straight away. Show them a picture, photo or object to capture their attention and indicate which topic the lesson is based on.
3. *How can I challenge them?* Every learner, whatever their age or level needs to be challenged. If there is no challenge, then there is no learning. If there is no learning, there is no motivation. Think about what they already know and make sure your lesson is not just teaching them the same thing.
4. *How much should I review what they have already done?* Having said you should challenge them, you can and should review previous words and work in general. Teaching a word one lesson does not mean that all the learners have actually learnt it for the next. Incorporate previously taught language in new situations to give the learners more practice.
5. *What are the objectives of the lesson?* It is vital to always think about "why" they are doing an activity, game or song. Everything on your plan should be educational. If you do not know what an activity is teaching, the learners then take it off your plan.
6. *What vocabulary do I want to teach them?* If you prepare beforehand exactly what words you are going to concentrate on and how you are going to present them you will be better equipped to explain them clearly to the children.
7. *How can I explain the activities?* You should prepare, at least mentally, how you are going to explain each activity. Explanations should be short, clear and visual. Never forget to demonstrate and check their understanding by getting one or two of them to demonstrate for you. Decide how you are going to write on the board. You can draw a diagram on your plan to remind you so that it is clearer for the learners.

8. *How much detail do I need on my plan?* If you are working from a book, then do not forget page numbers. As a guideline, imagine that someone else has to cover your class. They should be able to read your plan and teach your lesson.

9. *What order should I teach the activities in?* As a very general rule you can start with an introduction to the lesson, introduce the new language, give the children some controlled practice and move onto freer practice. Finally review what they have done and get feedback from the children themselves about what they did.

10. *What problems might I have?* If you are not sure if an activity will work; if you think it is too hard or too long, then take time before the lesson, at the planning stage, to think about how to resolve any problems that could arise. Problems could be activity related or time-table related, student-related or even teacher-related. Taking those extra minutes when planning to think about possible solutions could avoid you having a disastrous lesson.

Extra tips:

- Have a lesson plan template that you can just fill in and print off.
- Have your plan at hand at all times during the lesson.
- Tick the activities that worked well as you do them.
- Make any extra comments at the end of the lesson about what worked and what did not to help you plan your next lesson.
- Plan a series of lessons that are linked to the same theme to have coherence to your lessons.
- Have extra activities ready just in case they finish early. This can be for both mid-lesson for quick finishers or at the end of the lesson if your plan is shorter than you imagined.
- Remember to allow time for preparation, action and reviewing.
- An example of controlled practice is when you provide sentences with missing words. The learners need to fill in the gap to talk to their partner and in this way everyone produces similar language. Freer practice is when you set up the situation, for example meeting someone new, and you let the children decide on their own role-play language using what they know and what they have recently learnt. You will probably do more "freer practice" with older primary learners than the younger ones who have limited language at their disposal.

Check-list of what to include

- ✓ Materials;
- ✓ Objectives;
- ✓ Procedures;
- ✓ Estimated time for each activity;
- ✓ Explanations;
- ✓ Board work;
- ✓ Page numbers (if working from a text book);

- ✓ Extra activities;
- ✓ Follow-on activities;
- ✓ Lesson evaluation – what you would do differently next time or what went well.

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LECTURE 5
TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND INTERACTIVE CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES (PHONICS, LAPBOOKING, LINGUISTIC FAIRY-TALES, A VIDEO METHOD).

The Plan

I) LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS: ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

II) FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING STRATEGIES: THEIR BACKGROUND

III) INTERACTIVE CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL:

3.1. PHONICS

3.2. LAPBOOKING

3.3. GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY FAIRY-TALES

3.4. A VIDEO METHOD. VIDEO AND YOUNG LEARNERS.

"You can't use up creativity. The more you use, the more you have."

Maya Angelou

I) LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

There are two main reasons behind the introduction of foreign languages in primary classrooms. The **first** is the belief that "*the younger the better*", the idea that young children are intrinsically better language learners, and will therefore become more proficient more quickly. The **second** is that in an increasingly globalized world, intercultural competence is essential, and that it is important to awaken children's interests in other people and cultures at a time when they are open and receptive. More recent arguments are based on the cognitive advantages that learning a foreign language brings (such as enhanced problem solving, attentional control or ability to switch tasks, and on the claim that it helps with literacy in English but these arguments have not yet filtered into public discourse.

The belief underlying the introduction of foreign languages in primary schools is that teaching foreign languages early to young children, when they are most receptive, could close the gap which currently exists between our young people and their European counterparts in terms of foreign language capability, making them more competitive on the global market. But what is the research evidence? It is important to distinguish between children immersed in the new language they are learning, for example as immigrants in a new country, and children exposed to a foreign language in the classroom, a few hours a week at best.

In the case of immigrant children, there is much research evidence that young children are actually slower than older learners at the beginning of the learning process. Many studies have shown that adolescents and young adults are faster learners on all measures of language proficiency. Young children, however, eventually catch up with older learners and typically become indistinguishable from native speakers, which is usually not the case for adults. So, in the case of immigrant children, earlier does seem better, but only in the long run**,** and only where children are given plenty of time and opportunity to make the most of the abundant language input they are exposed to.

In the context of foreign language learning in the classroom, are primary school children also more likely than older students to reach native-like proficiency in the long run?

All research investigating whether earlier is better in instructed contexts points in the same direction:

❖ Young children are very enthusiastic and love learning foreign languages. They find it fun and they enjoy discovering new worlds and new ways of saying things.

❖ Young children are slower at learning languages than adolescent learners, in all aspects of language.

There exist certain benefits of learning a second / foreign language at an early age:

- *Learn faster and easier*;
- *Improve problem solving and creativity*;
- *Enhance future career opportunities*;
- *Connect with other cultures and build tolerance*;
- *Prevent age-related mental illness*.

One of the main benefits of learning a second language at an early age is that children learn languages faster and easier. They have more time to learn, less to learn, fewer inhibitions, and a brain designed for language learning. In short, teaching a child a second language at an early age saves them from having to learn a second language as an adult.

***1. Brain structure facilitates second language-learning*:**

On a biological level, children are like sponges. The brain of a child is designed to absorb new information unconsciously. They do this similarly to the way that we, as adults, unconsciously learn song lyrics, rhythms, and melodies. Dr. Paul Thompson, a neurology professor at UCLA, and his team found that the brain systems specialized in learning new languages grow rapidly from around six years old until 11. Then these systems basically shut down and stop growing from ages 11 to 15.

***2. Baby brains have special skills for second language-learning*:**

Before the age of 10–12 months, babies can differentiate between all sounds across all languages. Then, according to their exposure to languages, they start to

only differentiate between the language sounds which are necessary to create meaning.

***3. Children have less to learn than adults*:**

Another one of the benefits of learning a second language at an early age is that children think more simply than adults. They use fewer words, simpler sentence structures, and think less abstractly. Children who are learning a second language are not overwhelmed by the task of communicating their abstract thoughts and feelings in their second language because they simply don't have any. Then, as these children develop into adults, they learn to express themselves in both their native and second languages. Adults, on the other hand, must face the daunting task of translating complex sentence structures and abstract thoughts to be able to fully express themselves in their second languages.

***4. Children have time on their side*:**

Think about the books you read as a child compared to the books you read now. Remember it took years of schooling and required reading to be able to understand the texts you can read now. The same applies to writing, listening, and even speaking. It took at least 15 years of academic study to be able to communicate the way you do in your native language. Time is another one of the benefits of learning a second language at an early age. Children have time on their side. They can start small and simply and work their way up to both higher levels of thought and communication at the same time. Children have a great advantage over adults as second language learners.

Children who learn a second language grow up to be expert problem-solvers and creative thinkers. Their brains experience a constant workout from a young age as they try to sort out which language to speak and when. Researchers have found that in addition to enhanced problem-solving skills, bilingual children are better at planning, concentrating, and multi-tasking. And, they score higher on standardized tests. By teaching your child a second language at a young age, you are setting them up for success.

***5. Learning a second language means a constant mental workout*:**

Bilinguals are constantly experiencing **a mental workout** as they sort through more than one language system to communicate. In the 20th century, researchers and educators discouraged second language learning. A second language was thought to interfere with children's intellectual and cognitive development. While there is evidence that bilingual children do experience this interference of language systems, it turns out that the internal conflict that bilingual children experience prepares them to be expert problem solvers.

***6. Learning a second language means improved executive function*:**

Collective evidence from various studies demonstrates that **learning a second language improves the brain's executive function**. This means, bilingual children are better at planning, problem solving, concentration, and multitasking.

***7. Learning a second language leads to improved test scores*:**

Another one of the many benefits of learning a second language at an early age is improved test scores. Students who study foreign languages **perform better on standardized tests** such as the American College Test (ACT) and the SAT verbal sections. In fact, students test scores improve with the length of time they have spent learning a second language.

***8. Learning a second language fosters creative thinking*:**

A boost in creatively is another one of the benefits of learning a second language at an early age. Various studies have proven it.

One of the most used creativity tests is called the Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking (TTCT) created by Ellis Paul Torrance in 1962. These tests are designed to measure "divergent thinking" or thinking outside the norm, thinking creatively. They measure participants' divergent thinking in four areas: fluency, flexibility, originality, and elaboration.

***9. Learning a second language develops divergent thinking*:**

Bilingual children learn to see the world through different lenses. Therefore, they have different points of view at their disposal to be able to think creatively. Every new language we learn presents us with new obstacles in terms of conveying meaning. For example, Turkish and Ukrainians have no full equivalents for the English verbs "to have" or "to be" – two of the most common English verbs. As bilingual minds work out ways to bypass these barriers, they engage in intensive divergent thinking – the same divergent thinking that stimulates creativity.

***11. Bilingual children experience more opportunities for travel as they mature*:**

One of the most exciting benefits of learning a second language at an early age is being able to communicate with more people from different cultures. Children who learn a second language will have incredible opportunities to travel around the world and get to know other cultures.

English has become the world's *lingua franca* which means English is the common language that people use to communicate when they don't share a native language. These days, many young people all around the world have a pretty good understanding of English.

***12. Learning a second language prevents future age-related illnesses*:**

Many studies have hypothesized that people who speak a second language regularly may be able to delay Alzheimer's disease by 4,5 years.

New research published in the journal *Neuropsychologia* reveals that bilingualism makes changes in brain structure that are linked with resilience against Alzheimer's disease and mild cognitive impairment.

Researchers reason that this is due to the constant workout that a bilingual brain experiences as they constantly filter through information in two languages.

To sum up, there are 5 main benefits of learning a second language at an early age: *1) Learn faster and easier; 2) Improve problem solving and creativity; 3) Enhance future career opportunities; 4) Connect with other cultures and build tolerance; 5) Prevent age-related mental illness*.

This is why:

1. Our brains are designed to learn languages before we reach 11. It is a good idea to start learning as early as possible.
2. Babies can differentiate all the sounds of language before 10–12 months then they start to lose this capacity according to the sounds they find useful (their own language). Therefore, it is good to expose babies to many different languages so they retain this ability.
3. Children think more simply and therefore have less to learn. They do not get overwhelmed while attempting to communicate complex thoughts like adults do.
4. Children have much more time to dedicate to language learning. Learning is their full-time job.
5. Bilingual brains experience a non-stop, full mental workout.
6. This brain exercise leads to improved planning, problem-solving, concentrating, and multitasking.
7. This brain exercise also contributes to divergent thinking – out of the box thinking and problem-solving skills.
8. Bilingual children are more creative.
9. Learning a second language leads to improved test scores during childhood and adolescence.
10. As children get older, their bilingualism can help them get jobs and earn higher wages.
11. They will also have more opportunities to travel, connect to their heritage or get to know other cultures.
12. Finally, as they approach old age, their bilingualism will have the capacity to slow the onset of Alzheimer's disease by 4.5 years.

II) FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING STRATEGIES: THEIR BACKGROUND

Grammar-translation. For the longest time, this was also the approach used for teaching modern foreign languages. An instructor in a teacher-centered classroom would explain a grammatical rule in the native language, translation exercises would follow, perhaps preceded by some fill-in-the-blank or verb conjugation or noun declension work. Speaking, when it occurred, was in the context of completing these exercises orally and might consist of only a word or a phrase. There was no attempt at "*real*" communication.

How might a grammar-translation classroom be set up? You give your students a brief passage in the target language; you provide some new vocabulary and give your students time to try to translate the passage. There would be some new material included in the passage, perhaps a new case, a new verb tense or a more complex grammatical construction. You explain the material to your students as you work through the passage with them. After, you give your students a series of translation sentences or a brief paragraph in the native language, and they translate it into the target language for homework.

Direct. The direct method, also known as **the natural approach**, is in many ways the opposite of the grammar-translation method. In this classroom, the native language is strictly forbidden, and grammar (grammatical explanation) is de-emphasized in favor of induction, where students are supposed to figure out rules for themselves. Students are encouraged to speak at all times, making this the ultimate in student-centered classrooms.

In theory, students would learn the foreign language naturally, as they learned their native language as a child, and automatic responses to questions would become instinctive. The focus would always be on natural language, and habit formation was the key to learning. When students made mistakes, teachers would gently correct them. When they used the language correctly, they were praised. In this way, students were supposed to be able to determine a grammatical rule for themselves.

While the ideas were interesting, in practice this was a short-lived theory due to the proven lack of success of teaching L2 grammar through induction and schools not being able to provide a fully immersed environment.

What might a direct method or natural approach activity be? It could be as simple as a teacher asking questions, with the students answering, either followed by correction or praise. It could be an instructor reading a passage aloud, giving it to her students, and then having them read it aloud, so that through repetition and correction, students would understand in the same way that children learn patterns through having their parents read to them. It could be asking students to write a paragraph in their own words, again with correction or praise to follow.

Audio-lingual. The theory behind audio-lingualism is that language learning requires learning habits. Repetition is the mother of all learning. This methodology

emphasizes drill work in order to make answers to questions instinctive and automatic. New forms are first heard by students, with written forms coming only after extensive drilling. The language used for these drills is based on what is required for practicing the specific form; it might or might not be natural.

An example of an audio-lingual activity is a substitution drill. The instructor might start with a basic sentence, such as "I see the ball," after which she holds up a series of pictures through which students substitute "ball" with each new picture. Another possibility is a transformation drill, where the instructor says, "I read a book," which the students change into, "I don't read a book."

Immersion. Full Immersion is difficult to achieve in a foreign language classroom, unless you are teaching that foreign language in the country where the language is spoken, and your students are studying all topics in the target language. This would mean your students are truly immersed in the language as well as the culture for twenty-four hours a day.

For example, ESL students have an immersion experience if they are studying in an Anglophone country. In additional to studying English, they either work or study other subjects in English for a complete experience. Attempts at this methodology can be seen in foreign language immersion schools, which are becoming popular in certain school districts in the United States, and in bilingual education settings. The challenge with the former structure is that, as soon as the student leaves the school setting, he or she is once again surrounded by the native language.

An incredible way to help bring language immersion both to the classroom *and* to the students outside of school is with ***FluentU****'s online immersion program.* FluentU provides a curated library of real-world video content.

Total Physical Response (TPR). Total physical response, or TPR, emphasizes aural comprehension. For example, students are trained to respond to simple commands: stand up, sit down, close the door, open your book, etc. This first step can later be expanded to storytelling, where students act out actions described in an oral narrative, thus demonstrating their comprehension of the language.

The quintessential TPR activity still used in modern foreign language classrooms today is Simon Says.

Communicative. The communicative approach is the most widely used and most widely accepted approach to classroom-based foreign language teaching today, and in many ways, is a culmination of those approaches and methodologies that appeared before.

It emphasizes the learner's ability to communicate various functions, such as asking and answering questions, making requests, describing, narrating and

comparing. Task assignment and problem solving – two key components of critical thinking – are the means through which the communicative approach operates.

Unlike the direct method, grammar is not taught in isolation. Learning happens in context; detailed error correction is de-emphasized in favor of the theory that students will naturally develop accurate speech through frequent use. Students develop fluency through communicating in the language rather than by analyzing it.

A communicative classroom includes activities through which students are able to work out a problem or situation through narration or negotiation, and thus establish **communicative competence**. Thus some activities might include composing a dialogue in which the participants negotiate when and where they are going to eat dinner, creating a story based on a series of pictures or comparing similarities and differences between two pictures.

Task-based Learning

Task-based learning, a refinement of the communicative approach, focuses on the completion of specific tasks through which language is taught and learned. Language learners use the language that they know to complete a variety of assignments, acquiring new structures, forms and vocabulary as necessary.

Little error correction is provided. In this type of learning environment, three- to four-week segments are devoted to a specific topic: ecology, security, medicine, religion, youth culture, etc. Students learn about a specific topic, step-by-step, using a variety of resources, with each unit culminating in a final project such as a written report or presentation.

Activities are similar to those found in a communicative classroom, but they are always based around a single, specific theme.

Other Methods

Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) – There are a number of commercial products (Pimsleur, Rosetta Stone, the Michael Thomas Method) and online products (Duolingo, Babbel) which are generally used by independent language learners. These fall under the CALL method, though some – with careful preparation – have been used in tandem with traditional classroom instruction.

Reading Method – Sometimes graduate students or researchers will only need to learn how to read scholarly articles in a language, so they learn through the Reading Method, where enough grammar is taught to make it through a standard article in their field. Students do not work on speaking or listening comprehension; rather, they concentrate on building up a large reservoir of specialized vocabulary.

There are also a number of lesser-used and lesser-accepted methodologies, including:

- **Suggestopedia**, where the learning environment is made as relaxed as possible so students' brain are able to soak up language.

- **Community Language Learning**, where the instructor serves as a counselor rather than as an instructor.
- **Language analysis/awareness**, a retrograde approach that concentrates on analyzing language data sets instead of actively using language in the classroom.

III) INTERACTIVE CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL

The matter is that the methods and approaches mentioned above cannot be fully applied in primary school. They should either be adapted to or changed or some alternative interactive activities should be introduced. These comprise phonics, lapbooking, language fairy-tales for teaching phonetics, grammar and vocabulary, a video method (mainly cartoons and animated videos), and educational computer games.

3.1. PHONICS

Phonics is the relationships between the letters of written language and the sounds of spoken language. Children's reading development is dependent on their understanding of the alphabetic principle – the idea that letters and letter patterns represent the sounds of spoken language.

The goal of phonics instruction is to help children learn the alphabetic principle – the idea that letters represent the sounds of spoken language – and that there is an organized, logical, and predictable relationship between written letters and spoken sounds.

Learning that there are predictable relationships between sounds and letters allows children to apply these relationships to both familiar and unfamiliar words, and to begin to read with fluency.

Children are taught, for example, that the letter *n* represents the sound /n/, and that it is the first letter in words such as nose, nice and new. When children understand sound–letter correspondence, they are able to sound out and read (decode) new words.

Programs of phonics instruction should be:

- **Systematic:** the letter-sound relationship is taught in an organized and logical sequence
- **Explicit:** the instruction provides teachers with precise directions for teaching letter-sound relationships

Effective phonics programs provide:

Frequent opportunities for children to apply what they are learning about letters and sounds to the reading of words, sentences, and stories.

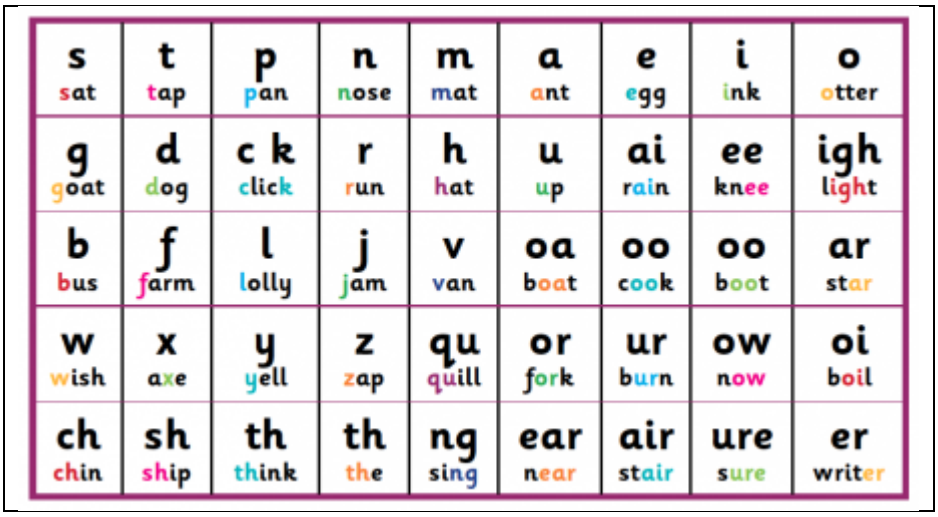
Systematic and explicit phonics instruction:

❖ Significantly improves children's word recognition, spelling, and reading comprehension

❖ Is most effective when it begins in kindergarten or first grade, but should be used as part of a comprehensive reading program with students at risk for reading disabilities or who have been identified as having a reading disability like dyslexia.

***Phonics teaching step-by-step*:**

Sort your phonemes from your graphemes, decoding from encoding and digraphs from trigraphs with our parents' guide to phonics teaching. Our step-by-step explanation takes you through the different stages of phonics learning, what your child will be expected to learn and the vocabulary you need to know.



Phonics learning step 1: decoding

Children are taught letter sounds in Reception. This involves thinking about what sound a word starts with, saying the sound out loud and then recognising how that sound is represented by a letter.

The aim is for children to be able to see a letter and then say the sound it represents out loud. This is called decoding.

Some phonics programmes start children off by learning the letters s, a, t, n, i, p first. This is because once they know each of those letter sounds, they can then be arranged into a variety of different words (for example: sat, tip, pin, nip, tan, tin, sip, etc.).

Phonics learning step 2: blending

Children then need to go from saying the individual sounds of each letter, to being able to blend the sounds and say the whole word. This can be a big step for many children and takes time.

While children are learning to say the sounds of letters out loud, they will also begin to learn to write these letters (encoding). They will be taught where they need

to start with each letter and how the letters need to be formed in relation to each other. Letters (or groups of letters) that represent phonemes are called graphemes.

Phonics learning step 3: decoding CVC words

Children will focus on decoding (reading) three-letter words arranged consonant, vowel, consonant (CVC words) for some time. They will learn other letter sounds, such as the consonants g, b, d, h and the remaining vowels e, o, u. Often, they will be given letter cards to put together to make CVC words which they will be asked to say out loud.

Phonics learning step 4: decoding consonant clusters in CCVC and CVCC words

Children will also learn about consonant clusters: two consonants located together in a word, such tr, cr, st, lk, pl. Children will learn to read a range of CCVC words (consonant, consonant, vowel, consonant) such as trap, stop, plan. They will also read a range of CVCC words (consonant, vowel, consonant, consonant) such as milk, fast, cart.

Phonics learning step 5: vowel digraphs

Children are then introduced to vowel digraphs. A digraph is two vowels that together make one sound such as: /oa/, /oo/, /ee/, /ai/. They will move onto sounding out words such as deer, hair, boat, etc. and will be taught about split digraphs (or 'magic e'). They will also start to read words combining vowel digraphs with consonant clusters, such as: train, groan and stool.

Phonics learning step 6: consonant digraphs

Children will also learn the consonant digraphs (two consonants that together make one sound) ch and sh and start blending these with other sounds to make words, such as: chat, shop, chain and shout.

Encoding, or learning to spell as well as read

Alongside this process of learning to decode (read) words, children will need to continue to practise forming letters which then needs to move onto encoding. Encoding is the process of writing down a spoken word, otherwise known as spelling. They should start to be able to produce their own short pieces of writing, spelling the simple words correctly. It goes without saying that reading a range of age-appropriate texts as often as possible will really support children in their grasp of all the reading and spelling of all the phonemes.

3.2. LAPBOOKING

A lapbook is simply a file folder that contains a variety of “mini books,” foldables, and other material that cover detailed information about a central topic. It is an example of an interactive visual organizer where students can research and record, summarize, illustrate and present what they have learnt about a particular topic or unit of work. A lapbook is a scaffolding tool that helps guide and shape

students' thinking and communication skills. What is included in a lapbook is up to the teacher and learners.

The introduction of lapbooks allows students to take a break from traditional learning practices. They are a welcome change to the daily rhythm of a lesson in that they open up opportunities to introduce important factors to modern day learning.

Firstly, students are more involved in the learning process, feel more motivated to study and automatically build their own study methods. Lapbooks create co-operation and inclusion within the class, which is geared towards a cooperative learning approach.

Secondly, lapbooks are essential to learning in that they help students remember and review information more easily and personalize learning. Studies show that when students are given hands-on activities to learn while they study, they will retain more information.

Finally, lapbooks allow parents to see what their children are learning and provide an opportunity to open up a dialogue on what happened at school that day. Parents can also help add to the lapbook and ask questions about the materials shown which allows students and parents to interact, review, and develop the concepts in question.

A lapbook is the perfect tool to demonstrate mastery of material, it is not only flexible because students can choose and add as much material as they want, but material can be stored to show objectives that were met in class.

Lapbooks allow for versatility in the classroom and can be implemented in many ways:

❖ Lapbooks have no limits – even though students need to be guided, they allow students to variate on theme: to brainstorm, research and showcase information on topics that interest them in particular.

❖ Lapbooks develop a wide range processes and skills: language (reading, writing, listening and speaking), organizational, planning, creative, fine motor, sequencing, narration, summarizing, graphics, problem-solving etc.

❖ Lapbooks are versatile and are useful in different parts of your lesson: to expand on a small area of a larger topic; to overview an entire topic; be created in stages while exploring a unit of work; be used at the end of a unit of work as a way of revising and consolidating; be used as an evaluation or assessment tool.

❖ Lapbooks are ideal for hands-on learners – though not all children like crafts, all children benefit from a hands-on approach to learning. By not just taking information in through their mind, children can organize information in a visually appealing way (mini books), like accordion folds, wheel shaped and tabbed books.

❖ Lapbooks are an inspiring way to review – when students interact with their lapbooks, their review is not dry or boring. Retention and reviewing in a natural

setting come from interacting with the material or items stored in mini books, pockets or on pinwheels.

❖ Lapbooks can fit all learners and so therefore are inclusive – a lapbook can be filled with information that suits each learners' individual needs – some may use more written data and some may have more visuals and less information.

Lapbooks are extremely flexible because they can be used in conjunction with any subject the students are learning about. They are excellent tools to use with any level student as a way of reinforcing what they are learning.

There are different types of lapbook: pre-prepared or make your own. Prepared lapbooks and templates are easy to use and can be easily linked to your coursebook. Some prepared templates can be found online and can be adapted to your chosen topic or you can use ready-made templates that are linked in to a coursebook. For example, in *Go!* and *Go On!* (Pearson) there are folder type, colourful templates that are ready and simple to use. They cover CLIL topics such as *Festivals*, the *Human Body* and the *Egyptians*. They incorporate well into your course because they are well-researched with fun activities and QR codes are provided so students can listen to songs and audio from the coursebook.

When you feel confident, you can make your own lapbook. The materials required are: pencil, card or paper, scissors, folders, felt-tip pens, templates, and glue. Some extra useful materials are envelopes, sticky tape, freezer bags, stapler, split pins, stickers, velcro and realias.

Once you've chosen an overall topic, brainstorm the information and content you would like to cover. Break it down into the smaller chunks of information. List all of these on paper or use a lapbook planner page – you can find them on the Internet.

Be sure to list your reference material whether it be a book, a website, or a video. How much information do you need? As each topic is different, it could vary from eight to twenty! Do not worry if it seems too few. As you study, your students may ask questions you had not thought of which may lead to new subtopics.

The next step is to take your list of subtopics / information, and consider what type of template or minibook would best fit the information.

Minibooks and templates

There are lots of templates to choose from – it is better to start with a few at first. Some easy options to start with are a layered book, a pocket book, a jigsaw book, a trifold, etc. Some things lend themselves to certain types of folds. Lists work well in top tab books, life cycles are suited to wheel books, and timelines are perfect in accordion books, for example. There is not a "perfect template" for any particular piece of information. Generally, any template will work for whatever type of information you want to record.

Here are the names of some templates which are easier to get started with: petal fold, shutter trifold, pocket, clamshell, flap, accordion, pamphlet, pinwheel, layered book. All of these can be easily researched in the web to see what they look like.

Lapbooks are made from folders or A3 card. They are folded into the middle of the page to create the "*doors*" – these 2 flaps will become your front cover. Like any front cover it has to be explanatory, inviting and appealing. You can choose a title, glue pictures or draw something related to the topic, use realia and any decoration you like.

Brainstorming the topic matter is a really helpful way of deciding the make up for the lapbook in question. Mind maps are a really useful tool for planning, analyzing, conceptualizing and deciding what information to put in your lapbook.

If you are working, for example, on an animal lapbook you can include: vocabulary, maps, habitat, classification, diet, prey / predators, behaviour, characteristics, life cycle, conservation. A "*Back to School*" lapbook is an ideal less stressful way to start the school year, a brainstorm on this topic would be see the example in the figure.

The most important things about lapbooking are that they are fun and versatile for all ages and above all students are using a life essential skill, which is creativity.

3.3. GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY FAIRY-TALES

Children enjoy listening to stories in their mother tongue. Storytelling is an ideal introduction to foreign languages as stories provide a familiar context for the child.

Moreover, if teachers want to attract children's attention they must propose a motivating activity such as storytelling. Children start enjoying literature from an early age by the teacher's use of extensive reading of stories. They develop their literary competence – a combination of linguistic, socio-cultural, historical and semiotic awareness (Brumfit & Carter). Literature, in general, allows pupils to understand and appreciate cultures and ideologies different from their own. Consequently, children learn to respect other cultures and to be involved in them. In addition to this, storytelling provides contexts for talking, listening, reading, writing and other activities such as dance and drama.

There are a number of reasons why teachers use children's stories:

❖ Stories are motivating and fun creating a desire to communicate. They develop positive attitudes and help children to keep on learning. Positive affective factors facilitate acquiring a second language. Children will learn better if they have a positive attitude towards what they are doing.

❖ Stories exercise the imagination. Children imagine sceneries, characters and so on about a story. For example, if they become personally involved in a story they can identify with some characters.

❖ Stories provide a rich resource for education about human societies, offering insights into life in many different communities and into complex cultures.

❖ Stories are a useful tool in linking fantasy and imagination with the child's real world. So children can make sense of their everyday life. Stories help children to understand the world and to share it with others.

❖ Literature has a social and emotional value, which is a vital part of its role in the development of children's language learning skills and literacy. Listening to stories in class is a shared social experience. Storytelling provokes a response of laughter, sadness, excitement and anticipation, which can encourage the child's social and emotional development. In addition, there is always a sort of interaction between the reader and his listeners so s/he can ask for the listeners' collaboration to say what happens next, for instance. Listening to stories is a natural way of acquiring language. The child learns to deduce what happens next, to deduce the meaning of words from the context or visual aids. This helps to build their confidence. Moreover, children need to develop a series of characteristics to enable them to fit into the society they live in, to become aware of themselves in relation to others, to share and co-operate. They can achieve this by listening to stories. For instance, children learn about other experiences and they can compare those experiences with theirs.

❖ Children enjoy listening to stories over and over again. This allows certain language items to be acquired while others are being overtly reinforced. Little by little they make sense out of the listening. In addition, repetition also encourages participation in the narrative, thereby providing a type of pattern practice in a meaningful context.

Telling stories is an example of input – input of language through listening and reading – for the child to activate and develop his own learning mechanisms. Children learn a foreign language better in situations in which attention is focused on meaning rather than on language itself. That happens with a tale. It attracts children's attention and they understand the plot of the story. The vocabulary is not abstract but concrete. Moreover, it is useful because children can understand the new vocabulary without any translations into their mother tongue. Teachers can make use of voice intonation or body language to facilitate the process of meaning understanding. This happens when telling a story. In addition to this, it is important to remember the relevance given to personal experiences by children of this age. This justifies the use of topics they like, such as tales, in order to motivate them.

Stories must be chosen depending on the age and the linguistic level of the pupils. Moreover, there must be a particular purpose when selecting a story so that it will carry the ideas the teacher wishes to focus on. Another important question to think about is whether to use simplified or authentic storybooks for the children.

Story based activities are ways of achieving meaningful learning. The knowledge that the child already has acts as a sort of bridge for the knowledge s/he will learn. Storytelling achieves this kind of meaningful learning. Stories introduce new vocabulary and grammar to those already known by the pupils. In addition, the teacher provides them with activities based on the story in which they practice the same kind of learning. For instance, school pupils should practice some new grammatical rules along with some that are already known. These activities usually integrate various aspects of language learning. Pupils consolidate the new ones by doing those activities. Moreover, as these activities are related to their field of interests the teacher involves them in story telling. Children should be motivated to do the activities and, consequently, to learn.

3.4. A VIDEO METHOD. VIDEO AND YOUNG LEARNERS

Video is a great resource to use in class and there are an endless number of ways to exploit it to create motivating, memorable classes with a high level of language production.

The choice of video may well be limited depending on what is available so the suggested activities have been kept deliberately general. They also include several tasks where you have the sound of the video down, and you simply use the moving image, so they work with videos originally in any language. You can also get a lot of mileage out of using cartoons, soap operas or reality TV shows that are aimed at teenagers if you do not watch them, as the students will be able to tell all about the characters and you can exploit the natural information gap between you and them!

If you are using films, try to get them with subtitles in English. If you cannot, make the tasks based mainly on the visuals. You need a high level of proficiency in a language to be able to follow films so lower levels could find it demotivating if the tasks are too difficult. Using video should increase the students' level of motivation, so take your time to prepare tasks that will be challenging but not impossible for students to succeed in.

When you are planning a video lesson, try to think of it in three parts:

❖ ***Before you watch***

The important thing about *before you watch* tasks is that they get students into the topic and you prepare them for what they are going to see. This is the time to pre-teach any tricky vocabulary if you need to. *Before you watch* tasks could be

brainstorms, quizzes, vocabulary matching or any other task that gives some background knowledge about what they are going to watch.

❖ ***While you watch***

These are the tasks that students do while they are viewing, or during a pause in the viewing. Remember how annoying it is to be interrupted continuously while you are watching TV. Bear this in mind while you prepare these tasks. They should be short and simple. You are asking your students to do a lot of multi-tasking by giving them *while you watch* tasks and you could be in danger of converting a potentially fun and enjoyable class into a real bore by over-loading the students with things to do.

❖ ***After you watch***

Many tasks can follow on from watching a video and what you choose to do really depends on what you are watching. To give a few examples, a discussion could follow on naturally from a documentary, a role play or a "what happens next" could follow on from a soap opera and a character study or making your own comic strip could follow a cartoon. There are some classic video activities to get you started:

1) True or false?

Students watch a section of video and have to write three sentences about what they see. The sentences can be a mix of true and false. Pause the viewing periodically and ask a couple of students to read a sentence and the others must say whether it is true or false.

2) Sound down

Sit students in pairs facing one another, with one facing the screen and the other facing away. Turn the sound down and play about two minutes of video. Choose the section carefully to ensure there is enough action. The student watching must explain what is happening to their partner. Then change places so the other student gets a turn. Then watch the whole clip to see how accurate they were. If you like, do the task once, and then ask the students who were watching which words they needed. Put some vocabulary on the board then repeat the task so they get another go at describing the action.

3) Dubbing

This can be a lot of fun. Choose a scene and get the students into groups according to how many characters there are. Play the scene without volume and get each student to choose a character. Play it again, stopping after each bit of speech and get the students to invent the dialogue. You need to go slowly and play back many times to give the students time to think and write. When they have the dialogue for the scene, play again and get each group to dub the scene with their dialogue. You can also do this with adverts.

4) Hold it there!

Pause the video at an appropriate moment to leave a still image on the screen. Use the image as if it were a photo or a picture and use it to prompt discussion, create role-plays or simply for students to describe what they can see.

5) What is going to happen next?

Pause the video at an appropriate moment and ask students to predict what is going to happen next. You could put the class into teams to discuss the options and the team who is closest to what actually happens when you watch the scene wins a point.

6) Order the events

Write a list of events that happen in the video clip on the board or on a worksheet but put them in the wrong order. Students watch and re-order the events correctly.

Just a word of warning to end on, do check all the material you show students beforehand just in case there are scenes that you think may not be suitable. It could be quite uncomfortable, for you and them, if very violent scenes appear on the screen and you are with a class of young students. Also, be careful to check the school's policy on using video and do not allow any students to see films with higher age restrictions than the age of the youngest student in the class.

If you use it well, video can really be an excellent resource for the EFL classroom and as with all resources, the more you use them the more ideas you will get on how to use them.

The benefits of using video in the classroom:

Learners aged 3–8:

- Children enjoy language learning with video
- Video is an effective way of studying body language (Children gain confidence through repetition. Young children love to hear stories again and again and the same goes for video. By watching a video several times children can learn by absorption and imitation.)

All Young Learners:

- ✓ Video communicates meaning better than other media (Video presents language in context in ways that a cassette cannot. Learners can see who is (or what is!) speaking, where the speakers are, what they are doing, etc. All these visual clues can help comprehension.)
- ✓ Video represents a positive exploitation of technology (Teenagers, in particular, have a positive attitude towards television and video. It is seen as being "modern" compared to books.)

There are however some potential pitfalls that teachers should watch out for:

- Passivity. Children are used to passively watching TV at home on the sofa. Teachers should try to avoid learners "switching off" in class when the video is

switched on by providing stimulating activities where the child can interact with and learn from the video.

- Parents. This is linked to the above. Some parents may get annoyed when hearing their child has spent the class watching the TV as they can do that at home. This can be prevented by ensuring that time actually watching the video is kept to a minimum and also by the children having something concrete to show to parents connected to the video: a worksheet, picture etc.

Once the decision has been made to use a video in class, thought should be given as to what purpose the video is being used for i.e. the role of the video. The way the video is used and the materials prepared for use with the video will depend on the role the video is to take:

- Developing listening skills. Listening for global understanding, listening for detail.
- To provide information. To provide content relevant to students' needs and interests.
- Presenting or reinforcing language. Grammar, vocabulary, functions.
- Stimulating language production. Video used as a basis for discussion, a model for learners to follow, a visual aid.

A scheme of work using a video sequence may, however, encompass more than one of these roles. Learners may watch a video to find out information about, for example, a famous person. The same lesson may also include work on developing listening skills to enable learners to extract the relevant information. It could then could be used to develop vocabulary on the topic of "lives".

Criteria for selecting video:

When selecting an authentic video for use in the classroom certain general criteria should be kept in mind.

- Watchability (Is the video interesting? Would a young native speaker want to watch this video?)
- Completeness (This idea of completeness is important for young learners whose primary motivation for watching a video is enjoyment.)
- Length (The length of the clip is important, it should not be too long, perhaps between 30 seconds and 10 minutes depending on the learning objective.)
- Appropriateness of Content (The content should be suitable for Young Learners. How has the video been rated; "Universal", "Parental Guidance", for ages "13"or "18"? Would the video be suitable for viewing in all cultures?)
- Level of maturity (Children mature very quickly so a group of 7-year-olds watching a video made for 5-year-olds would probably regard it as "too babyish". On the other hand, using a video intended for older children with a group of younger

children might lead to the children not being able to understand the concepts in the video.)

- Availability of Related Materials (Many authentic videos now come with readymade materials that can be used for language teaching.)

If, however, the video is being used for presenting language or for comprehension tasks, there are further factors which should be considered when selecting a video.

- Degree of visual support (A good idea is to choose scenes that are very visual. The more visual a video is, the easier it is to understand - as long as the pictures illustrate what is being said.)
- Clarity of picture and sound. (If the video has been copied from the television, it is important to make sure both the picture and sound are clear.)
- Density of language (This refers to the amount of language spoken in a particular time. Videos where the language is dense are more difficult for learners to comprehend.)
- Speech delivery (Clarity of speech, speech rate and accents are all factors in determining how difficult a video excerpt will be for students to comprehend.)
- Language content (In using video to present language, an important factor to consider is the linguistic items (particular grammatical structures, language functions, or colloquial expressions) presented in the scene. Another important factor is the amount of repetition of the language content. Authentic videos for young learners will often contain a lot of repetition. It is also useful to see if the linguistic content in the video can be linked to that of the language curriculum or the course book thus providing a way to integrate video work into the course as a whole.
- Language level (The language level of the video should be appropriate for the level of the class without the teacher having to explain too much.)

Video can be of different types, for example: animation / cartoons; educational programmes; TV documentaries made for children about science / nature etc; TV advertisements; music (programmes about musicians, video clips); drama; TV series / soaps for young people (especially good for seeing life in Britain, maybe not so easy to understand!)

Cartoons are powerful teaching tools and can:

- Tell a complex story in a few images.
- Provide comment and provoke thought on events and issues in the news.
- Give an example of vocabulary related to current trends and fads.
- Provide easily identifiable characters to form the basis for sketches.
- Show culture in action with the ways that men or women are behaving and are expected to behave.

➢ Comment on and illustrate a whole range of issues like racism, teenage relationships, sexism, ageism, family relationships.

The language used can sometimes be too colloquial and referential for lower levels to cope with. Choose your cartoons and comic strips with care.

Activities for exploiting cartoons

Exploring the theme of humour:

Take one cartoon which depicts absurd situations. For example, this could be a Gary Larsen cartoon or one of those greeting cards using a black and white photo and a funny sentence which gives a strange twist.

Ask students to work in groups and get them to discuss:

❖ What does the cartoon mean?
❖ Why is it funny?
❖ What techniques are used to make it funny?

Their own sense of humour and national tastes in humour:

Use a cartoon to introduce the idea of humour and culture. Take a selection of cartoons and ask groups to decide what each one means and if they think it is funny. Vote on the funniest cartoon. Ask the students to discuss:

❖ What types of method are used to make us laugh?
❖ Do people laugh at ordinary situations in their country?
❖ Are political figures made fun of?
❖ Do they use satire or slap-stick humour?
❖ What are the most popular types of humour on TV?

This can be developed into a lesson on jokes and the types of joke that they find funny.

Dealing with issues

❖ Take one or more cartoons which comment on an issue in the news. A national newspaper or magazine like *Private Eye* are good sources. Use one to introduce the topic and brainstorm vocabulary.

❖ Use a selection of cartoons to discuss the different aspects of the issue. Take an issue like disciplining children or dealing with teenagers. Ask if they agree with the cartoonists' opinions.

❖ Use one to end a lesson or series of lessons on a social or political issue. Ask students to write a caption for the cartoon. You can prepare them for this by a *match the caption to the cartoon* exercise.

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LECTURE 6
THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES FOR BASIC SECONDARY SCHOOL. TEACHING PHONETICS, VOCABULARY AND GRAMMAR

The Plan

I) THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES FOR YEARS 5–9
II) TEACHING PHONETICS IN THE BASIC SECONDARY SCHOOL
2.1. HOW TO TEACH VOWEL PRONUNCIATION IN ENGLISH
2.2. HOW TO MAKE PHONICS SUITABLE FOR TEENS AND ADULTS
III) TEACHING TEENS IN THE EFL SETTING: GRAMMAR
3.1. TEACHING GRAMMAR: PRACTICAL TIPS FROM BRITISH COUNCIL
3.2. PLANNING A GRAMMAR LESSON
IV) PRESENTING VOCABULARY

If you don't know how to pronounce a word, say it loud!

William Strunk, Jr.

I) THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES FOR YEARS 5–9

The Educational Programmes for teaching English (Years 5–9) completely correlate with the State Standard of General Secondary Education. Its aim is to develop and socialize pupils' skills; to form their national self-awareness, culture, worldview focuses, ecologically-friendly cognition and behaviour; to enhance their creative skills; and to promote their abilities to self-develop under the circumstances of constant global challenges and changes. The context of foreign languages' teaching is treated within the bounds of cross-cultural paradigm. This paradigm means mastering both a language and a culture, namely and corresponds the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (a guideline used to describe achievements of learners of foreign languages across Europe and, increasingly, in other countries):

- to understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment).
- to communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters.
- to describe in simple terms aspects of their background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.

- to understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc.
- to deal with most situations likely to arise while travelling in an area where the language is spoken.
- to produce simple connected text on topics that are familiar or of personal interest.
- to describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.

After the completion of Year 9 pupils of general secondary schools gain A2+ Level, whereas those who graduate from specialized schools reach B1 Level.

Foreign languages as a component of general secondary education realize educational, pedagogic, and developmental functions.

Its educational function aims at:

- pupils' comprehension of any foreign language's value to operate in multilingual and multicultural environment;
- mastering data about foreign culture, history, and traditions;
- the involvement into cross-cultural interaction;
- the evaluation of personal peculiarities in the process of mastering foreign languages;
- understanding foreign linguistic phenomena, differences in the value-belief systems;
- forming an ability to choose and adapt various communicative strategies to realise communicative targets

The pedagogic function highlights:

- ✓ the pupils' positive and tolerant attitude to a foreign language as a means of communication, the nation, culture, traditions, and a mode of life;
- ✓ the development of the ethic norms for cross-cultural interaction;
- ✓ emotional and appreciative attitude to the communicative environment;
- ✓ the necessity to master a foreign language as a complimentary means of communication.

The developmental function focuses on:

- linguistic, intellectual, and cognitive abilities;
- the readiness to participate in the cross-cultural interaction;
- the necessity for further improvement in the sphere of foreign languages;
- the ability to transfer linguistic knowledge and skills and efficiently apply them in the necessary situation.

The Educational Programmes for teaching English (Years 5–9) outline all key competences that fully realize the essence of foreign languages' learning. The list of competencies to be acquired by students has already been set forth in the Law "*On Education*". It was drawn up taking into account the Recommendations of the

European Parliament and of the European Council on Key Competencies for Lifelong Learning (dated 18 December 2006):

- fluency in the state language;
- ability to communicate in the mother tongue (if different from the state language) and foreign languages;
- mathematical competency;
- competency in natural sciences, engineering and technologies;
- innovation;
- environmental competency;
- information and communication competency;
- lifelong learning;
- social and civic competencies related to the ideas of democracy, justice, equality, human rights, well-being and healthy lifestyle, and to awareness of equal rights and opportunities;
- cultural competency;
- entrepreneurship and financial literacy.

The so-called cross-cutting skills are common for all the competencies: reading with understanding, ability to express one's own opinion orally and in writing, critical and systemic thinking, ability to logically substantiate one's position, creativity, proactivity, ability to manage emotions constructively, assess risks, make decisions, resolve problems, ability to cooperate with others.

In order to acquire competencies, students will study based on the activity-based approach, that is, they will do something more often instead of just sitting at their desks and listening to the teacher. Also, the New Ukrainian School Concept offers implementation of the integrated and project-based learning. In this way, students get a full picture of the world since they study the phenomena from the viewpoint of different sciences and learn to resolve real problems applying the knowledge gained from various subjects.

The Educational Programmes for teaching English (Years 5–9) suggest content lines grouped according to the themes and possible outcomes depending on whether it is a general secondary school or a specialized school. The Programmes both focus on communicative skills (comprising receptive, productive, and interactive) and outline the minimum linguistic capacity for oral and written messages. All the parameters mentioned above are itemized in accordance with each topic.

II) TEACHING PHONETICS IN THE BASIC SECONDARY SCHOOL

Every ESL student should have a pronunciation element to his language studies. Sometimes, though, a student may need more than one strategy for tackling English pronunciation.

By making sure you use variety in your pronunciation lessons, your students will be more successful with English pronunciation and gain the confidence that comes with it.

2.1. HOW TO TEACH VOWEL PRONUNCIATION IN ENGLISH

Listen and repeat: This will be the first and most common method of teaching sound specific pronunciation in English. You say the target sound and have your students repeat it after you. If you are teaching a long word with multiple syllables, start with the final syllable of the word and have your class repeat it. Then add the penultimate syllable and say the two together having your class repeat after you. Work backwards in this manner until your students are able to pronounce the entire word correctly.

Isolation: When working on a specific sound, it may help your students to isolate that particular sound from any others. Instead of presenting a certain sound as part of a complete word in English, you can simply pronounce the sound itself repeatedly. When you do, your students can say it along with you repeatedly, focusing on the small nuances in the correct pronunciation and also engraining the sound pattern into their minds. This is especially helpful when you have several students struggling with a specific sound delineation.

Minimal pairs: Minimal pairs are a great way to focus pronunciation on just one sound. If you are not familiar with linguistics, a minimal pair is two words that vary in only one sound. For example, *rat* and *rate* are minimal pairs because only the vowel sound differs between the two words. Additional minimal pairs are *pin* and *pen*, *dim* and *dime*, and *bat* and *pat*. You can use minimal pairs to help your students with their pronunciation by focusing on one particular sound. In addition to the pronunciation benefits, your students will also expand their vocabularies when you teach minimal pairs.

Record and replay: At times, your students may think they are using correct pronunciation when in fact they are saying something quite different. By using a device to record what your students are actually saying, you have empirical data to play back for each person. Encourage him to listen to what he actually said rather than what he thinks he said. You may also want him to compare a recording of a native speaker against his recording of himself. In this way, your students will have a more objective understanding of their true pronunciation and be able to take steps to correct it.

Use a mirror: Giving your students a chance to view their own physical movements while they are working on their pronunciation can be of great value. You can always encourage your students to look at your mouth and face as you pronounce certain sounds, but they will also benefit from seeing what movements *they* are making as they speak. Sometimes, becoming aware of the physical movements involved in pronunciation is all your students will need to correct pronunciation issues of which they are unaware.

Phonetics: When your students are facing a pronunciation challenge, it could be that English spelling is adding to the mystery of the spoken word. Instead of spelling new vocabulary out on the white board, try using phonetic symbols to represent the sounds (rather than the alphabet to represent the spelling). If you were to use phonetic symbols, the word seat would be written /si:t/ and eat would be written /i:t/. You can find a list of the phonetic symbols on several websites or in introductory linguistics books. Once you teach your students the *International Phonetic Alphabet*, you can use those symbols any time you introduce new vocabulary to your students.

Show a vowel diagram: If you are using phonetic symbols to help you teach vowel pronunciation, a diagram of where each English vowel sound is produced can be eye opening for your students. Print copies to distribute in class or show your students where they can find this diagram online. When students know which area of the mouth in which they should be making their sounds, they may have an easier time distinguishing between similar sounds because they are produced in different areas of the mouth.

Sing: Surprisingly enough, singing can be a good way for your ESL students to practice their vowel pronunciation. Because singing requires a person to maintain vowel sounds over more than just a moment, it can give your students a chance to focus in on the target sound and adjust what sound she is making.

Tongue twisters: Though tongue twisters are probably more popular for practicing consonant pronunciation, they are still a valuable resource for vowel practice. Not only are they a challenge to your students' pronunciation abilities, they add an element of fun to the classroom that can help your students relax and therefore free them to be more daring in their attempts at English.

Target language specific sounds: Some pronunciation patterns are found consistently in students with the same native language. Being aware of these patterns is helpful in addressing problems your students may not even know they have. You can find practice exercises to target specific pronunciation patterns, or you can write your own to target the specific needs of your class. Either way, making students aware of pronunciation patterns of speakers of their native language can be the biggest help in eliminating the mispronunciations.

Whether you are teaching conversation or grammar, pronunciation will always come into play in any ESL class. By using various methods to aid your students, their pronunciation will be more accurate and their attitudes will be more positive. Always remind your students that learning English takes time and acquiring pronunciation is a process. Encourage them that being aware of problems in pronunciation is the first half of correcting them!

2.2. HOW TO MAKE PHONICS SUITABLE FOR TEENS AND ADULTS

When people hear "phonics" they think "childish", and not without reason. Most phonics programmes are childish, but not because they teach reading using the sounds and symbols of the language. They are childish because they are created for little children, emergent readers who have no history of trying and failing to learn to read. There are some wonderful programmes for little ones.

The problem with using any teaching method intended for young children is that you automatically infantilise the learner no matter what their age. A struggling reader, whether 11, 19 or 71, is fully aware that most 7-year-olds can out-read them. For this very reason, they need a solution which is intentionally structured to account for their maturity and experience and not just their reading age.

If you want to use phonics with anyone heading into adolescence or beyond, please ask the following questions. Even very good programmes which lack these features can create barriers rather than tear them down.

Is it safe to make mistakes? It is not enough just to be encouraging and friendly. Working with older discouraged learners requires strategic thinking about creating a safe environment. For us, it is The Deal: *you never have to know anything we have not learned together*. Not just safe, but guaranteed safe. There is nothing like seeing a young person laugh at a mistake because they finally understand that sting-free error correction does not feel humiliating. Instead, it is just how learning happens.

Who is in control? Older learners need to do enough but not too much. They need to be able to control the speed of the lesson and learn to trust themselves with their own learning. Scaffolding is important, but only if it works for the learner. If lesson structure is inflexible, older students will get bored.

How much teaching is involved? Older students need to discover the language for themselves, and they need to do that without any explanation they have not requested. There is plenty of time for explicit teaching in other lessons. Equally, if there is no guidance at all, the student will likely fail again. Find the balance between over-explaining and under-supporting.

Is there continuous assessment for the sake of the learner? Everything should be geared to making sure the learner can progress at exactly their pace and

not that of the method. If, during a building lesson, your student is not looking at the visual clues, then they are spelling, so move on! If they read advanced level words flawlessly and don't make many mistakes while copying them, turn the whole thing into a spelling lesson. You can always go back if it proves too difficult. Do not waste time doing things at which they are already competent, and do not assume that an initial assessment will tell you very much about what they will be able to do in two or three hours.

Does it allow for a sight vocabulary? All older struggling readers come with words they "just know". That Reading Thing students read mostly real text from sources they approve. Even our limited decodable text includes plenty of words they are likely to know by sight. Thanks to the Deal, they do not have to know them, but it makes for much more natural and age-appropriate reading material.

Are they spelling and reading multi-syllable words from the first lesson? Every older learner comes with their own thoughts and feelings about what constitutes "babyish", but one of the most consistent is CVC words. Luckily, that does not transfer to CVC syllables, so they are thrilled to be reading and spelling words like *dentist* and *fantastic* in the first half hour.

Does it get them unstuck? People might think text based instruction is more appropriate for older learners than phonics based instruction. However, they have never seen a grown-up method for figuring out the English code. By starting with what learners can already do – speaking – and moving to what they think they cannot do – reading – you find that people who have not made progress in years simply become unstuck. They get a tool they have never had before.

Is phonics childish? No. There is nothing inherently childish about discovering how the sounds and symbols of English work to create written language.

Does phonics infantilize learners? No, if it is used in the context of a methodology that respects the maturity and prior knowledge of students.

III) TEACHING TEENS IN THE EFL SETTING: GRAMMAR

There is no escaping the importance of grammar. It has to be taught. It has to be learned. But, as with all language learning, motivation is a key, and for the teenager grammar is not the most motivating part of English study. Let us examine some ways to keep teen learners interested and focused long enough to master the essential grammar points.

Show grammar in its social use: Since teens' social life is paramount, connecting grammar to its social use makes grammar feel useful and valuable to them. The following natural interaction on social media foreshadows the use learners will make of the present continuous, by the end of this textbook unit.

Clearly illustrate form, meaning, and use of grammar: If we illustrate grammar in actual use, students see its value, increasing their motivation to learn it. Explaining grammar rules simply and explicitly is helpful for teens too. Clear examples with color highlighting and boldface type ensure that learners focus their attention on the point of the presentation.

Include pronunciation practice: Grammar charts in textbooks present grammar forms for students to read and study. Though such charts are necessary, students do not have many opportunities to hear and practice grammar outside of class. Two important benefits of listening to and repeating grammar examples are:

1. Repetition increases the memorability of the grammar because it involves two *more* skills: listening and speaking.

2. Paying attention to the sound, rhythm, and stress of the grammar leads to clear, comprehensible pronunciation.

Vary practice exercises: Increasing the variety of grammar exercises in a lesson boosts the speed and depth of learning. Adding listening comprehension to the mix of grammar exercises broadens the contexts in which the grammar is used, making it more memorable. Exercises that provide learners with an opportunity to use the grammar to talk about themselves are particularly motivating to teens. Here are three varied grammar exercises for practicing the present continuous: a traditional completion exercise; a listening comprehension exercise; and a freer and more productive exercise.

Provide social practice of the grammar: Natural, informal social language has compelling appeal to teenagers. Model conversations that integrate the grammar with this type of language motivate teens to practice. In the following conversation, students practice the social use of the present continuous in a conversation they might really have.

Personalize the grammar: But it is important not to stop with mere practice of model conversations from a book. *Guided conversation practice* offers learners an essential opportunity to use the new grammar in their *own* social conversations, bridging the gap between controlled practice and productive use. Notepads and visual cues increase each student's involvement, motivation, and success.

In the reality of the EFL setting, with very few class hours, teen learners need many opportunities to observe and practice new grammar. And because they are teens, integrating the grammar in relevant social conversations ensures motivation, memorability, and mastery of new grammar.

3.1. TEACHING GRAMMAR: PRACTICAL TIPS FROM BRITISH COUNCIL

Break down negativity: If your students are very resistant to grammar, show them why it is necessary. Record someone (yourself or a teen) using correct vocabulary but confusing grammar and ask them what the problem is. You could also give them written messages without any grammar words and ask them to make sense of them.

Sometimes students are put off by metalanguage, such as the names of tenses, or the G–word itself, so avoid it! Talk about language for *–ing* instead, e.g. 'Today we are going to look at language for telling stories'.

Use texts: Present grammar in the context of a reading or listening text, an authentic video extract or a song. This way it is easier to see how the language is used and work out the meaning from the context. Often the key to motivating a class is an interesting topic, so choose a text which will engage your learners. Many grammar areas can also be reinforced through extensive reading or listening. Graded readers are very useful for teenagers. If your students use public transport, encourage them to read on their e-books or look at magazines on their mobiles or listen to podcasts while travelling.

Give rules which are true: Beware of over-generalisations about grammar which are not true. In the long term you will not be doing your students any favours if you teach them, for example, that we only use *some* in positive statements and *any* in questions and negatives ("*Would you like some more?*" "*You can have any of the books.*") Sometimes course books give unclear grammar rules, or omit useful language. Back up your course book with reliable grammar books based on corpus research. If you are looking at a tricky area, it is always best to consult a few different books. Do not trust all the rules you find on the internet – they are not necessarily correct.

Involve the students: Avoid lecturing on grammar – nothing is more boring – but continually question the students, either in a whole class situation, or by giving questions about the language to groups / pairs / individuals. Experiment with getting the students to teach each other grammar areas. You could get them to research new areas or revisit areas that you have looked at but which are still problematic. You will need to provide or recommend ways of researching the items. Remember the saying: if you want to learn something, teach it to somebody else.

The importance of noticing: Get students to "*notice*" how the language is used, what it means, what the form of the language is. One way of doing this is by using the dictogloss technique, or a variation of it. Read a paragraph at natural speed, then repeat and allow students to take notes. Get students to try and reconstruct the text in twos or threes, then have them compare what they have written with the original text. As they compare, they will notice the elements of grammar which they

have got right or wrong. Hopefully if students are used to noticing in class, they will continue to do it outside the classroom.

Grammar practice can be fun: Whenever possible find engaging ways to practise grammar such as online games and videos. Grammar can be presented in an animated video and explained in a conversation-style text. There are also online practice exercises.

It is good to have a few games up your sleeve which can be used with different grammar areas. For example, have some laminated snakes and ladders boards and dice which can be used with correct / incorrect sentences. When the students have a turn they pick up a card with a sentence on and have to say whether it is correct or incorrect (and correct the incorrect sentences), otherwise they move back to where they started before they rolled the dice. The others in the group decide whether the student is right or not, and they can check with the teacher if necessary. You can write the sentences or get the students to do it for other groups. Other flexible games based on correct/incorrect sentences are blockbusters or grammar auction.

The right level of challenge: Often teenagers get bored if tasks are too easy, or switch off if they are too difficult. Getting the level of challenge right is essential. In a mixed-ability class this might mean having different tasks prepared for stronger and weaker students, which means a bit more extra preparation time on the teacher's part, but the pay-off is usually well worth it. Also, consider the level of vocabulary in texts for presenting grammar or practice activities. Keep it below the level of the grammar you are focusing on – you do not want to be looking at new vocabulary at the same time as new grammar.

Positive mistakes: Be careful how you treat mistakes while playing grammar games or doing practice activities. The only way we can learn a language is by playing with it and taking risks with it, and in so doing mistakes are inevitable. Learners who do not make mistakes are those who are afraid of risks and will often be slower learners. Obviously the final aim is accuracy, but mistakes are part of achieving that aim.

Student needs: Your course may be strictly tied in to a syllabus, if not you have some leeway to incorporate student needs into your course. If you hear the learners trying to use a certain structure and failing, because they have not met it yet, you could change your syllabus and look at the area sooner than you had planned. You can also think about real life future needs, as opposed to exam needs. Teenagers who listen to songs, i.e. nearly all teenagers, could benefit from an awareness of common non-standard grammar, e.g. double negatives. Make sure that your students know when to use (and not to use!) this very informal language.

Integrate phonology: When you introduce or revise a language area, think about any relevant pronunciation areas, e.g. how to pronounce the final –ed of

regular past endings, the /l/ sound in *I'll*, *He'll* etc. If you don't look at the phonology there is a danger that the students will form erroneous ideas about the phonology which will be hard to unlearn.

Different learning styles: Ask students how they prefer to learn, or give them a questionnaire to find out. Do they prefer to study on their own or work with other people? Do they like listen and repeat drills or working with background music on? Do they like walking around while thinking / studying? Do they respond to visual stimuli? As far as you can, cater for the students' learning styles within the class, e.g. use grammar chants for aural learners. Also, get your teens to plan how they can best learn outside the classroom.

Using memory effectively: Talk to your students about how memory works. If they are to do grammar practice on one area, it is better to spread it out over a period of time, e.g. one exercise on the same day as the lesson, one two days later, one a week later. Recycling language is very important; without looking at an area a few times, over a period of time, it is impossible for most people to retain it. Build reviews and recycling into your course, but also encourage students to recycle language on their own.

Personalising a grammar area is also effective, e.g. inventing a story about something familiar, such as a friend or relative, incorporating the target language area. Conversely, something strange, funny or surreal can also be a memory aid. Students can write stories, e.g. on an electronic pad, or record them to listen again.

Encourage reflection and responsibility: Find ways of encouraging your teenagers to take responsibility for their own learning, e.g. by getting them to reflect on what they have learnt and to test themselves. Explain that language development does not always follow an upward learning curve. Learners sometimes feel they are not making progress, but what matters is the bigger picture: experiencing a sense of gradual progress over time.

Working on grammar with teenagers can be challenging, but with a bit of preparation it can be very rewarding.

3.2. PLANNING A GRAMMAR LESSON

By teaching grammar we not only give our students the means to express themselves, but we also fulfill their expectations of what learning a foreign language involves. Fortunately, nowadays with the emphasis on a communicative approach and a wealth of stimulating resources, teaching grammar does not necessarily mean endless conjugation of verbs or grammar translation.

There are two main approaches to teaching grammar. These are the deductive and the inductive approach.

- A deductive approach is when the rule is presented and the language is produced based on the rule. (The teacher gives the rule.)
- An inductive approach is when the rule is inferred through some form of guided discovery. (The teacher gives the students a means to discover the rule for themselves.)

In other words, the former is more teacher-centred and the latter more learner-centred. Both approaches have their advantages and disadvantages. In my own experience, the deductive approach is undoubtedly time saving and allows more time for practising the language items thus making it an effective approach with lower level students. The inductive approach, on the other hand, is often more beneficial to students who already have a base in the language as it encourages them to work things out for themselves based on their existing knowledge.

Presentation, practice and production (PPP)

A deductive approach often fits into a lesson structure known as PPP (Presentation, Practice, Production). The teacher presents the target language and then gives students the opportunity to practise it through very controlled activities. The final stage of the lesson gives the students the opportunity to practise the target language in freer activities which bring in other language elements.

In a 60-minute lesson each stage would last approximately 20 minutes. This model works well as it can be used for most isolated grammatical items. It also allows the teacher to time each stage of the lesson fairly accurately and to anticipate and be prepared for the problems students may encounter. It is less workable at higher levels when students need to compare and contrast several grammatical items at the same time and when their linguistic abilities are far less uniform.

Presentation

In this stage the teacher presents the new language in a meaningful context. I find that building up stories on the board, using realia or flashcards and miming are fun ways to present the language.

For example, when presenting the 2nd conditional, draw a picture of oneself with thought bubbles of lots of money, a sports car, a big house and a world map.

- Ask students what you are thinking about and then introduce the target language.

"If I had a lot of money, I would buy a sports car and a big house."

- Practise and drill the sentence orally before writing it on the board (positive, negative, question and short answer).
- Focus on form by asking the students questions. E.g."***What do we use after "if***"?" and on meaning by asking the students questions to check that they have understood the concept (E.g. "***Do I have lots of money?***" No. "***What am I doing?***" Imagining.)

- When you are satisfied that the students understand the form and the meaning, move on to the practice stage of the lesson. During this stage of the lesson it is important to correct phonological and grammatical mistakes.

Practice

There are numerous activities which can be used for this stage including gap fill exercises, substitution drills, sentence transformations, split sentences, picture dictations, class questionnaires, reordering sentences and matching sentences to pictures.

- It is important that the activities are fairly controlled at this stage as students have only just met the new language. Many students' books and workbooks have exercises and activities which can be used at this stage.
- When teaching the 2nd conditional, use split sentences as a controlled practice activity. Give students lots of sentence halves and in pairs they try and match the beginnings and ends of the sentences.

Example: "***If I won the lottery,***" …. "***I'd travel around the world.***"

- Then do a communicative follow up game like a snap using the same sentence halves.

Production

Again there are numerous activities for this stage and what you choose will depend on the language you are teaching and on the level of your students. However, information gaps, role plays, interviews, simulations, find someone who, spot the differences between two pictures, picture cues, problem solving, personalisation activities and board games are all meaningful activities which give students the opportunity to practise the language more freely.

- When teaching the 2nd conditional, try to personalise the lesson at this stage by giving students a list of question prompts to ask others in the class.

Example: ***do / if / win the lottery?***

- Although the questions are controlled the students are given the opportunity to answer more spontaneously using other language items and thus the activity becomes much less predictable.
- It is important to monitor and make a note of any errors so that you can build in class feedback and error analysis at the end of the lesson.

When teaching grammar, there are several factors we need to take into consideration and the following are some of the questions we should ask ourselves:

❖ How useful and relevant is the language?

❖ What other language do my students need to know in order to learn the new structure effectively?

❖ What problems might my students face when learning the new language?

❖ How can I make the lesson fun, meaningful and memorable?

Although it is necessary to try to only use English when teaching a grammar lesson, it is sometimes beneficial to the students to make a comparison to L1 in the presentation stage. This is particularly true in the case of more problematic grammatical structures which students are not able to transfer to their own language. It is also important to note that using the PPP model does not necessarily exclude using a more inductive approach since some form of learner-centred guided discovery could be built into the presentation stage.

PPP is one model for planning a lesson. Other models include TTT (Test, Teach, Test), ARC (Authentic use, Restricted use, Clarification and focus) and ESA (Engage, Study, Activate). All models have their advantages and disadvantages, so use different models depending on the lesson, class, level and learner styles.

IV) PRESENTING VOCABULARY

With hundreds of thousands of words in the English language, teaching vocabulary can seem like a very daunting prospect. Remember though that the average native speaker uses around only five thousand words in everyday speech. Moreover, the students will not need to produce every word they learn, some they will just need to recognize. Selecting what to teach, based on frequency and usefulness to the needs of your particular students is therefore essential. Once you have chosen what to teach, the next important steps are to consider what students need to know about the items, and how you can teach them.

What a student may need to know about an item

- *What does it mean?*: It is vital to get across the meaning of the item clearly and to ensure that your students have understood correctly with checking questions.
- *The form*: Students need to know if it is a verb / a noun / an adjective etc to be able to use it effectively.
- *How is it pronounced?*: This can be particularly problematic for learners of English because there is often no clear relation between how a word is written and how it is pronounced. It is very important to use the phonemic script in such cases so the *sts* have a clear written record of the pronunciation. Do not forget to drill words that you think will cause pronunciation problems for your students and highlight the word stresses.
- *How is it spelt?*: This is always difficult in English for the reason mentioned above. Remember to clarify the pronunciation before showing the written form.
- *If it follows any unpredictable grammatical patterns*: *f*or example, man-men / information (uncountable) and if the word is followed by a particular preposition (e.g. *depend on*).
- *The connotations that the item may have*: Bachelor is a neutral / positive word whereas spinster conjures a more negative image.

- *The situations when the word is or is not used:* Is it formal / neutral / informal? For example, spectacles / glasses / specs. Is it used mainly in speech or in writing? To sum up is usually written whereas mind you is spoken. Is it outdated? Wireless instead of radio.
- *How the word is related to others*: For example, synonyms, antonyms, lexical sets.
- *Collocation or the way that words occur together:* You describe things "*in great detail*" not *"in big detail*" and to ask a question you *"raise your hand*" you do not *"lift your hand*". It is important to highlight this to students to prevent mistakes in usage later.
- *What the affixes (the prefixes and suffixes) may indicate about the meaning?*: For example, substandard *sub* meaning under. This is particularly useful at a higher level.

Ways to present vocabulary

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

- Illustration: This is very useful for more concrete words (dog, rain, tall) and for visual learners. It has its limits though, not all items can be drawn.
- Mime: This lends itself particularly well to action verbs and it can be fun and memorable.
- Synonyms / Antonyms / Gradable items: Using the words a student already knows can be effective for getting meaning across.
- Definition: Make sure that it is clear (maybe check in a learner dictionary before the lesson if you are not confident). Remember to ask questions to check they have understood properly.
- Translation: If you know the students' L1, then it is fast and efficient. Remember that not every word has a direct translation.
- Context: Think of a clear context when the word is used and either describe it to the students or give them example sentences to clarify meaning further.

Again which you choose will depend on the item you are presenting. Some are more suitable for particular words. Often a combination of techniques can be both helpful and memorable

Alternative ways of teaching vocabulary:

- Give your students a few items of vocabulary and tell them to find the meaning, pronunciation and write an example sentence with the word in. They can then teach each other in groups.
- Prepare worksheets and ask your students to match words to definitions.
- Ask students to classify a group of words into different categories. For example, a list of transport words into air / sea / land.

- Ask students to find new vocabulary from reading homework and teach the other students in the class.

Other things to consider:

- Review the vocabulary you teach through a game or activity and encourage your students to do the same at home.
- Encourage autonomy in your learners. Tell them to read, watch films, listen to songs etc and note the useful words.
- Have a section of your board for vocabulary items that come up as you are teaching. Use different colours for the word / the phonemics / the prepositions / the part of speech.
- It is a good idea to teach/learn words with associated meanings together.
- Encourage your students to purchase a good dictionary and use class time to highlight the benefits of one.
- Teach your students the grammatical names for the parts of speech and the phonemic script.
- Always keep a good dictionary by your side in case a student asks about a word you do not know.
- If you do not and have never heard of the word, tell the student you will check and get back to them. Do get back to them.
- Give extra examples sentences to the students if they are unsure and encourage them to write the word in an example sentence (maybe for homework).

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LECTURE 7
TEACHING RECEPTIVE COMMUNICATION SKILLS

The Plan

I) SPEECH, LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION: EXPRESSIVE VS. RECEPTIVE LANGUAGE
II) THE IMPORTANCE OF RECEPTIVE LANGUAGE: ITS DEVELOPMENT AND ENHANCEMENT
III) A FRAMEWORK FOR PLANNING A LISTENING SKILLS LESSON
IV) PRE-LISTENING ACTIVITIES
V) READING AS AN EFFICIENT ACTIVITY

Words are pale shadows of forgotten names. As names have power, words have power. Words can light fires in the minds of men. Words can wring tears from the hardest hearts."

Patrick Rothfuss, The Name of the Wind

I) SPEECH, LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION: EXPRESSIVE VS. RECEPTIVE LANGUAGE

The Language Scale measures two major aspects of language: receptive and expressive communication skills. These skills are displayed differently, and may or may not develop independently. Receptive language typically precedes expressive language.

The receptive skills are listening and reading, because learners do not need to produce language to do these, they receive and understand it. These skills are sometimes known as passive skills. They can be contrasted with the productive or active skills of speaking and writing. Often in the process of learning new language, learners begin with receptive understanding of the new items, then later move on to productive use. The relationship between receptive and productive skills is a complex one, with one set of skills naturally supporting another. For example, building reading skills can contribute to the development of writing.

Receptive language is the "input" of language, the ability to understand and comprehend spoken language that you hear or read. For example, a child's ability to listen and follow directions (e.g. "Put on your coat") relies on the child's receptive language skills. In typical development, children are able to understand language before they are able to produce it. Children who are unable to comprehend language may have receptive language difficulties or a receptive language disorder.

Children who have difficulty understanding language may struggle with the following:

- ❖ Following direction;
- ❖ Understanding what gestures mean;
- ❖ Answering questions;
- ❖ Identifying objects and pictures;
- ❖ Reading comprehension;
- ❖ Understanding a story.

Expressive language is the "output" of language, the ability to express your wants and needs through verbal or nonverbal communication. It is the ability to put thoughts into words and sentences in a way that makes sense and is grammatically correct. Children that have difficulty communicating their wants and needs may have expressive language difficulties or an expressive language disorder. For example, children may have expressive language difficulties if they are unable to tell when they need something or when they are hungry.

Children who have difficulty producing language may struggle with the following:

- ❖ Asking questions;
- ❖ Naming objects;
- ❖ Using gestures;
- ❖ Using facial expressions;
- ❖ Making comments;
- ❖ Vocabulary;
- ❖ Syntax (grammar rules);
- ❖ Semantics (word/sentence meaning);
- ❖ Morphology (forms of words).

Receptive language is the ability to understand words and language. It involves gaining information and meaning from routine (e. g.: *We have finished our breakfast so next it is time to get dressed*), visual information within the environment (e.g. *Mum holding her keys means that we are going to get the car, a green light means go*), sounds and words (e. g.: *A siren means a fire engine is coming down the street, the word ball means a round bouncy thing we play with*), concepts such as size, shape, colours and time, grammar (e. g.: regular plurals: *cat/s*, regular past tense: *fetch/ed*) and written information (e. g.: signs in the environment like "*no climbing*", written stories).

Some children who have difficulty understanding oral language (words and talking) may appear to be understanding because they may be able to pick up key words and get visual information from the environment or from gestures.

II) THE IMPORTANCE OF RECEPTIVE LANGUAGE: ITS DEVELOPMENT AND ENHANCEMENT

Receptive language is important in order to communicate successfully. Children who have understanding difficulties may find it challenging to follow instructions at home or within the educational setting and may not respond appropriately to questions and requests. Within the school setting, difficulties in understanding may lead to attention and listening difficulties and/or behavioural issues. As most activities require a good understanding of language, it may also make it difficult for a child to access the curriculum or engage in the activities and academic tasks required for their year level of school.

These are building blocks necessary to develop receptive language:

- **Attention and concentration:** Sustained effort, doing activities without distraction and being able to hold that effort long enough to get the task done.
- **Pre-language skills:** The ways in which we communicate without using words and include things such as gestures, facial expressions, imitation, joint attention and eye contact.
- **Social skills:** Determined by the ability to engage in reciprocal interaction with others (either verbally or non-verbally), to compromise with others, and be able to recognize and follow social norms.
- **Play skills:** Voluntary engagement in self motivated activities that are normally associated with pleasure and enjoyment where the activities may be, but are not necessarily, goal oriented.

If a child has difficulties with receptive language they might:

- ✓ have difficulty attending and listening to language.
- ✓ not pay attention within group times at kindergarten and school.
- ✓ not follow instructions that others the same age would be able to follow.
- ✓ respond to questions by repeating what you say instead of giving an answer.
- ✓ find it difficult to listen to stories.
- ✓ give unusual answers to questions.

These difficulties may vary depending on the child's age. The problems that can occur when a child has receptive language difficulties are:

- ➢ **Attention and concentration:** Sustained effort, doing activities without distraction and being able to hold that effort long enough to get the task done.
- ➢ **Behaviour:** The child's actions, usually in relation to their environment (e.g. a child becoming disruptive within the classroom because they are unable to "access" or understand what the teacher is saying or talking about).
- ➢ **Literacy:** Reading and writing.

- **Social skills:** Determined by the ability to engage in reciprocal interaction with others (either verbally or non-verbally), to compromise with others, and be able to recognize and follow social norms.
- **Sensory processing:** Accurate registration, interpretation and response to sensory stimulation in the environment and one's own body.
- **Executive functioning:** Higher order reasoning and thinking skills.
- **Expressive** (using) **language:** The use of language through speech, sign or alternative forms of communication to communicate wants, needs, thoughts and ideas.
- **Planning and sequencing:** The sequential multi-step task/activity performance to achieve a well-defined result.
- **Auditory Processing:** Ability to hear sounds, distinguish between similar sounds or words, and separate relevant speech from background noise.

The ways to improve receptive language comprise:

- **Eye-contact:** Obtain the child's eye contact before giving them an instruction.
- **Minimal instructions:** Refrain from giving too many instructions at once.
- **Simplify the language** you use with the child so it is at a level that they can understand (i.e. usually just above their expressive language level or how much they are saying).
- **Chunk verbal instructions** into parts. Instead of "Go and get your lunchbox and your hat and go outside", say "Get your lunchbox." When the child has followed that instruction, say "Now get your hat" then "OK, now you can go outside".
- **Repeat:** Ask the child to repeat the instruction to ensure that they have understood what they need to do (e.g. "Go and get your bag then sit at the table. What do I want you to do?").
- **'First/then':** Use this concept to help the child know what order they need to complete the command (e.g. "*First* get your jacket, *then* put on your shoes").
- **Clarify:** Encourage the child to ask for clarification if they forget part of the instruction or have trouble understanding what they need to do. Encourage them to ask for the command to be repeated or clarified (e.g. "Can you say that again please?").
- **Show:** Physically show the child what to do when giving them an instruction so that they can "see" what the concept within the instruction looks like.
- **Visual aids** (e.g. pictures, gestures, body language, facial expression) can be used to assist the child's comprehension and recall of the instruction.
- **Describe:** In everyday activities describe to the child what they are doing (e.g. when the child is packing up their toys you might say: "Put the toys in the box" or when dressing/undressing you might say: "Take your shoes off / Put your shoes on").

- **Emphasise the word** you want the child to learn about and repeat the concept in a variety of situations or settings so that the child sees the different ways in which a concept can be used (e.g. “Lights *on*“vs. “The book is *on* the table”).
- **Play:** For the young child engage in play on a regular basis, model how to play with toys, follow the child’s lead and talk about what they are doing with the toys.
- **Reduce background noise:** Turn off background noise in the home (e.g. television, radio, music) when engaging with the child to reduce / minimise distractions.
- **Face-to-face:** Get face to face with the child when talking.
- **Visuals** such as signs or pictures can be used to facilitate and support a child’s understanding.
- **Books:** Look at books which interest the child and talk about the pictures and the story. Get the child to predict what might happen next or explain why something might have happened in the story.

Some activities can help improve receptive language:

✓ **Name items** together when completing tasks, such as looking at a book, in the car, looking outside, while playing or when shopping.

✓ **Day to day activities:** When visiting places, such as the park, zoo or museum encourage children to talk about what you did and saw and possibly even draw or act out what happened.

✓ **Model new words:** Play activities that they really enjoy and throughout the game model new words and phrases.

✓ **Explain new concepts** in different ways (e.g. looking at the concept of “wet”: use water to wet things and talk about things that are wet and dry; look at pictures of things that are “wet”; if it rains, or the child is in the bath, talk about the concept of being “wet”; make up sentences and stories about being wet/dry).

✓ **Simon says:** Take turns in following and giving instructions. Also, gradually increase the length of the command that is provided (e.g. “Simon says touch your toes”; “Simon says first touch your toes, then clap your hands”; “Simon says before you shout hurrah, count to 10”). Additionally, reinforce body parts (e.g. pat your head, pull your ear) and simple verbs (e.g. jump, shake) when playing the activity.

✓ **Obstacle course:** Take turns with the child in following and giving instructions. Gradually increase the length of the command that is provided (e.g. run to the sandpit; first run to the sandpit then crawl over to the bikes).

✓ **Feely bag game:** Place different everyday items/objects (e.g. toothbrush, car, cup, block) into a bag. Take turns in taking an item out of the bag.

✓ **Books:** Look at picture books. Take turns in asking questions about the pictures (e.g. Who is in the picture? What is the girl / boy doing?). Try to think about what might happen next in the story and different possible endings.

Therapeutic intervention to help a child with receptive language difficulties is important to:

❖ Strengthen and develop the child's ability to:

- ✓ engage effectively in a classroom / academic setting (e.g. following instructions appropriately, completing academic tasks).
- ✓ communicate appropriately with their peers (e.g. having a conversation about shared topics of interest using specific language, asking and answering questions).
- ✓ communicate appropriately with adults and unfamiliar individuals (e.g. retelling events, sequencing ideas, answering questions appropriately).

❖ Improve a child's ability to understand and respond appropriately to questions.

❖ Develop a child's understanding of concepts.

❖ Improve reading and writing skills.

❖ Develop alternative forms of communicating (e.g. *sign, picture exchange communication system, voice output devices*) if verbal language is not developing.

❖ Help reduce frustration in a child who struggles with comprehending in the home or school environments.

❖ Facilitate expressive language development.

When children have difficulties with receptive language, they might also have difficulties with:

➢ Forming friendships and engaging in positive social interactions with peers.

➢ Completing tests, exams and academic tasks in higher level education.

➢ Applying for jobs in both an interview and written application and answering questions during job interviews.

➢ Developing reading and writing skills.

➢ Following and giving directions to find unfamiliar or new places.

III) A FRAMEWORK FOR PLANNING A LISTENING SKILLS LESSON

By developing their ability to listen well we develop our students' ability to become more independent learners, as by hearing accurately they are much more likely to be able to reproduce accurately, refine their understanding of grammar and develop their own vocabulary.

Here is a framework that can be used to design a listening lesson that will develop the students' listening skills and look at some of the issues involved.

The basic framework

The basic framework on which it is possible to construct a listening lesson can be divided into three main stages.

- Pre-listening, during which we help our students prepare to listen.
- While-listening, during which we help to focus their attention on the listening text and guide the development of their understanding of it.
- Post-listening, during which we help our students integrate what they have learnt from the text into their existing knowledge.

Pre-listening

There are certain goals that should be achieved before students attempt to listen to any text. These are motivation, contextualisation, and preparation.

✓ **Motivation:** It is enormously important that before listening students are motivated to listen, so you should try to select a text that they will find interesting and then design tasks that will arouse the students' interest and curiosity.

✓ **Contextualisation:** When we listen in our everyday lives we hear language within its natural environment, and that environment gives us a huge amount of information about the linguistic content we are likely to hear. Listening to a tape recording in a classroom is a very unnatural process. The text has been taken from its original environment and we need to design tasks that will help students to contextualise the listening and access their existing knowledge and expectations to help them understand the text.

✓ **Preparation:** To do the task we set students while they listen there could be specific vocabulary or expressions that students will need. It is vital that we cover this before they start to listen as we want the challenge within the lesson to be an act of listening not of understanding what they have to do.

While-listening:

When we listen to something in our everyday lives we do so for a reason. Students too need a reason to listen that will focus their attention. For the students to really develop their listening skills they will need to listen to a number of times – three or four usually works quite well – the reason is that the first time many students listen to a text they are nervous and have to tune in to accents and the speed at which the people are speaking.

Ideally the listening tasks we design for them should guide them through the text and should be graded so that the first listening task they do is quite easy and helps them to get a general understanding of the text. Sometimes a single question at this stage will be enough, not putting the students under too much pressure.

The second task for the second time students listen should demand a greater and more detailed understanding of the text. Make sure though that the task does not demand too much of a response. Writing long responses as they listen can be very

demanding and is a separate skill in itself, so keep the tasks to single words, ticking or some sort of graphical response.

The third listening task could just be a matter of checking their own answers from the second task or could lead students towards some more subtle interpretations of the text.

Listening to a foreign language is a very intensive and demanding activity and for this reason it is very important that students should have "*breathing*" or "*thinking*" space between listenings. Get the students to compare their answers between listenings as this gives them the chance not only to have a break from the listening, but also to check their understanding with a peer and so reconsider before listening again.

Post-listening

There are two common forms that post-listening tasks can take. These are reactions to the content of the text, and analysis of the linguistic features used to express the content.

✓ ***Reaction to the text:*** Of these two the tasks that focus students' reaction to the content are most important. Again this is something that we naturally do in our everyday lives. Because we listen to for a reason, there is generally a following reaction. This could be discussion as a response to what we have heard – do they agree or disagree or even believe what they have heard? – or it could be some kind of reuse of the information they have heard.

✓ ***Analysis of language:*** The second of these two post-listening task types involves focusing students on linguistic features of the text. This is important in terms of developing their knowledge of language, but less so in terms of developing students' listening skills. It could take the form of an analysis of verb forms from a script of the listening text or vocabulary or collocation work. This is a good time to do form focused work as the students have already developed an understanding of the text and so will find dealing with the forms that express those meanings much easier.

Applying the framework to a song:

Here is an example of how you could use this framework to exploit a song:

Pre-listening:

- Students brainstorm kinds of songs;
- Students describe one of their favourite songs and what they like about it;
- Students predict some word or expressions that might be in a song of this type.

While-listening:

- Students listen and decide if the song is happy or sad;
- Students listen again and order the lines or verses of the song;

➢ Students listen again to check their answers or read a summary of the song with errors in and correct them.

Post-listening:

➢ Focus on content:

- ✓ Discuss what they liked / didn't like about the song;
- ✓ Decide whether they would buy it / who they would buy it for;
- ✓ Write a review of the song for a newspaper or website;
- ✓ Write another verse for the song;

➢ Focus on form:

- ✓ Students look at the lyrics from the song and identify the verb forms;
- ✓ Students find new words in the song and find out what they mean;
- ✓ Students make notes of common collocations within the song.

IV) PRE-LISTENING ACTIVITIES

Listening skills are hard to develop. Students can do a variety of work before listening to help them understand.

In real life it is unusual for people to listen to something without having some idea of what they are going to hear. When listening to a radio phone-in show, they will probably know which topic is being discussed. When listening to an interview with a famous person, they probably know something about that person already. A waiter knows the menu from which the diner is choosing their food.

In our first language we rarely have trouble understanding listening. But, in a second language, it is one of the harder skills to develop – dealing at speed with unfamiliar sounds, words and structures. This is even more difficult if we do not know the topic under discussion, or who is speaking to whom.

So, simply asking the students to listen to something and answer some questions is a little unfair, and makes developing listening skills much harder.

Many students are fearful of listening, and can be disheartened when they listen to something but feel they understand very little. It is also harder to concentrate on listening if you have little interest in a topic or situation.

Pre-listening tasks aim to deal with all of these issues: to generate interest, build confidence and to facilitate comprehension.

Aims and types of pre-listening tasks:

Setting the context: This is perhaps the most important thing to do – even most exams give an idea about who is speaking, where and why. In normal life we normally have some idea of the context of something we are listening to.

Generating interest: Motivating our students is a key task. If they are to do a listening about sports, looking at some dramatic pictures of sports players or events will raise their interest or remind them of why they (hopefully) like sports.

Personalisation activities are very important here. A pair-work discussion about the sports they play or watch, and why, will bring them into the topic, and make them more willing to listen.

Activating current knowledge – what do you know about…?: "You are going to listen to an ecological campaigner talk about the destruction of the rainforest". This sets the context, but if you go straight in to the listening, the students have had no time to transfer or activate their knowledge (which may have been learnt in their first language) in the second language. What do you know about rainforests? – Where are they? What are they? What problems do they face? Why are they important? What might an ecological campaigner do? What organisations campaign for ecological issues?

Acquiring knowledge: Students may have limited general knowledge about a topic. Providing knowledge input will build their confidence for dealing with a listening. This could be done by giving a related text to read, or, a little more fun, a quiz.

Activating vocabulary / language: Just as activating topic knowledge is important, so is activating the language that may be used in the listening. Knowledge-based activities can serve this purpose, but there are other things that can be done. If students are going to listen to a dialogue between a parent and a teenager who wants to stay overnight at a friend's, why not get your students to role play the situation before listening. They can brainstorm language before hand, and then perform the scene. By having the time to think about the language needs of a situation, they will be excellently prepared to cope with the listening.

Predicting content: Once we know the context for something, we are able to predict possible content. Try giving students a choice of things that they may or may not expect to hear, and ask them to choose those they think will be mentioned.

Pre-learning vocabulary: When we listen in our first language we can usually concentrate on the overall meaning because we know the meaning of the vocabulary. For students, large numbers of unknown words will often hinder listening, and certainly lower confidence. Select some vocabulary for the students to study before listening, perhaps matching words to definitions, followed by a simple practice activity such as filling the gaps in sentences.

Checking / understanding the listening tasks: By giving the students plenty of time to read and understand the main listening comprehension tasks, you allow them to get some idea of the content of the listening. They may even try to predict answers before listening.

Selection criteria: When planning your lesson the following factors should be taken into account when preparing the pre-listening tasks: the time available; the

material available; the ability of the class; the interests of the class; and the nature and content of the listening text.

The choice of pre-listening task also gives you a chance to grade the listening lesson for different abilities. If you have a class who are generally struggling with listening work, then the more extensive that the pre-listening work is the better. If, however, you wish to make the work very demanding, you could simply do work on the context of the listening. Thus, the same listening text can provide work for different abilities.

It is important to devote a fair proportion of a lesson to the pre-listening task, should the listening warrant it. For example, the listening about an ecological campaigner lends itself well to extended knowledge and vocabulary activation. However, a listening involving airport announcements may only need a shorter lead-in, as the topic is somewhat narrower.

Overall, training the students to bring their own knowledge and their skills of prediction to their listening work can only help them when listening to the language outside the classroom. These skills are as much a part of listening as understanding pronunciation or listening for details.

V) READING AS AN EFFICIENT ACTIVITY

What happens when you read a book, a newspaper or magazine for information on a topic that interests you, or when you are reading as part of a course of study? If you are a good reader you almost certainly do not read every word carefully. You read with a purpose, and as your eye skims over the page you take from it whatever you need, predicting what is likely to come next and adjusting your predictions as you go along.

We want our students to learn to read like this in English. We want them to be able to skim through pages on the worldwide web identifying relevant information with speed and efficiency. We hope that one day many of them will read quickly and efficiently enough in English to use the language as a medium of study at university level or beyond. More and more schools and Ministries of Education are interested in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), recognising the importance of learning a language, in our case English, as a means to studying other subjects more effectively. If we want to encourage this kind of reading in the English language classroom we need to provide a reason for reading and we need to recreate the circumstances in which readers operate in the real world outside the classroom.

First we need to provide a context. When we read in real life we usually have some expectations about what we are going to read. Perhaps we know quite a lot about a topic and we want to check on a few details or we have just heard about something and are curious to know more about it. We rarely set out to read

something without knowing anything at all about the topic and without having any expectations about what we are going to read. So in the classroom we need to provide learners with a context. Before they begin to read they will have some idea what it will be about and what to expect from it.

Secondly we need to provide a reason for reading. Sometimes in our reading we are looking for very specific information. We may have certain beliefs which we want to confirm or perhaps to reconsider. Perhaps our curiosity has been aroused by a newspaper headline or the title of an article in a magazine, and we want to satisfy that curiosity. We should try to put our students in the same situation when they approach a reading. What exactly do they expect to get out of the reading? What gaps in their knowledge do they want to fill? What expectations do they have which they want to check against their reading?

The basic version of a reading activity looks like this:

- Discussion
- Comprehension questions
- New and useful vocabulary
- Follow up activity

In a bit more detail, it goes like this:

1. Give the students some discussion questions to get them interested in the topic of the reading.

2. Get the students to write their own comprehension questions. You can help them do this by giving them the headline, showing them a picture, or telling them the theme in a sentence or two, although it is important that you do not say too much and make it too easy for them. Ask them to write questions that they would like the answers to. Give feedback on their questions (but do not give them the answers!).

3. Give them the text and ask them to find the answers to their questions. Check the answers as a class. If they cannot find the answer, it is no problem, and the fact that they had to look for it is the most valuable thing.

4. Ask them to read the text again, and while they do so they should underline / highlight any words, phrases or sentences that they would like to check, or things that they think are useful and / or interesting. Give them the chance to share these together and help each other to understand the text. They can use their dictionaries and check with you to make sure they understand everything. Put the things they have found that you think are most useful on the board. Always try to make sure we go beyond just picking out new words, and look at interesting collocations, phrases and sentence structures.

5. Do some kind of follow up activity that gives the students a chance to engage with the theme and talking points that come out of the reading, as well as giving them a chance to practice new vocabulary and structures learned. This could be a

piece of writing as homework, a project in class or anything that you think your students would find beneficial.

James Taylor believes that this format can be applied with all levels and different ages. The students are more engaged with the text because firstly, they have to answer their own questions and, secondly, because they have the opportunity to investigate the language that they want to. They also enjoy the sense of autonomy it gives them over their own learning, something that seems to be very motivating for them.

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LECTURE 8
TEACHING PRODUCTIVE AND INTERACTIVE COMMUNICATION SKILLS

The Plan

I) THE PHENOMENON OF PRODUCTIVE AND INTERACTIVE COMMUNICATION SKILLS
II) PLANNING A WRITING LESSON
III) TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS
IV) THE WAYS TO ENHANCE SPEAKING SKILLS IN ELT CLASSROOM:
4.1. GROUP DISCUSSION SKILLS
4.2. PUBLIC SPEAKING SKILLS

"Listen with curiosity. Speak with honesty. Act with integrity. The greatest problem with communication is we don't listen to understand. We listen to reply. When we listen with curiosity, we don't listen with the intent to reply. We listen for what's behind the words."

Roy T. Bennett, The Light in the Heart

I) THE PHENOMENON OF PRODUCTIVE AND INTERACTIVE COMMUNICATION SKILLS

The productive skills are speaking and writing, because learners doing these need to produce language. They are also known as active skills. They can be compared with the receptive skills of listening and reading. Certain activities, such as working with literature and project work, seek to integrate work on both receptive and productive skills.

Speaking is characterized as the interpersonal function of language through which meaning is created and transmitted and "writing is an approach to yield language you accomplish naturally when you speak". Acquiring an appropriate level of linguistic bases is essential for developing writing skill to empower students to overcome a range of lexical and grammatical skills needed for writing progression. According to Silva (1990), writing commonly pursues a standardized form of grammar, structure, and vocabulary which is inextricable from the structure of spoken sentences.

Studying writing and speaking is essential for students to develop their language skills. Some say that writing is more important than speaking and vice versa. While some people have the opinion that written language is a reflection of

spoken language, others claim that written language is worth more than spoken language since it is a more proper form.

Several methods can be used to improve students' writing. In many cases, the hardest thing for a student concerning writing is to get started with the entire writing process. There are different reasons why students have trouble with this. One reason could be that the students are afraid of failing and that they are under pressure to perform. The teacher must calm them down and persuade them that if they do make mistakes, it is not a disaster. They will just have to correct them afterwards. There could also be other methods, for example warm-up exercises, rewards and challenges for the students to increase their motivation.

What to write about is a quite common problem. The process of collecting information and coming up with ideas is not easy for everyone. Making mind maps is a recommended option. If you have the topic Christmas, the teacher can tell the students to close their eyes and think of all the things they can come up with that are connected with Christmas. This is an efficient method and maintains that may work with almost any topic.

Brainstorming is a second alternative where the students gain information by discussing in groups. Both the teacher and the students have important roles in this session. One example of brainstorming is that every student starts by writing down their own ideas about a certain topic. After a few minutes they join a partner and they discuss their ideas. Some time later, the two students become four and they elaborate their ideas. At the end of this activity the discussion stops and each group suggests at least three ideas that are written down on the board by the teacher. It is crucial that the teacher goes through all these ideas with the students before the writing starts so that everyone understands what the ideas mean. After this session the writing can start, with the students' minds filled with ideas.

Just as there are many ways of improving students' writing skills, there is also a fair number of methods on different levels for improving their speaking skills. Luoma has listed several methods in her book *Assessing Speaking*. She mentions exercises both for the less advanced levels, such as describing pictures in pairs or making up a story from a series of pictures, and exercises for the more advanced levels, like describing diagrams or discussing current issues, for example, how violence can affect children. One problem with speaking tasks, especially concerning group work, is that there are always students in every group who talk more than others, and they dominate the groups. Thus, groups should not be any bigger than four persons. Otherwise, there will be too many. The students should also be given certain roles in the discussions. The students should have role-cards with written arguments and characteristic instructions.

Another problem with group discussions is that the students may discuss things that do not concern the topic and they may also speak their native language. The fact that they talk about other things than the topic is not necessarily only negative, as long as they speak English. If that is the case, at least they are talking. If they go back to their native language, it could be a bigger problem. The teacher is the supervisor during the activity and can use efficient methods in group discussions.

The teacher should start off in the middle of the class-room and go to different groups to listen. He/she should not just circle around since the students will become aware of the teacher's pattern. After the teacher has listened to a group, he/she should return to the centre of the classroom and then just go to different groups randomly. By doing so, the teacher will be unpredictable and the students would have to focus more.

When the students have finished these different tasks, the next issue will be how to correct what is done. To start with the written assignments, the problem in most cases for the teachers is what to focus on in the correction. The most important part of the written task is the content, but that is far more difficult to correct than grammar or spelling. One piece of advice is that corrected mistakes could be replaced with suggestions of how to do it instead.

II) PLANNING A WRITING LESSON

Writing, unlike speaking, is not an ability we acquire naturally, even in our first language – it has to be taught. Unless L2 learners are explicitly taught how to write in the new language, their writing skills are likely to get left behind as their speaking progresses.

A writing genre can be anything from a menu to a wedding invitation, from a newspaper article to an estate agent's description of a house. Pieces of writing of the same genre share some features, in terms of layout, level of formality, and language. These features are more fixed in formal genre, for example letters of complaint and essays, than in more "*creative*" writing, such as poems or descriptions. The more formal genre often feature in exams, and may also be relevant to learners' present or future "*real-world*" needs, such as university study or business. However, genre vary considerably between cultures, and even adult learners familiar with a range of genre in their L1 need to learn to use the conventions of those genre in English.

The emphasis given to each stage of the writing lesson may differ according to the genre of the writing and / or the time available. Learners should work in pairs or groups as much as possible, to share ideas and knowledge, and because this provides a good opportunity for practising the speaking, listening and reading skills.

Stage 1: Generating ideas

This is often the first stage of a process approach to writing. Even when producing a piece of writing of a highly conventional genre, such as a letter of complaint, using learners' own ideas can make the writing more memorable and meaningful.

❖ Before writing a letter of complaint, learners think about a situation when they have complained about faulty goods or bad service (or have felt like complaining), and tell a partner.

❖ As the first stage of preparing to write an essay, give learners the essay title and pieces of scrap paper. Let them 3 minutes to work alone, writing one idea on each piece of paper, before comparing in groups. Each group can then present their 3 best ideas to the class. It does not matter if the ideas are not used in the final piece of writing, the important thing is to break through the barrier of: *I cannot think of anything to write.*

Stage 2: Focusing ideas

This is another stage taken from a process approach, and it involves thinking about which of the many ideas generated are the most important or relevant, and perhaps taking a particular point of view.

❖ As part of the essay-writing process, students in groups put the ideas generated in the previous stage onto a "*mind map*". The teacher then draws a mind-map on the board, using ideas from the different groups. At this stage they can also feed in some useful collocations – this gives the learners the tools to better express their own ideas.

❖ Suggest the students to write individually for about 10 minutes, without stopping and without worrying about grammar or punctuation. If they do not know a particular word, they write it in their L1. This often helps learners to further develop some of the ideas used during the "*Generating ideas*" stage. Learners then compare together what they have written, and use a dictionary, ask the teacher or each other in order to find in English any words or phrases they wrote in their L1.

Stage 3: Focus on a model text

Once the students have generated their own ideas, and thought about which are the most important or relevant, try to give them the tools to express those ideas in the most appropriate way. The examination of model texts is often prominent in product or genre approaches to writing, and will help raise learners' awareness of the conventions of typical texts of different genres in English.

❖ Give learners in groups several examples of a genre, and let them use a genre analysis form to identify the features and language they have in common. This raises their awareness of the features of the genre and gives them some language "chunks" they can use in their own writing.

A GENRE FORM

Communication Purpose *(What does the writer hope to communicate / achieve?)*
Expected audience *(Who will read it?)*
Layout *(general format – e. g.: Does it have a title?; What appears where on the page?)*
Overall organisation *(e. g.: What type of information is included in each paragraph?)*
Level of formality *(formal)/informal / semi-formal? Give examples from the text.)*
Sentence structure *(e. g.: complex or simple?)*
Specific grammatical structures *(e. g.: Do any specific tenses predominate?)*
Specific vocabulary *(e. g.: Are there any words / expressions that appear frequently in this type of the text? In general, is everyday or more specific vocabulary used?*

❖ Learners identify the function of different paragraphs in a piece of writing. For example, in a job application letter, the functions of the paragraphs might be something like:

✓ reason for writing;

✓ how they found out about the job;

✓ relevant experience, skills and abilities;

✓ closing paragraph asking for an interview.

❖ Learners are given an essay with the topic sentences taken out, and put them back in the right place. This raises their awareness of the organisation of the essay and the importance of topic sentences.

Stage 4: Organising ideas

Once learners have seen how the ideas are organised in typical examples of the genre, they can go about organising their own ideas in a similar way.

❖ Students in groups draft a plan of their work, including how many paragraphs and the main points of each paragraph. These can then be pinned up around the room for comment and comparison.

❖ When preparing to write an essay, students group some of the ideas produced earlier into main and supporting statements.

Stage 5: Writing

In a pure process approach, the writer goes through several drafts before producing a final version. In practical terms, and as part of a general English course, this is not always possible. Nevertheless, it may be helpful to let students know beforehand if you are going to ask them to write a second draft. Those with access to a word processor can then use it, to facilitate the redrafting process. The writing itself can be done alone, at home or in class, or collaboratively in pairs or groups.

Stage 6: Peer evaluation

Peer evaluation of writing helps learners to become aware of an audience other then the teacher. If students are to write a second draft, ask other learners to comment on what they liked / did not like about the piece of work, or what they found unclear, so that these comments can be incorporated into the second draft. The teacher can also respond at this stage by commenting on the content and the organisation of ideas, without yet giving a grade or correcting details of grammar and spelling.

Stage 7: Reviewing

When writing a final draft, students should be encouraged to check the details of grammar and spelling, which may have taken a back seat to ideas and organisation in the previous stages. Instead of correcting writing, a teacher may use codes to help students correct their own writing and learn from their mistakes.

III) TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS

Many students equate being able to speak a language as knowing the language and therefore view learning the language as learning how to speak the language, or as Nunan (1991) wrote, "*success is measured in terms of the ability to carry out a conversation in the (target) language*." Therefore, if students do not learn how to speak or do not get any opportunity to speak in the language classroom they may soon get de-motivated and lose interest in learning. On the other hand, if the right activities are taught in the right way, speaking in class can be a lot of fun, raising general learner motivation and making the English language classroom a fun and dynamic place to be.

Speaking is fundamental to human communication. Just think of all the different conversations you have in one day and compare that with how much written communication you do in one day. Which do you do more of? In our daily lives most of us speak more than we write, yet many English teachers still spend the majority of class time on reading and writing practice almost ignoring speaking and listening skills. Do you think this is a good balance? If the goal of your language course is truly to enable your students to communicate in English, then speaking skills should be taught and practised in the language classroom.

It often happens that students will not talk or say anything. One way to tackle this problem is to find the root of the problem and start from there. If the problem is cultural, that is in your culture it is unusual for students to talk out loud in class, or if students feel really shy about talking in front of other students, then one way to go about breaking this cultural barrier is to create and establish your own classroom culture where speaking out loud in English is the norm. One way to do this is to distinguish your classroom from other classrooms in your school by arranging the classroom desks differently, in groups instead of lines, etc.; or by decorating the walls in English language and culture posters. From day one teach your students classroom language and keep on teaching it and encourage your students to ask for things and to ask questions in English. Giving positive feedback also helps to encourage and relax shy students to speak more. Another way to get students motivated to speak more is to allocate a percentage of their final grade to speaking skills and let the students know they are being assessed continually on their speaking practice in class throughout the term.

A completely different reason for student silence may simply be that the class activities are boring or are pitched at the wrong level. Very often our interesting communicative speaking activities are not quite as interesting or as communicative as they are considered to be and all the students are really required to do is to answer "yes" or "no" which they do quickly and then just sit in silence or worse talking noisily in their L1. So maybe you need to take a closer look at the type of speaking activities you are using and see if they really capture student interest and create a real need for communication.

Another way to encourage your students to speak in English is simply to speak in English yourself as much as possible in class. If you are shy about speaking in English, how can you expect your students to overcome their fears about speaking English? The more you practise, the more you will improve your own oral skills as well as help your students improve theirs.

When students work in pairs or groups they just end up chatting in their own language. Is the activity or task pitched at the right level for the students? Make sure you give the students all the tools and language they need to be able to complete the task. If the language is pitched too high, they may revert to their L1, likewise if the task is too easy they may get bored and revert to their L1. Also, be aware of the fact that some students especially beginners, will often use their L1 as an emotional support at first, translating everything word for word to check they have understood the task before attempting to speak. In the case of these students simply be patient as most likely once their confidence grows in using English, their dependence on using their L1 will begin to disappear.

Are all the students actively involved and is the activity interesting? If students do not have something to say or do, or do not feel the need to speak, you can be sure it will not be long before they are chatting away in their L1.

Was the timing of the activity good? The timing of a speaking activity in a class can be crucial sometimes. How many teachers have discovered that their speaking activity ended up as a continuation of the students break-time gossip conducted in the L1? After break-time, why not try giving students an activity to calm them down and make them focus before attempting speaking activities that involve groups or pair work. Another way to discourage students speaking in their L1 is to walk around the classroom monitoring their participation and giving support and help to students as they need it. If certain students persist in speaking in the L1, then perhaps you should ask them to stay behind after class and speak to them individually and explain to them the importance of speaking English and ask them why they do not feel comfortable speaking in English in the class. Maybe they just need some extra reassurance or they do not like working with certain students or there is some other problem that you can help them to resolve.

When all the students speak together, it gets too noisy and out of hand and it is likely to lose control of the classroom.

First of all, separate the two points: *a noisy classroom* and *an out-of-control classroom*. A classroom full of students talking and interacting in English, even if it is noisy, is exactly what you want. Maybe you just feel like you are losing control because the class is suddenly student-centred and not teacher-centred. This is an important issue to consider. Learner-centred classrooms where learners do the talking in groups and learners have to take responsibility for using communicative resources to complete a task are shown to be more conducive to language learning than teacher-centred classes (Long & Richards, 1987). Nevertheless, many classrooms all over the world continue to be teacher-centred, so the question you have to ask yourself is, how learner-centred is my classroom?

Losing control of the classroom, on the other hand, is a different issue. Once again walking around and monitoring the students as they are working in groups can help, as you can naturally move over to the part of the classroom where the noise is coming from and calm the rogue students down and focus them back on the task without disrupting the rest of the students who are working well in their groups. If students really get too rowdy then simply change the pace of the class and type of activity to a more controlled task, for example a focus on form or writing task where students have to work in silence individually. Once the students have calmed down you can return to the original or another interactive group activity.

These are just some of the problems that teachers with large classes face when teaching speaking activities in the classroom. These problems are not new nor are

the solutions offered above. Teachers all over the world continue to face the same hurdles, but any teacher who has overcome these difficulties and now has a large class of energetic students talking and working in English in groups together will tell it is worth all the trial and error and effort at the outset.

IV) THE WAYS TO ENHANCE SPEAKING SKILLS IN ELT CLASSROOM:

4.1. GROUP DISCUSSION SKILLS

Group discussions occur in many different formats – from very informal ones between friends to highly structured and challenging discussions included as part of a selection process.

Developing group discussion skills is useful for everyday life as we regularly find ourselves having discussions amongst friends, family and colleagues. These may vary from very informal chats about day-to-day things to more serious topics, for example a discussion about a recent news story or a problem that needs to be solved.

- Additionally, group discussions are increasingly being used in the job market during interviews and selection procedures. These can take a variety of formats, but the key skills remain very similar.
- Last but not least, group discussions offer an opportunity for extended speaking (and listening!) practice by all of the contributors. Group discussion practice and skill development is therefore useful for all students.

There are a variety of different types of discussions that occur naturally and which we can recreate in the classroom. These include discussions where the participants have to:

- ✓ ***Make decisions*** (e.g. decide who to invite to a party and where to seat them);
- ✓ ***Give and / or share their opinions on a given topic*** (e.g. discussing beliefs about the effectiveness);
- ✓ ***Create something*** (e.g. plan and make a poster as a medium for feedback on a language course);
- ✓ ***Solve a problem*** (e. g.: discussing the situations behind a series of logic problems).

Some discussion topics may fall into more than one of these categories, but it is useful to consider a variety of formats to which the students can apply the skills they are learning.

There are a number of different sub-skills which students will need to be able to successfully and effectively participate in a group discussion. Students need to develop the ability to:

Analyse: This skill can be developed by giving students the topic individually and asking them to brainstorm or mind-map all of the possible sub-topics they could speak about. The students can then swap their notes and assess or analyse the relevance of each of the sub-topics their partner has included. Together, the students then draw up a fresh list or mind-map and discuss how the sub-topics might be linked together, along with examples or reasons for any arguments they might have.

Persuade: This skill comes in useful when students need to make decisions on how to do something (e.g. which candidate should get a job). A fun activity to develop this skill is to give groups of students this topic and ask them to decide on the profile of the perfect candidate, creating a list of 7 adjectives. The students are then re-grouped and asked to persuade the other members of the group that their selection is the best while compiling a second, negotiated list. The group members who retain the most from their original lists are the winners. Note down useful phrases that you hear the students using while doing this task and discuss these at the end for future reference.

Control emotions: This can be practised by giving the students a fairly controversial topic, such as 'Friends are more important than family' and asking the students to decide whether they agree, disagree or have no opinion, making notes on their main arguments to support their viewpoint. Divide the students into groups ensuring that there is a mix of views within each group. Explain that for this discussion, the aim is to keep their voices low and try to control their emotions as far as possible. Monitor and give feedback on these areas.

Support: One of the most important things for this skill is for students to learn when it is and isn't appropriate to interrupt and how to do it. Very often students will talk over each other in an effort to get their point across and forget to listen.

To practise this, you can get your students to make a list in small groups of when it is and is not appropriate to interrupt other speakers. They should include things like "not appropriate during the middle of a point, if the speaker has not said very much previously, or when you are feeling angry and liable to say something you will regret. It is appropriate when the speaker has been dominating the discussion for too long, what the speaker is saying is completely irrelevant to the topic, or you do not understand the point he / she has made".

You can then give them or elicit a list of phrases which they might use to interrupt politely. The students then write five of these on slips of paper (one per slip) and have a group discussion on a given topic. The aim is to use all of the language on their slips. When they have used a phrase, they put the slip in the middle of the table. The other students in the group judge whether the interruption was appropriate / polite. If not, they take the slip back and try again.

Use functional language. Depending on the types of group discussions that you plan to do with your class, it is useful to draw up a list of useful functional language for the students to refer to. This could include phrases for functions such as “Giving reasons”, “Giving your opinion“, “Agreeing and disagreeing”, etc. You can either make up the list yourself and distribute it or get the students to do this. For each group discussion, you can then refer them to the appropriate section of the list and give them a few moments to consider the language before beginning the discussion.

There are several key things to consider when setting up group discussions in the classroom to ensure that they run successfully.

Give the students some planning time either individually or in small groups. Don’t just give them the topic and say ‘go’! It is often useful to discuss some associated vocabulary or functional language that they might find useful

- ❖ Choose topics which you are confident your students will find interesting.
- ❖ Get them to brainstorm some ideas for discussions they would like to do and use this as a starting point.
- ❖ Ensure a balance between input and practice.
- ❖ Use a variety of styles / types.
- ❖ Vary group size and procedure. Some companies do selection group discussions with very large groups of people – over ten in some cases. If your students will be facing these types of group discussions in the future make sure they get some practice doing them. It can also be useful to mix classes of students so they have practice doing discussions with people they do not know.
- ❖ Encourage group discussions outside class time

Give students some extra feedback forms to use to give each other input on how they perform in group discussions outside of class.

Feedback can take several forms and it is a good idea to vary the way it is given. Students can observe each other doing group discussions and give each other feedback on the specific areas of input that you have covered (ideally using a feedback form that you have created).

Additionally, students can do a “Reflective group feedback exercise” where at the end of the group discussion they discuss how effective each of the participants was during the discussion. Again, giving them some focused questions to guide this stage will help them. You could also try video-taping the group discussions and playing sections of these back to the class to analyse. Some students find this extremely useful.

Finally, monitor the groups yourself and make notes for feedback on whole groups or individual performances. Keeping a record of these will help you and the students to see where they have improved.

4.2. PUBLIC SPEAKING SKILLS

For many people, standing up in public and doing a speech is one of their greatest fears. For many language students in particular, this is the ultimate challenge.

Public speaking involves talking in front of a group of people, usually with some preparation. It can be in front of people that you know (e.g. at a family celebration) or a crowd of strangers. Unlike a presentation there normally is not a lot of opportunity for interaction between the audience and the speaker – the speaker speaks, and the audience (hopefully) listens.

Speeches have different functions. These include being persuasive (e.g. *trying to convince the audience to vote for you*), informative (e.g. *speaking about the dangers of climate change*), entertaining (e.g. *a speech at a ceremony*) or celebratory (e.g. *to introduce the winner of an award*). Some speeches may have more than one of these aims.

Most people, at some point in their life, will need to stand up and speak in front of a group of people. Teaching students the necessary skills for doing this will therefore help them to do this more successfully. As a result of the practice, students often report an increase in general confidence as well as a marked sense of achievement. Many students get incredibly nervous the first time they have to do a speech in front of their classmates but with practice the nerves subside and they usually begin to enjoy the whole process.

Working on public speaking also helps to develop students' overall fluency and requires them to consider how they speak as well as what they say. This is useful for speaking in any situation, public or otherwise.

What techniques can we teach our students?

a) Ideas / content generation: Lots of students find getting started quite difficult. It is a good idea to give students either a type of public speech that you would like them to do, or a particular topic. It is often useful to get students working in groups at the planning stage, helping each other to come up with ideas.

Showing students a variety of ways of making notes of ideas works well as not everyone likes the same methods. These could include mind-mapping, making lists or writing ideas on post-it notes and then arranging them on a piece of paper into groups.

b) Structure: Stress the importance of having a beginning, middle and end and keep reminding them of this. You might then like to give them a standard introduction to use for their first speech. For example, "*Good evening. My name is X and today I am going to talk about Y. I will talk about three main areas, x, y and z*". This then gives them a focus for the structure of the rest of the speech. It can

seem a little dry, however, so once they get the idea it's worth experimenting with different styles of beginning – e.g. using jokes and anecdotes.

Many students are so relieved to have got to the end of their speech that they rush the conclusion or sometimes completely forget to do one. Again, a suggested format may help them to summarise what they have said.

c) Body language: There are various statistics for how much of our communication is done through our body language – they seem to hover around 70%, which is a massive chunk, so some work in this area is a very good idea.

Posture: Doing an activity where you get everyone to stand up and then suddenly "*freeze*" works well. You then ask everyone to stay still but look around at how everyone is standing. Then try getting everyone to stand straight and well-centred, behind the podium if you have one to use. It sounds pretty basic but it can make a big difference to how confident and in control someone appears to be.

Gestures: One way to practise these is to give out some sentences with key words in them, such as "I caught a fish and it was this big!" or "there are three important reasons why you should vote for me". Ask the students to practise saying these sentences while standing up and work out what gestures might be the most appropriate. Stress the importance of keeping gestures controlled.

Eye contact: It is very important that speakers make eye contact with all areas of the room, ideally with every person but with large audiences that is not possible. Many students tend to look at one spot or at the teacher. One way to practise this is to ask each student to do a short 30 second introduction and then at the end get any student who feels the speaker did not look in his/her direction to raise their hand.

d) Chunking (pauses and stress): This is a technique which can help speakers to sound much more confident and increase the overall effectiveness of their speech. The theory is that when we do this type of speaking we stress the key words in a sentence which carry the meaning, e.g. "I DON'T want you to just SIT there and DO NOTHING" We also pause after many of these key words, and at the end of a sentence.

To practise this, try playing your students an example of a speech. Ask them to listen and identify the stressed words and pauses from a small section of the speech and then practise delivering it in the same manner. They can then mark the stress and pauses on their own speeches and practise incorporating the idea into their own work. It really makes a difference!

Lack of confidence is very common and one that only practice, practice and more practice will help to overcome. You could also try getting the students to first speak in front of three or four others, then adding to the number as they become

more confident. Reminding students to breathe properly while they are speaking as well as thinking positively about their ability to speak well will also help, along with lots of encouragement!

Speaking too fast is another common problem, usually caused by nerves. Try getting them to do the introduction of the speech in an exaggeratedly slow manner. Once they have done this a few times they may find it easier to find a middle ground.

If appropriacy of body language is a problem, try videoing the speaker and asking them to watch themselves. They will usually be able to identify where the problems lie and then work on improving these areas. Raising awareness is the most important thing here.

Taking boring speeches into account, it is really important to get the students to think carefully about their audience when planning their speech. For example, if they want to do a speech about the dangers of mountaineering, but no one in the class takes it up, this probably will not be very interesting. Encourage the students to think of creative ideas for their speeches – do the planning stage in class so that you and the other students can monitor and give advice on topics that look like they might get a few yawns.

In case of style appropriacy, it is again important that the students think about their audience. You might like to play them several different examples of famous speeches and ask them to comment on the style and discuss the purpose of the speech and the audience, before reflecting on their own.

Unfortunately plagiarism of material is a very common problem. One way to tackle this is to ask the students not to write out their speeches in full but to use only notes or key words to help them deliver their speech. This then increases the chances of them being more original with the delivery. Another option is to collect in the speeches and run whole sentences through an internet search engine to see if it comes up with anything. And of course, impress upon your students the importance of doing their own work.

Giving and encouraging feedback is a very important part of the process and can take three general forms: peer; from the teacher; video-taping and playback.

- For feedback from peers and from the teacher it is best to choose particular areas to give feedback on for each speech, rather than trying to cover everything. This might be based on the techniques you have recently been looking at in class (e.g. using gestures, chunking, structure, etc.) or as a result of feedback on a previous speech.
- It is a good idea to go through what you expect of the students when giving peer feedback as sometimes students can be very vague. Make up a sheet with a (short) list of the areas to look at to help them focus their comments and encourage them to say positive as well as constructive things.

- Video-taping is an invaluable method of helping students to see where their strengths and weaknesses lie. The only drawback, apart from the technical side of using the camera, is the time it takes to do and playback. This can be partially overcome by videoing sections of speeches, rather than the whole thing for each student.

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LECTURE 9
THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES FOR FIELD-SPECIFIC SECONDARY SCHOOL. FIELD-SPECIFIC SECONDARY EDUCATION: ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL FOCUSES

The Plan

I) THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES FOR YEARS 10–11

II) DEVELOPING LEARNING OUTCOMES IN FIELD-SPECIFIC SECONDARY SCHOOL

III) INNOVATIVE METHODS OF TEACHING FOR FIELD-SPECIFIC SECONDARY SCHOOL: VISUALIZATION; TECHNOLOGY TOOLS; ACTIVE LEARNING; INTEGRATION

IV) CREATING STEM LESSON PLANS

V) TEACHING WITH *VAK*

"Tell me and I forget, teach me and I may remember, involve me and I learn."

Benjamin Franklin

I) THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES FOR YEARS 10–11

Concerning Field-Specific Secondary Education, the schooling differentiates two focuses, namely academic and professional. The professional focus is not regarded as an autonomous process as it is grounded on the previous knowledge and skills. The content of learning is provided with the help of an integrity including contextual, procedure-oriented, emotional and evaluative components. Such an integrity is formed and enhanced by mastering language and culture in correlation and interdependence. After the completion of Year 11 pupils of general secondary schools gain either B1 or B 2 level depending on the focus.

The Educational Programmes for teaching English (Years 10–11/12) outline all key competences that fully realize the essence of foreign languages' learning. The list of competencies to be acquired by students has already been set forth in the Law "On Education". It was drawn up taking into account the Recommendations of the European Parliament and of the European Council on Key Competencies for Lifelong Learning (*see Lecture 6*).

The competence-based learning is obvious if we examine the Educational Programmes for Years 10–11. The level B1 (if attained successfully) guarantees that a student can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters

regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc; can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken; can produce simple connected text on topics, which are familiar, or of personal interest; can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.

The level B2 (if attained successfully) means that a student can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialization; can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party; can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.

The Educational Programmes for teaching English (Years 10–11) suggest content lines grouped according to the themes and possible outcomes depending on whether it is an academic focus or a professional one. The Programmes both focus on communicative skills (comprising receptive, productive, and interactive) and outline the minimum linguistic capacity for oral and written messages. All the parameters mentioned above are itemized in accordance with each topic.

The set of skills is outlined with its correspondence to each key competence:

The ***fluency in the state language*** means that a student can apply their native ethnic component in order to popularize Ukraine. It reflects the necessity to be proud of the native country, to share knowledge about national culture and its aspects, and to enrich native culture with the help of foreign language.

The ***ability to communicate in the mother tongue*** (if different from the state language) ***and foreign languages*** is realised with the help of content-based competences.

The **mathematical competency** presupposes the ability to handle communicative and academic issues, the skill to logically speak out, and to apply graphs and schemes to execute communicative cases.

The **competency in natural sciences, engineering and technologies** assists in describing natural phenomena and technologies in order to enhance eco-friendly life style.

The ***competency of innovation*** gives skills to generate new ideas and create numerous approaches to handle one task.

The ***environmental competency*** is treated as responsible for environmental preservation and rare species' conservation. It enables students to promote healthy life style as well.

The ***information and communication competency*** is a practical tool to apply foreign languages' communication in the sphere of social media and cope with the tasks in the sphere of technology.

The ***lifelong learning competency*** helps to define communicative aims and apply appropriate strategies to master foreign languages. It also promotes the ability to self-develop and search necessary data, and it encourages students to overcome learning obstacles.

Social and civic competencies are related to the ideas of democracy, justice, equality, human rights, well-being and healthy lifestyle, and to awareness of equal rights and opportunities. It forms the cooperative skills that assist in giving arguments, speaking out personal ideas, and sharing views.

The ***cultural competency*** is connected with the sphere of emotions. Thus it enables to express impressions and thoughts about art items.

The ***entrepreneurship and financial literacy*** are helpful when it goes about future career and solving cases connected with routing life.

To sum up, the Educational Programmes for teaching English (Years 10–11) completely correlate with the State Standard of General Secondary Education. Its aim is to develop and socialize pupils' skills; to form their national self-awareness, culture, worldview focuses, ecologically-friendly cognition and behaviour; to enhance their creative skills; and to promote their abilities to self-develop under the circumstances of constant global challenges and changes.

II) DEVELOPING LEARNING OUTCOMES IN FIELD-SPECIFIC SECONDARY SCHOOL

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

Good learning outcomes emphasize the application and integration of knowledge. Instead of focusing on coverage of material, learning outcomes articulate how students will be able to employ the material, both in the context of the class and more broadly.

Example of Learning Outcomes:

By the end of this course, students will be able to:

- ✓ identify and describe the political, religious, economic, and social uses of art in Italy during the Renaissance;
- ✓ identify a range of works of art and artists;

- ✓ analyze the role of art and of the artist in Italy at this time;
- ✓ analyze the art of the period according to objective methods;
- ✓ link different materials and types of art to the attitudes and values of the period;
- ✓ evaluate and defend their response to a range of art historical issues.

The distinction between learning outcomes and learning objectives is not universally recognized, and many instructors may find that the term "learning outcomes" describes what they have already understood by the term "learning objectives". Some scholars make no distinction between the two terms; those who do usually suggest that learning outcomes are a subset or type of learning objective. Learning objectives, for example, may outline the material the instructor intends to cover or the disciplinary questions the class will address. By contrast, learning outcomes should focus on what the student should know and realistically be able to do by the end of an assignment, activity, class, or course. The same goals addressed by learning objectives can be equally addressed by learning outcomes, but by focusing on the application and integration of the course content from the perspective of the student, learning outcomes can more explicitly and directly address expectations for student learning.

Many instructors may find that the reflective process of developing learning outcomes is something that they have already incorporated into their course planning processes. The phrase "learning outcomes" thus simply offers a more precise term for discussing the creation of learning aims and expectations that centre on application and integration of course content.

Learning outcomes are valuable to learners, instructors, and administrators. Mark Battersby (1999) of the Learning Outcomes Network explains that learning outcomes are more than simply several sentences appended to existing lesson plans or curricula; instead, the development of learning outcomes and their use within a unit of instruction shapes learning and assessment activities and can enhance student engagement and learning.

Because of their ability to benefit many groups in postsecondary education, the development of learning outcomes has become an increasing priority for instructors and institutions over the course of the last decade. Establishing a focus on integrated, generalizable, and transferable skills complements contemporary demands on graduates and builds a foundation for lifelong learning. As government and public attention on the products of higher education increases, learning outcomes help to define the goals and essential aspects of higher education within the institution, to students, and to the general public.

FOR STUDENTS:

- By focusing on the application of knowledge and skills learned in a course and on the integration of knowledge and skills with other areas of their lives, students are more connected to their learning and to the material of the course.
- The emphasis on integration and generalizable skills helps students draw connections between courses and between coursework and other kinds of knowledge, enhancing student engagement.
- Students understand the conditions and goals of their assessment.

FOR INSTRUCTORS:

- ✓ The process of developing learning outcomes itself offers an opportunity for reflection on the content of the course in the context of its potential applications. Developing learning outcomes means that the context of the learning will always be emphasized, and courses focus on the knowledge and skills that will be most valuable to the student now and in the future.
- ✓ Learning outcomes point to useful methods of assessment.
- ✓ Learning outcomes allow instructors to set the standards by which the success of the course will be evaluated.

Learning outcomes should outline the most central and essential elements of a particular course or program. They will also shape assessment. As such, the process of developing learning outcomes offers an opportunity for reflection on what is most necessary to help learners gain this knowledge and these skills. Considering (1) key words for the course, (2) desired types of learning, and (3) the context in which the knowledge and skills gained in the course will be used, including possible applications, provides a foundation for the development of learning outcomes.

To begin the process of developing learning outcomes, it may be useful to brainstorm some key words central to the disciplinary content and generalizable skills taught in the course. In addition to the information about context and types of learning provided below, you may wish to consider the following questions as you develop this list of key words:

- What are the essential things students must know to be able to succeed in the course?
- What are the essential things students must be able to do to succeed in the course?
- What knowledge or skills do students bring to the course that the course will build on?
- What knowledge or skills will be new to students in the course?
- What other areas of knowledge are connected to the work of the course?

Scholars working in pedagogy and epistemology offer us taxonomies of learning that can help make learning outcomes more precise. These levels of learning

can also help develop assessment and evaluation methods appropriate to the learning outcomes for the course.

Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives is particularly useful because it associates particular verbs with each level of learning. Although Bloom's Taxonomy is a hierarchy, each type of learning can be a valuable aspect of a course. Ultimately, however, learning outcomes should focus on the "higher order thinking" found in the highest levels of the Taxonomy: analyze, evaluate, and create. Bloom's Taxonomy was developed in 1956, and was revised in 2001 by Bloom's colleagues, Lorin Anderson and David Krathwohl.

Content, skills, values: These three areas can be used to identify and describe different aspects of learning that might take place in a course. Content can be used to describe the disciplinary information covered in the course. This content might be vital to future work or learning in the area. A learning outcome focused on content might read:

By the end of this course, students will be able to recall the 5 major events leading up to the Riel Rebellion and describe their role in initiating the Rebellion.

Skills can refer to the disciplinary or generalizable skills that students should be able to employ by the conclusion of the class. A learning outcome focused on skills might read:

By the end of this course, students will be able to define the characteristics and limitations of historical research.

Some learning outcomes might articulate desired values: attitudes or beliefs that are imparted or investigated in the course of learning in a field or discipline. In particular, value-oriented learning outcomes might focus on ways that knowledge or skills gained in the course will enrich students' experiences throughout their lives. A learning outcome focused on values might read:

By the end of this course, students will be able to articulate their personal responses to a literary work they have selected independently..

Learning outcomes help instructors and learners focus on the potential applications of the knowledge and skills gained in the course. In turn, this helps students perceive the value of their learning, and helps instructors develop appropriate assessment tools.

Good learning outcomes focus on the application and integration of the knowledge and skills acquired in a particular unit of instruction (e.g. activity, course program, etc.), and emerge from a process of reflection on the essential contents of a course. More specifically, good learning outcomes:

Are very **specific**, and use **active language** – and verbs in particular – that make expectations clear. This informs students of the standards by which they will be assessed, and ensures that student and instructor goals in the course are aligned.

Where possible, avoid terms like understand, demonstrate, or discuss that can be interpreted in many ways.

Useful Verbs for Developing Learning Outcomes
This list of useful verbs for creating learning outcomes is arranged according to Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, which identifies different cognitive domains associated with levels of learning. Bloom's taxonomy was developed in 1956, and was revised in 2001 by Bloom's colleagues, Lorin Anderson and David Krathwahl. The revised taxonomy is presented here.
UNDERSTANDING: demonstration of comprehension associate; classify; compare; contrast; convert; describe; estimate; explain; extend; generalize; give examples; identify; interpret; justify; locate; outline; paraphrase; predict; recognize; report; restate; review; select; summarize; trace; translate
APPLYING: applying knowledge in a new context apply; calculate; chart; choose; classify; complete; compute; construct; contribute; develop; discover; dramatize; employ; experiment; extend; illustrate; implement; instruct; interpret; modify; operate; participate; practice; predict; show; solve; teach; text; use
ANALYZING: supporting assertions through the use of evidence and arguments identifying causes and patterns advertise; analyze; break down; categorize; classify; collect; compare; connect; contrast; correlate; criticize; diagram; differentiate; distinguish; divide; establish; explain; identify; illustrate; infer; investigate; order; outline; prioritize; question; select; separate; verify
EVALUATING: coming to a judgement on the value of information or the validity of arguments appraise; argue; assess; choose; conclude; convince; criticize; critique; debate; decide, defend; determine; discriminate; evaluate; grade; integrate; interpret; judge; justify; predict; prioritize; rate; recommend; reframe; score; select; support; value
CREATING: combining or grouping knowledge to come to new conclusions adapt; anticipate; arrange; assemble; collect; combine; compile; construct; decide; design; develop; facilitate; formulate; generate; generalize; imagine; incorporate; individualize; integrate; invent; modify; negotiate; organize; plan;

propose; rearrange; reconstruct; reorganize; revise; select; structure; substitute; validate

Through assessment, learning outcomes can become fully integrated in course design and delivery. Because learning outcomes focus on the application and integration of knowledge and skills learned, learning outcomes point to appropriate modes of assessment and ensure that assessment focuses on the essential knowledge or skills of the course. Assignments and exams should match the knowledge and skills which are described in the course's learning outcomes. A good learning outcome can readily be translated into an assignment or exam question; if it cannot, the learning outcome may need to be refined.

One way to match outcomes with appropriate modes of assessment is to return to Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: the verbs associated with each level of learning indicate the complexity of the knowledge or skills that students should be asked to demonstrate in an assignment or exam question. An outcome, for example, that asks students to recall key moments leading up to an historical event might be assessed through multiple choice or short answer questions. By contrast, an outcome that asks students to evaluate several different policy models might be assessed through a debate or written essay. Through assessment, learning outcomes can become fully integrated in course design and delivery.

Learning outcomes may also point to more unconventional modes of assessment. Because learning outcomes can connect student learning with its application both within and outside of an academic context, learning outcomes may point to modes of assessment that parallel the type of work that students may produce with the learned knowledge and skills in their career or later in life.

III) INNOVATIVE METHODS OF TEACHING FOR FIELD-SPECIFIC SECONDARY SCHOOL

Finding new and innovative methods of teaching is a crucial skill for high school teachers. Brain research has actually shown that certain methods and approaches can truly enhance the learning process and, done right, applying innovative learning and attention-management techniques to classes is a win-win for both students and teachers.

Visualization: It can be very hard for students to understand a list of disconnected facts. Knowledge that is organized and connected to concepts with a goal of mastery, including the ability to visualize the concepts, can lead to the ability to transfer knowledge and to a deeper, longer-term understanding of what is being taught.

Visualization is an especially good teaching strategy for reading and literacy. Teaching students visualization skills help them understand, recall, and think critically about the subjects they study.

Wisely managed classroom technology: Computers, tablets, digital cameras, video conferencing technology, and GPS devices can all enhance a student's learning experience. Possible uses of classroom technology include using video games to teach math and foreign languages, leveraging Skype to communicate with classrooms or guest speakers from around the world, or multimedia projects that allow students to explore subject matter using film, audio, and even software they create.

However, introducing new tech devices in the high school classroom often requires that teachers add an element of educational technology leadership to their usual classroom management. Giving students laptops or tablets, for example, means teaching them to use devices respectfully and preventing damage to the equipment. Tech-savvy teachers gave Education Week the following advice on using classroom technology:

❖ Explain that the use of tech tools in class is a privilege not everyone has – and, if abused, it can be discontinued.

❖ During class, teachers should move around the classroom or use monitoring software to ensure students are using their devices appropriately. When they understand that you will intervene if they go off-task, students know they must focus on their assignment.

❖ Put students in charge of the upkeep of devices. Classes can learn tech terms, basic maintenance tasks, and appoint a few students to serve as tech monitors responsible for distributing and storing equipment. Doing this creates a sense of value and ownership for the welfare of classroom technology.

Active learning (Peer instruction, discussion groups, and collaborative problem solving): All high-school educators dread a roomful of blank faces or silence after they open up a topic for class discussion. According to the Johns Hopkins Center for Educational Resources (CER), devoting time to active learning projects is one way to get students thinking, talking, and sharing information in the classroom. The CER publishes a series called *The Innovative Instructor* that explores these methods.

There exists an example of a class structure where the instructor leads a short overview of the day's topic and gives students a challenge to meet by the end of the class, such as answering a question or solving a problem. Students break into small groups to do research online, chart out ideas, and discuss ways to meet the challenge. Groups upload their work to a Blackboard site, where the teacher can then review it.

At the end of class, each group shares what they've learned with their peers. Higher engagement overall and students were "amazingly" on task during group work.

These are just three ideas for directions you can go in your quest for innovative teaching methods to get your students more engaged. In today's increasingly creative world, new ideas are sprung nearly every day.

Integrated Approach to Language Learning: When we communicate, we often use more than a single language skill. On the telephone, for instance, we listen and speak-maybe we also write down a message and read over what we have written. Integrated approach helps to build new knowledge and skills on to what students already know and can do. So, if students are able to read a short story, this skill will help them to write their own story. Also, integrating the skills allows you to build in more variety into the lesson because the range of activities will be wider. Instead of just having listening, the students can have speaking, reading and writing practice. This can raise their motivation to learn English. Above all, integrating the skills means that you are working at the level of realistic communication, which provides all-round development of communicative competence in English.

How can the four skills be integrated? The easiest form of integration is within the same medium (either oral or written), from receptive to productive skills. The second kind is complex integration. This involves constructing a series of activities that use a variety of skills. However, in is important to make sure that one activity is closely linked thematically to the next one.

Integration of the four skills is concerned with realistic communication. This means that we are teaching at the discourse level, not just at the level of sentences or individual words and phrases. Discourse is a whole unit of communicative text, either spoken or written.

However, integrating the four language skills can be demanding of the teacher.

a. They need to have a good understanding of discourse, and to be able to use textbooks flexibly.

b. This can also be time-consuming, requiring a lot of preparation.

c. Another limitation is the problem of designing suitable materials that take account of students' different skill levels. The four skills tend to develop at a different pace: receptive skills are stronger than productive skills, for example.

This means that teachers have to be skilful in selecting or designing integrated activities for their students.

Consequently, integrating the four language skills enhances the focus on realistic communication, which is essential in developing students' competence in English. Two ways of integrating skills: simple integration, whereby a receptive language skill serves as a model for a productive language skill, and complex

integration, which is a combination of activities involving different skills, linked thematically. Integrated language learning can be more motivating, because the students are using the language for a real purpose, instead of, say, just practising the grammar. Integration requires skilful teaching, but it can bring worthwhile results.

IV) CREATING STEM LESSON PLANS

STEM is a curriculum based on the idea of educating students in four specific disciplines – science, technology, engineering and mathematics – in an interdisciplinary and applied approach. Rather than teach the four disciplines as separate and discrete subjects, STEM integrates them into a cohesive learning paradigm based on real-world applications. STEM education is far more than just sticking those subject titles together. It is a philosophy of education that embraces teaching skills and subjects in an a way that resembles real life.

The key component of STEM and STEAM is integration. Instead of teaching disciplines in independent subject silos, lessons are well rounded, project and inquiry based, with a focus on interdisciplinary learning. STEM and STEAM align with the way we work and problem solve in our daily lives. With STEM we are teaching skills the way they will be used in the workforce, and the real world. Rarely does a job require only one skill set like math. When picturing an architect they use science, math, engineering and technology to do their jobs. The subjects do not work on their own, instead they are woven together in practical and seamless ways allowing the architect to design complex buildings.

STEM and STEAM are not new, and they are simply ways of understanding and applying an integrated form of learning that resembles real life. Instead of teaching math as separate from science, they can be taught together in a way that shows how the knowledge from those two fields compliment and support each other.

The addition of Arts to STEM to create STEAM is about incorporating creative thinking and applied arts in real situations. Art isn't just about working in a studio. Art is about discovering and creating ingenious ways of problem solving, integrating principles or presenting information. If picture an architect, they use engineering, math, technology, science and arts to create stunning buildings and structures. Many people feel that adding the ***A*** is unnecessary and that the application of creativity and arts is a natural part of STEM, but others like to highlight it. For elementary aged children, in particular, it is better to include the ***A*** to ensure that facet of learning does not get forgotten in the lessons. Whether you prefer STEM or STEAM the underlying principles and practices are very much the same, it is about integration of the pillars: Science, Technology, Engineering, Arts and Math.

What separates STEM from the traditional science and math education is the blended learning environment and showing students how the scientific method can be applied to everyday life. It teaches students computational thinking and focuses

on the real world applications of problem solving. As mentioned before, STEM education begins while students are very young.

In Field-Specific Secondary School the courses become more rigorous and challenging. Student awareness of STEM fields and occupations is still pursued, as well as the academic requirements of such fields. Student exploration of STEM related careers begins at this level.

Jobs in the real world are interdisciplinary. We need to educate children in how subjects integrate and work together. They need to develop diverse skills sets and a passion for exploration and growth. We do not need children to memorize random facts anymore. We have so many facts at our finger tips now. Skills need to be taught in an applied way, as part of a greater whole, rather than the traditional approach of individual subject silos.

STEM embraces the 4 C's identified as key in 21st Century education: Creativity, Collaboration, Critical Thinking, and Communication. Most importantly, by incorporating **inquiry based principles** and a **highly adaptable framework** to suit students of various needs, **STEM helps to foster a love of learning**. And the most important gift an education should give a student is a love of learning.

One of the biggest concerns about STEM education is the lack of resources. Funding for the newest technology, training in how to use the new technology, plus the knowledge of how to use it effectively as a learning tool, are all areas where teachers struggle.

Another area where a lot of teachers struggle is with a system that focuses on assessment and grades rather than a program that fosters innovation, creativity, **critical thinking skills** and problem solving skills. These achievements are not something that can be easily boxed up and assessed.

In many places, of course, teachers are already being asked to plan and implement STEM lessons. But so often these "requests" are accompanied by very little preparation, explanation, or time to work together. In a search for some kind of help, these teachers may look for STEM lessons online. That can be both a rewarding and frustrating experience. It is rewarding because teachers will, in fact, find some engaging lessons out there. But it is also frustrating because the lessons they find may have little to do with what they are teaching.

STEM lesson plans may seem complex and complicated to develop, but once you start applying **STEM principles** to lessons it becomes second nature to bring in those pillars of Science, Technology, Engineering, Math and even Arts (STEAM). How can this be applied in a practical easy way?

Brainstorm the starting subject matter, such as our example of Ancient Egypt. Either alone as the teacher or as a group with your students, brainstorm the many ideas, topics and areas you could focus on within that umbrella topic. Create a big

list. Nothing is too big or too small at this point. Although it can be tempting to do this alone as the teacher, this is the perfect opportunity to involve the students so they gain some ownership in their learning and become invested in the lesson.

Apply the 4 pillars of STEM – Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math, and consider adding the fifth pillar of Arts. Which ones can you bring into the lesson in a meaningful and relevant way? Not all lessons are going to incorporate all 5 pillars, but you should try to have strong discovery within at least 2.

Reflect on what worked and what didn't work after each lesson. Over time you will become better at judging:

- What techniques are best for yourself and your students.
- Predicting what you can accomplish in your allotted time.
- Understanding what really engages your students and captures their interest, making them motivated learners.

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V) TEACHING WITH *VAK*

The VAK Learning Styles Model was developed by psychologists in the 1920s to classify the most common ways that people learn. According to the model, most of us prefer to learn in one of three ways: visual, auditory or kinesthetic (although, in practice, we generally "mix and match" these three styles).

- **Visual:** a visually-dominant learner absorbs and retains information better when it is presented in, for example, pictures, diagrams and charts.
- **Auditory:** an auditory-dominant learner prefers listening to what is being presented. He or she responds best to voices, for example, in a lecture or group discussion. Hearing his own voice repeating something back to a tutor or trainer is also helpful.
- **Kinesthetic:** a kinesthetic-dominant learner prefers a physical experience. She likes a "hands-on" approach and responds well to being able to touch or feel an object or learning prop.

A variation on the acronym, developed by New Zealand-based teacher Neil D. Fleming, is ***VARK***, or visual, auditory, reading/writing, and kinesthetic:

- **Reading/Writing:** a reading- or writing-dominant learner uses repetition of words and writing. Clearly, there is an overlap with visual and auditory styles, as

words and writing can be both, but, commonly, a person who prefers to learn this way remembers or organizes things best in his mind by taking down notes.

Visual learners:

- Provide lots of written materials, and give exercises that require writing and note taking
- Use visuals and graphics to present and organize information (charts, graphs, post-it notes, posters, flash-cards, diagrams, illustrations, pictures, coloured pens and paper, mind-maps, spidergrams)
- Write key words on flip chart paper and ask learners to write responses
- Invite visual learners to be group recorders

Auditory learners

- Best way to teach an auditory learner is to say it; state the information
- Ask learners to describe specific information
- Provide discussion periods for learners
- Encourage questions and foster small group participation
- Use auditory activities (brainstorming, buzz groups, debriefing, reading out loud, oral revisions, stories, anecdotes, jokes, rhymes, jingles, rap, poems, songs)
- Audio streaming is an option in web-based environments

Kinesthetic learners

- Plan activities that make learners move (group work, role-plays, field trips)
- Initiate activities that make learners use their hands (move and organize post-its, highlight text, make models, transfer text from one medium to an other)
- Encourage underlining and highlighting key words and taking notes
- Put theory into practice
- Provide real-life simulation situations
- Use lots of examples, case studies, and ways of application
- Build-in planned physical breaks

The Dunn and Dunn Learning Style Model anticipates an observable improvement in student learning and behaviour when a match has been achieved between instructional environments and Learning Styles. It has been developed for use across all learning levels aimed at improving the effectiveness of instruction, in particular for learners not demonstrating appropriate progress.

The model emerged out of 30 years of work that included a review of over 80 years of research on how children learn differently, by Professors Rita and Kenneth Dunn in the 1970s – an outcome initiated by the New York State Department of Education. In the classroom both observed distinct differences in the way learners responded to their instructional materials; some liked to learn alone and others with a teacher, resulting in the hypothesis that learning achievements were heavily influenced by relatively fixed characteristics, and that elements environmental,

emotional, sociological, and physical contributed to the learning environment, and approaches individuals took when learning.

Motivated to raising awareness that students learn in different ways, both Rita and Kenneth Dunn believed instructors needed to provide multiple strategies to address all the learning styles of their students and maximise teaching materials for more efficient learning.

Refinement with the Dunn Learning Style model has been an on-going process based on extensive field work and studious research; further elements have been added of a cognitive nature and hemispheric preference. Subsequently, researchers at more than 130 institutions of Higher Education have participated in international research on the Dunn and Dunn Model and published more than 830 studies.

The Model
The five strands and elements:
1. Environmental
Where do learners prefer to learn – in a cool and quiet place, or warm and noisy?
2. Emotional
Does the learner need motivational support to learn effectively? Will the learner continue to follow-through a learning task? Can the learner assume individual responsibility for their learning? Does the learner need structure?
3. Sociological
Does the learner work better alone, or with a colleague, or team, or in a variety of ways, or in a routine pattern? How much guidance does the learner need from the instructor?
4. Physiological
When and how does the learner physically engage most in learning? Is the learner Visual, Auditory or Kinesthetic (VAK)?
5. Psychological
How does the learner process and respond to information and ideas?

The learning environment (real or virtual) should be divided into partitioned areas with different climates and infrastructure that embraces attention to lighting (low or bright), temperature (cool or warm), seating arrangements (informal or formal), sound (quiet or with background sound). Students have to be allowed choice in how to learn – alone, with peers or with an instructor. Teaching techniques must be based on different learning configurations: Multiple Intelligences, VAK Learning (Visual, Auditory, Kinesthetic). Individuals ought to be challenged at their

functional ability or slightly above that level. Learning activities have to be facilitated for:

- Self-starter learners who can monitor and pace themselves to the finish: provide long-term projects, self-designed objectives, procedures, and evaluations.
- Learners in need of frequent support, devise short uncomplicated assignment tasks that need monitoring frequently, and provide regular positive feedback. Short assignments could gradually be increased in length/scope as tasks are successfully completed.

Clearly stated objectives are preferable in simple form, and the instructor should be precise about every aspect of each task. Other tips include:

- ✓ Stagger the introduction of new material - if in the classroom, then across the day; Online learning, then across each unit.
- ✓ Encourage peer relationships with persistent learners.
- ✓ Review work at regular intervals and feedback

In addition to identifying these elements in the model, the Dunns developed an assessment, to identify the learning style needs of learners across all age groups. There are four assessment types that are computer processed, generating a clear and "*easy to read*" indication of an individual's learning style and how the learning environment might be modified to cater to their needs. The questionnaire encourages the learner to select answers they believe describes them best, and takes around 25 minutes to compete. Reports are formulated from the question evaluations offering "comprehensive insights and strategies that promise academic achievement and improved performance".

When instructors are familiar with their own learning style(s), and those of their students, they are more adept at customising lessons and the learning environment to facilitate learning that is conducive to their learners. Ideally this will motivate them to learn in a more focused and interested way. The sharing of knowledge, of learning styles types, various approaches and outcomes of why and how people learn the way they do, with the learner would give relevant context to their learning.

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LECTURE 10
FIELD-SPECIFIC SECONDARY EDUCATION:
TRAINING ACTIVITIES IN TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE IN THEIR CORRELATION

The Plan

I) LESSON PLANNING AND STAGING FOR FIELD-SPECIFIC SECONDARY EDUCATION
II) TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND CULTURE BY MEANS OF TEACHING LITERATURE
III) DESIGNING A WWW READING TASK
IV) STRATEGIES FOR DETERMINING IMPORTANCE IN NONFICTION TEXTS
V) USING DRAMA TEXTS IN THE CLASSROOM

"I am always ready to learn although I do not always like being taught."
Winston Churchill

I) LESSON PLANNING AND STAGING FOR FIELD-SPECIFIC SECONDARY EDUCATION

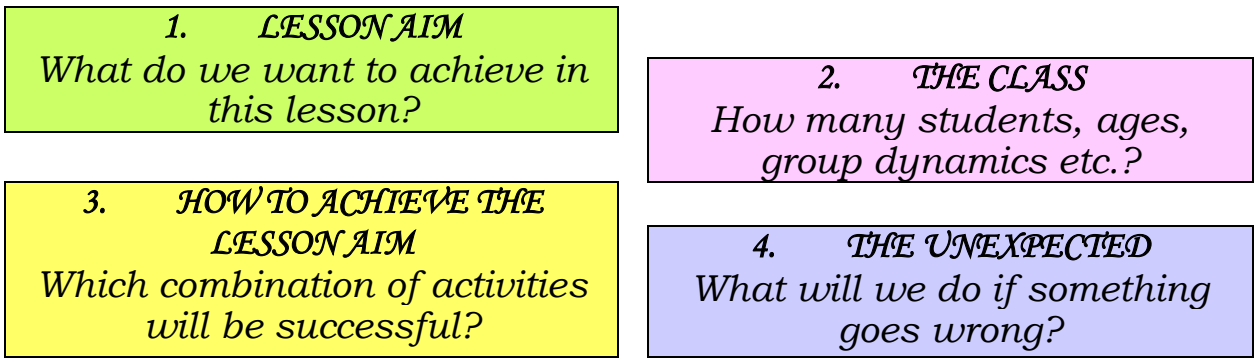
Walking into a class of new students sometimes can be a daunting experience, even for an experienced teacher. So all teachers use lesson plans to give the class direction. But the lesson plan has other benefits, both for us as teachers and our students. Some of the reasons for planning lessons include:

- allowing the teacher to time the individual components;
- providing for a logical progression of activities;
- showing students that some time has gone into preparing their lesson;
- enabling the teacher to see whether there is a balance of activities and skills within the lesson.

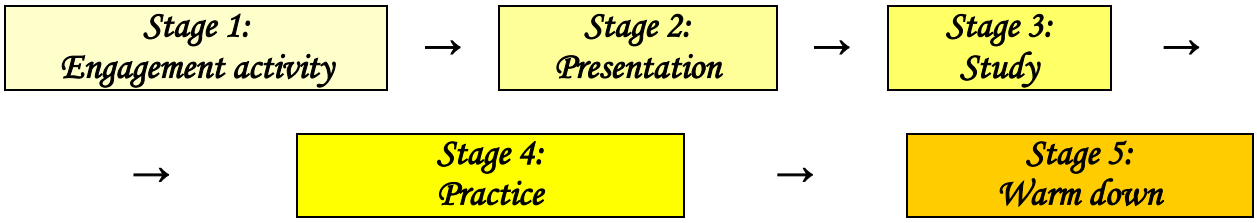
Planning will take a lot of time for the new teacher, initially perhaps as much time to plan one lesson as the lesson itself. But this time is worth investing. Tried and tested lesson plans can be repeated with other classes and adapted to suit other levels. Also there is nothing like the feeling of a good lesson when students are learning in a positive atmosphere that you have helped to create. This is unlikely to happen by chance.

The purpose of a lesson plan is to provide us with a lesson framework. Our lesson will need to include a variety of components, because students will quickly get bored if we just do one thing (30 minutes of dictation is not very inspiring), and the plan helps us order these components. This order should be logical and enable

us to see a link between each of the components, which leads us to achieve the aim of the lesson plan. We need to consider four elements in our planning which are listed in the boxes below:



It has been outlined what is needed in a lesson plan, so let us look at how the various stages of the lesson can be planned.



Stage 1: Engagement activity. When the class arrive, they may not be in tune or ready for English. This stage helps to "warm them up" and engage them, so that they are receptive to the lesson when it begins in earnest. Briefly, an engagement activity (sometimes called a warmer) gets the students speaking, wakes them up mentally and enables them to get ready for what is to come. An engagement activity usually takes no more than 5–10 minutes, sometimes less, and it allows a time buffer between the start of the classroom time and the start of the lesson proper. There are many engagement activity ideas that can be used. Some will fit into the theme of your lesson if you are really in tune, others will just be a good activity that wakes the students up.

Stage 2: Presentation.

This stage is designed to introduce the theme to the class, leading them into the lesson. If you wish it can be combined with the Engagement Activity.

Why do we do this?

When learning languages at school, this was the part that seemed to be missed out. There was often nothing preceding "open your books at page 54". The result was that the teachers often failed to engage their students into what followed, leading to some students losing interest and shutting off mentally. The basic idea behind the "presentation" stage is that if you prime students you warm them to what follows. It

aids learning, as the brain is activated, ready to find out more. It should be lively, predominately oral, and take no longer than about 10 minutes.

How is this achieved?

The best way to create good engagement activities is to select a main activity or theme for the "study" part of the lesson and work backwards. For example, imagine you have selected a reading activity, which is a section from the autobiography, for your *study* component. Here is an example of an engagement activity:

"Yes" or "No" game: Students ask questions to guess who they are going to read about. You can only answer "Yes" or "No". When they have guessed the person, put picture on the board and invite students (in pairs or small groups) to discuss the following questions: What do you know about him/her?; Is he/she a popular figure in your country? Invite general feedback and comment from the class.

Stage 3: Study. This is the lesson core. It may be a reading, writing, speaking or listening activity that you have chosen or a combination of them in some form. Whatever you choose, the activity should act as a base for some sort of analysis or study and there should be a link, thematic or otherwise with the engagement activity.

So the students study an area or a particular skill, also that they prove they have grasped the area under analysis in a task or series of tasks. The tasks may be a series of practices around a grammar focus, for example, or they may be more broad based to improve all round competencies in the language. These are tasks that allow a limited response only and serve to ensure that the target language is being used accurately. It is important that this focus on accuracy is done before any work on fluency is undertaken.

Stage 4: Practice. This is the phase that allows the students more freedom to use what they have learned in the study phase and practices it in different contexts. This phase generally contains more open tasks (rather than the controlled practices that characterised the earlier stage) that allow for a natural use of the target language. This phase is often referred to as a free practice.

It is important that students can use the target language outside of controlled exercises and that they have the opportunity to explore the language. They are more likely to speak and write naturally if they have the opportunity to practise in the classroom. There are a variety of 'freer' tasks depending on what you wish to practise. These include games, class discussions, free writing tasks and communication activities.

The 3 main stages of the lesson; presentation, study and practice will work particularly well when you have a structured language point to work through. It provides an excellent model for teaching lower ability groups, but may be found a little predictable for more advanced groups. As you get more confident you can

adjust the order, or even have different phases repeated. If you have a very imaginative higher level group, you might lead in with the practice phase and the narrative idea "It was a dark and stormy night..." and give them 10 minutes to prepare something. Go around the class eliciting a sentence each on the board to complete the story. Analyse grammar, vocabulary, sentence structure etc. together using the board work as a prompt. You could return to the freer practice by asking students, in groups, to tell each other about the scariest thing that has ever happened to them.

Stage 5: Warm down. The final part is a warm down stage. This is often overlooked by teachers and it is probably the most omitted part of plans when things don't run to time. But it is here that you and your students can take a breath. You can use it as a recap of the main points of the lesson, or if your lesson has been quite work focused then it can be a good chance to do something lighter.

II) TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND CULTURE BY MEANS OF TEACHING LITERATURE

What is the best way to find out about a country or English-speaking countries and challenge the stereotypes portrayed in many coursebooks? It is possible to give students this essential background to their language learning while improving their extensive reading and language skills at the same time.

Reading is a creative process, and reading and writing are two sides of the same coin. They build on students' innate knowledge of narrative and storytelling. Teachers can use the materials in literature to engage the students as readers in their own right. Introducing narrative as input encourages students to build closer relationships with the text and makes them less dependent on the teacher.

As the strategy, a reading approach emphasises engagement with the text. Activities and tasks should be provided. Generally, they are more subjective and there is a move away from traditional comprehension and data-collection activities. In this approach the pre-reading stage becomes vitally important. The aim of these pre-reading activities is to get the students to want to read the text and to provide motivation to read. The activities allow teachers to build a narrative base and include:

- Using pictures / video / sound as prompts, e.g. show students illustrations and ask them to speculate on the story or show students illustrations or a video clip to encourage them to speculate on the story.
- Building on shared narratives, e.g. working together in groups to work out a story before reading the text – teachers can tap into students' imagination.

- "Chunking" and "stepping stones", e.g. providing chunks of text from the target story, but leaving gaps which students can fill in by creating narrative. When students finally read the text they meet familiar sections.
- Narrative building questions, e.g. asking questions about a story the students have not read yet – this is a fun way of building a story.

All of these activities create heightened interest and curiosity about the content of the story. Students will want to compare their own story with the author's. They encourage group work, sharing ideas and recognise our student's abilities as story-tellers. All this provides a solid framework before students meet the target text.

After the pre-reading or "characterisation" activities reading can be done in various ways, whether reading or reading and listening to the text. Teachers can download audio recordings by the author of many of the stories and poems.

As students read the story teachers can provide textual intervention activities to exploit the content of the story. For example, the story can be interrupted at key moments to explore the content and allow students to speculate and examine points.

The last stage involves follow-up activities to round up and provide a sense of closure. This can provide an opportunity to link to the school syllabus or can support wider themes such as family / relationships, science or technology. We can use the story as a springboard to explore these themes.

Further story-building work is also possible. A fun variant is to ask the students to write their own stories using characters "borrowed" from the original story. Alternatively, students may be asked to break the story down into its component parts and characters, describe them and then find modern equivalents for a contemporary setting.

Teachers often wish to provide grammar practice of key grammar points, but this needs to be handled with care so that we don't overdo it and destroy the enjoyment of reading.

Choosing suitable texts: The original choice of texts should be based on the criteria of using living, contemporary authors from Commonwealth countries. They reflect the multi-cultural nature of the UK.

Another criterion is brevity and the texts needed to be fairly short to be accessible, for example Louise Cooper's short story *Chain Reaction,* a short story with a funny twist at the end.

Poetry can also be included with texts from a variety of poets. For example, the popular poem Orange Juice by Michael Rosen is an easy-to-read poem and provides humorous language practice at a lower level, and could even be used as a model for students to create their own poetry.

Towards independence: The short stories and poems have to be authentic and ungraded, though they should serve as a selection of the more accessible stories

which your students could read more independently. We could adapt the step by step approach outlined above to exploit these further.

For example, you could provide the essential pre-reading stage in class to set the context for the story and then ask students to read the story as homework independently. In the next lesson back at school follow-up activities could be tackled in small groups or project work could be undertaken. They can share their views and opinions about the themes in the story.

Alternatively, students can tackle a story completely independently. Each story has a pre-reading vocabulary activity to introduce new lexis and familiarise the students with key vocabulary items from the story.

After reading the story themselves the students can check their comprehension by doing one of the follow up activities – for example a quick true/false check. They may like to tackle one of the more challenging tasks such as re-ordering events from the story or summarising and gap-filling. It is important to stress to students that they do not have to do all the exercises and that these are just a fun way to check their understanding of the story. Students could keep a record of the stories they have read in a reading log, or write short reviews to recommend stories to other students.

III) DESIGNING A WWW READING TASK

A teacher can turn a reasonable authentic reading text into a useful and fulfilling activity, so why not take the same skills you might use with a newspaper article and turn them to good use, bearing in mind various aspects of the newer medium that are peculiar to it. This article gives advice on designing tasks based on the internet.

- Search Tasks
- Controlled Site Tasks
- Criteria for selecting websites
- Keying in
- Conclusion

Search tasks: Whilst still a type of reading task, simply looking for information using search engines can be quite hard for students at lower levels, or for students with relatively little experience of computers. This is because the students must sift through a fairly large amount of information on a search engine's results page and interpret those results correctly, which requires a high level of language-interpreting skills, and may be quite time consuming. This could lead to problems with sustaining the students' interest and motivation, and eventually not be particularly constructive.

Controlled Site Tasks: For less experienced learners and for a more intensive reading session, a "controlled site" task is much better. This is where the teacher

decides on the website(s) and designs the task based on this. It is also a good approach for less technologically able students (and teachers!) or students having a *WWW lesson* for the first time.

The first step is to choose a website. The simple rule here is that the obvious ones are the best, so if the topic is "News" then the BBC or CNN are fairly good starting points – they both have good international news sections. Once you have a topic, things become a lot easier, but there are still several criteria which need to be considered.

Criteria for selecting websites:

✓ How topic-specific is the site? – That is, if you are doing "relationships" and you have focused on the extended family, then a site on marriage is not likely to help much. Many websites might seem to cover the relevant topic, but upon closer inspection, it becomes clear that the site covers other things or even something else entirely.

✓ How appropriate is the language? – Is there a lot of technical language or culturally specific references that may be beyond your class? You may have to pre-teach certain vocabulary for the reading, as with many reading activities. There may also be informal language that your students may not be familiar with or indeed a section with inappropriate terms such as swearing and offensive slang.

✓ How accurate is the language? – Badly written websites are more common than you may think – as well as sites which use emoticons and text-style abbreviations. Granted this could be used as a language point for higher level students, although the relevance of such language is debatable.

✓ How reliable is the site? – You go into your lesson on Thursday and find that the site has changed its front page content, making your clear instructions completely incomprehensible. This updating is fairly common, particularly those carrying topical information such as newspaper or TV channel sites. Some sites change about once a year, many change every day. In some cases the site may disappear altogether.

✓ How navigable is the site? – Is it easy to move from page to page, and to get back to the home page if necessary? Your students may end up not only grappling with the language content of the website, but also with the navigation of the website, particularly if they lack experience and confidence with the technology involved.

As well as these web-specific criteria, there are also the normal criteria which need to be used when designing any kind of reading task, for example how interesting is the site to your students? Interest is a key point because distractions are easy to find and swift to download on the web! However, if you know what your students should be looking at, then classroom management issues are reduced.

Keying In: Once a site has been chosen then you need to decide what you want your students to do with it. This is where your knowledge and experience as a teacher

and the materials you have designed in the past come in. The questions and activities are the same as any reading task (multiple choice questions, reading for gist then scanning for specific points within the text and so on). Tasks like this can be compiled and used again and again as long as they are well designed and flexible enough to take into account any changes that might take place. Ideally keep the original on a PC that can be changed at any time. Designing a task is as simple as that, but often requires internet access during preparation time as well as just during class time.

IV) STRATEGIES FOR DETERMINING IMPORTANCE IN NONFICTION TEXTS

The skill of determining importance in a nonfiction text is an area in which students of all ages often struggle. For emerging readers, it can require so much attention to merely get *through* reading a nonfiction text, that it is easy not to process what the text actually says, much less pull out the important details and overall meaning. And for older students, increasingly complex texts can be dense with information and difficult to digest. Here are four strategies for determining importance in nonfiction texts – and they are usable in any grade.

Determining importance is the process of determining what is important in a text and what is not. “We decide, from among everything on the page, what is most important to attend to and remember,” according to The Reading Recovery Training Center at Clemson University. “As proficient readers, we engage in that process continually while reading. We filter information and organize our thinking around the big ideas. Determining importance allows us to move through a text coherently, developing a line of thinking that helps our reading make sense.”

Tanny McGregor, author of Comprehension Connections: Bridges to Strategic Reading, once explained determining importance to a class by providing a memorable visual. The premise is that our brain cannot possibly remember everything we read, nor should do it. Our job is to keep the really important stuff we read in our mind and strain out the rest. She demonstrated this using a literal kitchen strainer full of water and spaghetti, pouring out the water to leave just the pasta. “Your brain is like the strainer and the words are like the noodles. The spaghetti water is not important, so you do not have to keep it. When you read something, it is like it is pouring in through your eyes and then it goes through your brain.”

Nonfiction strategy: five-sentence summaries: When reading a whole text, it is easy for students to lose focus and get lost in what they are reading. Creating

five-sentence summaries can help students stay active while reading, as well as pull out and sum up the most critical information.

How to do it: *Students should use a pen to number sections of the text as they read them. Summaries are written in order. They can chunk the text and pull out the important points from the beginning, a little way in, the middle, almost the end, and the end of the text. Then, they can sum up each section in one sentence, finishing with a five-sentence summary!*

For young readers: *For learners who aren't ready to write sentence-based summaries, the strategy can be done by drawing pictures, arranging pictures, or even participating verbally ("First, the text said this. Then, the text said this…"). Readers can also break the summary down into three parts: beginning, middle, and end.*

Nonfiction strategy: noticing patterns, numbers, and facts: Teach students to pick up on patterns in a text. If a text mentions *photosynthesis* a bunch of times, chances are that's an important topic of the piece. Students can get into the habit of noticing and highlighting words and concepts that repeat. Additionally, teach students to notice and make note of numbers, statistics, and facts in nonfiction. See a number? Make a note! See a fact? Circle it!

How to do it: *Determine a system of symbols for annotation and students can use these symbols to quickly make note of patterns, numbers/statistics, and facts they find in a text.*

For young readers: *Ask students to find what repeats and explore why. For example: If the text uses the word triangle a lot, it's logical that triangles are important in the text.*

Strategy: Funneling topics

Once students know how to look for patterns, they can learn how to funnel down topics. This strategy teaches students to find the larger topic, the subtopics, and the supporting details in a nonfiction text.

How to do it: *This can be done by simply writing notes on paper or you can provide students with a graphic organizer with an image of a funnel. Tell students to look for word patterns and clues within the title, captions, and display text. For example, a text uses the term NBA draft a lot, so it is likely that the overarching topic is basketball. Then, it's time to zoom in and look for subtopics and the supporting details in the text.*

✓ *Main topic: Basketball*

✓ *Subtopic 1: NBA Draft Rules*

✓ *Supporting details: New salary rules will influence the NBA draft this year as they pick players.*

For young readers: *Teach students to pull out the big topic and then shrink it down to a detail or two. This can be done visually, in writing, verbally, or kinesthetically by using manipulatives. Gradually increase the level of detail the students look for.*

✓ *Big idea: Koalas*

✓ *Shrink it down: Koalas are from Australia*

✓ *Shrink it down even more: Koalas only eat plants*.

Strategy: Pile it on.

How to do it: *This idea comes from Serravallo's incredibly useful reading strategies book. Using sticky notes, readers jot down notes as they read. One sticky note per jot. After they're done, they "collect all the jots that have to do with one idea. Look across them, to pile the ideas together." This helps readers categorize what they've read, organize important topics, and pull out ideas as they're reading.*

For young readers: *Have students draw pictures on sticky notes, copying important words and phrases from the text or visually looking at and discussing this together as a class.*

V) USING DRAMA TEXTS IN THE CLASSROOM

Collie and Slater (1987) focused on the positive contributions language learning through literature could make in that literary texts constituted valuable authentic material as it exposes the learner to different registers, types of language use.

Writers such as Maley and Duff (1978) and Wessels (1987) have pointed to the values and uses of drama:

"Drama can help the teacher to achieve *reality* in several ways. It can overcome the students' resistance to learning the new language:

➢ by making the learning of the new language an enjoyable experience;

➢ by setting realistic targets for the students to aim for;

➢ by creative "slowing down" of real experience;

➢ by linking the language-learning experience with the student's own experience of life.

And drama can create in students a need to learn the language:

✓ by the use of *creative tension* (situations requiring urgent solutions);

✓ by putting more responsibility on the learner, as opposed to the teacher."

Drama provides cultural and language enrichment by revealing insights into the target culture and presenting language contexts that make items memorable by placing them in a realistic social and physical context.

One of the drawbacks in the use of literary texts such as novels and poems is that many of them contain language forms that learners of a language find difficult to understand. This could be overcome by simplifying them, often leading to a loss of "literariness" – leading to criticism that the texts became pale imitations of the original writing. The lack of suitable texts in the traditional body of literature, in my view opens the door for the inclusion of drama in language learning curricula as it tends to use much more naturalistic language than in poems and novels. Drama texts help to address the need for sufficient texts for worthwhile reading in which suitable materials can be accessed.

The "a" type analytical approach to drama / theatre texts: The analysis of language in a text is just one aspect of its use. In the type "***a***" approach, language is separated into its phonological, lexical components etc and disseminating strategies then adopted. Using this analytical approach, a teacher or course designer would think of a series of structures, language items that were to be taught. A literary text exemplifying these structures was then selected and used in order to practise or raise the learner's consciousness of it.

The "b" type experiential approach to drama / theatre texts: Here, language was not seen as object but as a tool. Much more emphasis was placed upon, for example, the inductive method of learning through experiencing and applying the learner's experience to the text through encouraging comment, responses and expression based on the text or its theme / topic. The theme / topic-based syllabus is often seen as more relevant to language learning.

Learning activities using drama / theatre texts: From a task point of view the learner is faced with several levels of achievement / ability that the teacher can use as a basis for designing multi-level activities for students:

- ❖ Identifying the story, characters, plot (achievable at beginner level)
- ❖ Identifying the author's / characters' viewpoint, attitude or opinion
- ❖ Understanding the work in relation to its socio-cultural and historical-political context
- ❖ Giving a personal / creative response (e.g. enacting the text)
- ❖ Answering the question: "does it work as literature?" (Extended critical analysis of text)

Classroom method: The process involves linking standard approaches in drama / theatre to approaches suitable for the classroom. Classroom practice, then, may follow a (1) (physical) warm up – (2) text reading / listening – (3) extension activities format.

Stage 1: Standard methods in the type ***"b"*** approach involve warmer activities to get the learner to anticipate what they are going to meet in the language in the text using guessing, pre-discussion, pictures.

It involves little or no stylistic analysis. Its aims are to stimulate oral communication, reading for pleasure and to enrich thinking and expression for this reason, drama techniques focusing on waking the imagination, and the body including the vocal chords in preparation for reading or even enacting the text could easily precede this stage. Use of text can be one of the more in-depth and sophisticated drama activities. Warmers, drama games, role-plays, individual and group improvisation can all be used to support higher-level drama activities such as performing the text in the classroom.

The idea is that the pre-reading / listening stage will sensitise the learner to the language and concepts to be encountered and engage prior knowledge and experience. Pictures, the book cover, prompt questions, learners' own memorabilia etc are used.

Stage 2: The second stage may involve two task types:

1. The while listening/reading task involves the learner having a task to fulfil based on his/her reading, such as finding out a piece of information from the text.
2. Tasks inserted into the text such as one where learners complete the task using their own ideas.

Stage 3: The third stage could incorporate:

1. Comprehension questions such as: Who? When? What? etc.
2. Multiple-choice questions are useful for evoking possible alternative answers.
3. Text attack questions require the learner to realise certain meanings in the text and the way they are achieved in the language use.
4. Interpretation and response tasks /questions: What's the message from the author? What general meanings can we infer from the antagonists' statements / actions? What conclusions can we draw about the character and motivations of the antagonists? How is that expressed through the language? How do you feel about the character? How did you feel as the character? Response calls for the learner to express an opinion or feeling and to often say why they feel this or have this opinion.

Differing approaches need to be incorporated in language teaching/learning for their relative merits.

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