Alla Anisimova Liubov Koshova

Modern Aspects of English Language Teaching:

Theory & Practice

Dnipropetrovsk 2010

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Анісімова А. І. Сучасні аспекти методики викладання англійської мови. Теорія і практика / А. І. Анісімова, Л. С. Кошова – Д.: РВВ ДНУ, 2010. – 326 с.

Підручник "Modern aspects of English Language Teaching. Theory and Practice", написаний англійською мовою і охоплює усі теми, що передбачені програмою вищих навчальних закладів з дисципліни "Методика викладання англійської мови".

У підручник увійшли 6 розділів. У теоретичній частині кожного розділу автори глибоко і всебічно розкривають тему, спираючись на вже існуючі роботи вітчизняних та зарубіжних лінгвістів. Кожний розділ містить глосарій і список рекомендованої літератури для самовдосконалення, питання для обговорення на практичних заняттях та тести для самоперевірки, а також тематику рефератів. Додаткові матеріали містять приклади складання планів уроку та включають таблиці і схеми курсу.

Підручник призначений для студентів інститутів, університетів та факультетів іноземних мов, для викладачів, наукових працівників, а також для всіх, хто цікавиться питаннями викладання англійської мови.

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Підручник Алла Ігорівна Анісімова Любов Сергіївна Кошова

Сучасні аспекти методики викладання англійської мови: теорія та практика.

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Language learning is important in the interests of greater mobility, more effective international communication combined with respect for identity and cultural diversity, more intensive personal interaction, improved working relations and a deeper mutual understanding.

(Common Europian Framework)

Foreword

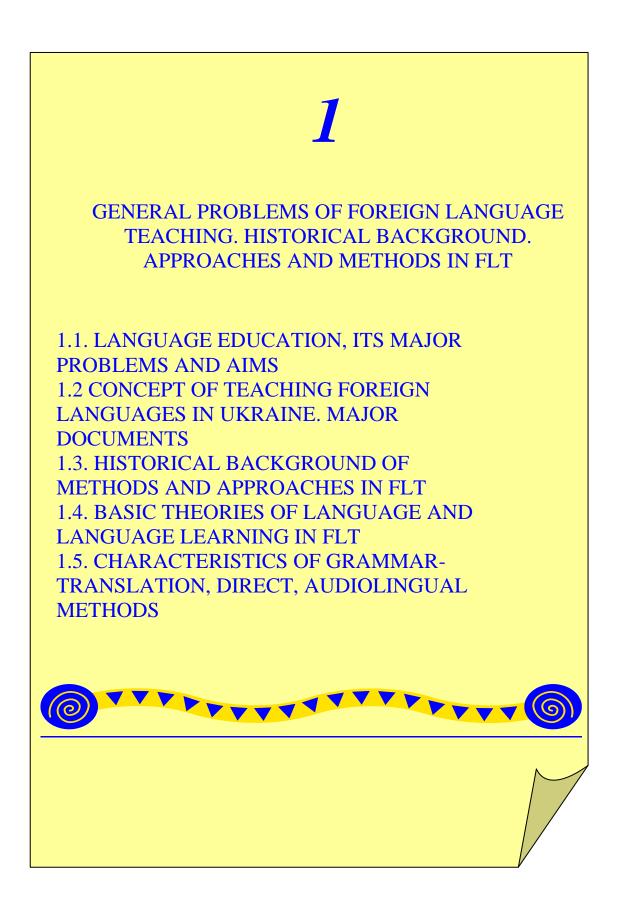
This volume is a resource for successful acquisition of ELT course by language students. A range of topics is presented to provide a basis for the course revision and facilitate the theoretical awareness and practical skills of future language professionals.

The materials of the book address fundamental issues of foreign language teaching, namely, the general problems and historical background of FLT, major approaches and methods that have been in operation, teaching different aspects of language and speech skills. The materials proposed serve as an effective tool for understanding the structural peculiarities of the English lesson and will lead to students' awareness in designing their own lessons.

We set out with the goal of maintaining the balance between theory and practice – between providing relevant and thought-provoking theoretical material, on the one hand, and giving a broad focus to classroom suggestions, sample lesson plans and lesson fragments, tests for students' self check and some resources for preservice and in-service language teachers, on the other.

There is a contemporary volume that covers such updated topics as understanding the nature of communicative activity, teacher roles in the language classroom, the issues and challenges of fruitful classroom interaction, the role of effective classroom management in increasing students' motivation. The target reader will find here a number of supplements which include originally-designed tables and charts, useful reference materials and key to self checks, together with a wide repertoire of interactive strategies to empower students in a foreign language.

Alla Anisimova, Liubov Koshova



1. GENERAL PROBLEMS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND. APPROACHES AND METHODS IN FLT

English Language Teaching (ELT) is one of the key subjects for language students and a long-lasting interest for language professionals. Nowadays the profession of a language teacher is becoming more and more prestigious. Our society is keen on studying foreign languages because it gives people, children first of all, a competitive educational and professional advantage.

Language teaching has undergone amazing change in the last decades: from *teacher-centered classrooms* to *individualized learning*, from *grammar-translation method* to *communicative approach* and from *the chalkboard* to *the Internet*, we have come a long way.

Methods of foreign language teaching as a science deals with teaching methodology that helps language practitioner make learners acquire the target language. The object of the science is *the educational process*, the process of teacher-student interaction, which includes teacher's activity, students' activity and classroom management.

1.1. Language education, its major problems and aims.

Language education includes the teaching and learning of a language. It is more commonly used with regard to foreign/second/new language teaching (FLT, SLT, NLT). English language teaching (ELT) or teaching English as a foreign/second/new language (TEFL, TESL ,TENL) is a branch of methodological science which studies (See table 1, App. 4) why we study/teach English or other foreign/new languages, in other words, what **aims** and **objectives** are stated; **what** we actually study/teach in the educational process or what the **content** of the course is (see table 3, App. 4). ELT course and methodological science can help a practical teacher to decide **with the help of what to** teach, what **teaching aids** and **materials** (see table 4, App. 4) are the most effective and relevant to teacher's aims and, last but not least, **how** to teach, what **approaches**, **methods**, **principles** and **techniques** will be the most successful in the language classroom for achieving necessary results.

The aim of teaching a foreign language is fourfold. Firstly, teaching foreign languages has its unique **practical value**. Learners are supposed to have an effective command of the language in familiar situations; to be effective communicators in social, cultural, educational spheres and in everyday situations. Secondly, the aim has an **educational character** as learners are supposed to get acquainted with a new culture and be involved into cross-cultural study. Thirdly, the aim is valuable from **cultural** point of view as learners are supposed to adopt an appropriate system of communication in a modern society, to show their positive attitude to the target language and traditions of the target culture, to be brought up as tolerant, hardworking, active, outgoing and helpful people.

Fourthly, the aim has a **developmental** dimension, as learners are supposed to be able to provide problem solving activities, to develop their speech abilities (imitation, logic, phono- and intonation hearing, language guessing, etc.) (See table 2, App. 4).

The content of ELT (see table 3, App. 4) should ensure the achievement of the main aim of teaching – to teach students *to communicate in typical real-life situations* in the range of material learned. Students' ability to communicate is provided through the **acquisition of communicative competence**, possessing certain *language skills*. So, skills acquired by learners contain the first component of the content of FLT. In the course of communication the communicators reveal themselves as bearers of appropriate interrelations and social contacts which appear in this or that sphere of activity and are realized in specific speech situations. Acquisition of communicative competence in educational process is possible with the help of modeling typical real-life situations which cover different topics and different spheres of social intercourse. Thus, spheres of social intercourse, topics and situations contain the second component of the content of FLT. The third component is the language material proposed to train and practise such areas as grammar structures, vocabulary study, pronunciation issues, spelling.

Effective acquisition of content and achievement of aims of teaching by learners are possible as a result of appropriate organization of the teaching process according to some important principles, with the help of effective methods and approaches, using challenging techniques for language acquisition.

Methods of FLT is a body of scientifically tested theory concerning the teaching of foreign languages in schools and other educational institutions. It is a science which studies aims, objectives and content of the *educational process*, teaching aids and materials involved as well as methods and approaches, principles and techniques of training and instruction; educational value of teacher-student interaction on the basis of foreign language teaching.

Points for discussion

- Main issues covered by Methods of FLT / ELT.
- Fourfold aim of teaching English in secondary schools in present-day Ukraine.
- Basic methodological terms.

Self-Check

1. Decipher the following abbreviations:

a) TEFL;	c) FLT;	e) ELT;
b) TESL;	d) TENL;	f) IATEFL.

2. Match the aim of teaching foreign languages with its definition:

a) develop creative abilities of learners, critical-
thinking skills, speech facilities (as phonetic
and intonation hearing, imitation, logic,
linguistic guessing etc.);
b) educating culture of personal contacts and
social intercourse accepted in a modern
society, promoting cultural growth;

3. CULTURAL AIM4.DEVELOPMENTAL AIM

c) acquisition of communicative competence;d) deeper insight into the nature and functioning of language as a social phenomenon.

3. Find out the components of the content of FLT:

a) communicative competence, language skills;

b) skills to develop, topics and situations to discuss in different

spheres of intercourse, language material to practise;

c) acquisition of communicative competence;

d) teaching aids and materials.

4. Methods of FLT as a science is ______

5. Communicative competence is understood as

a) communication in typical real-life situations;

b) appropriate organization of the teaching process;

c) practical aim of teaching foreign languages;

d) training and practicing language/speech skills.

Useful terms

Acquisition: The learning and development of a person's language.

Educational/teaching process: The process of teacher-student interaction, which includes teacher's activity, students' activity and classroom management.

FL: Foreign language, a non-native language taught in school that has no status as a routine medium of communication in that country; refers to a language where no such special status as one finds in the case of *a second language* is implied, and a foreign language is not at all vailable in the immediate environment of the learner. English, French, German, for example, are foreign languages in Ukraine.

ELT: English Language Teaching.

FLT: Foreign Language Teaching.

Habit: A thing that a person does often and almost without thinking; it may be regarded as an instance of learning in which a relatively simple response is made, automatically and fairly frequently, to a relatively simple kind of situation.

L1: Mother tongue, native language. The definitions of *mother tongue* often include the following elements: the language (s) that one has learnt first; the language (s) one identifies with or is identified as a native speaker of by others; the language (s) one knows best and the language (s) one uses most.

L2: Second language, any language learned after the *first language* or *mother tongue*. A *second language* is a non-native language that is widely used for purposes of communication, usually as a medium of education, government, or business. Russian, for example, has foreign language status in China or Japan, but second language status in Ukraine.

TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

TESL: Teaching English as a Second Language.

TENL: Teaching English as a New Language.

IATEFL: International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language.

Object of Methods of FLT: The object of the science is the educational/teaching process.

Skill: An ability to do something well, especially because you have learned and practised it.

Subject of Methods of FLT: The science deals with the methodology of language teaching.

Teaching aids: Tools used by teachers, facilitators, or tutors to help learners improve their skills, illustrate or reinforce a skill, fact, or idea, and relieve anxiety, fears, or boredom, since many teaching aids are like games.

Teaching materials: Books, text books, different manuals and language-based realia

Reports proposed on the theme

- Main methodological principles of FLT.
- Aims and objectives in language teaching.

Further reading

Анісімова А. І. Опорний конспект лекцій із курсу «Методика викладання іноземних мов» / А. І. Анісімова, Л. С. Кошова. – Дніпропетровськ : РВВ ДНУ, 2003. – 52 с.

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Ніколаєва С. Ю. Ступенева система освіти в Україні та система навчання іноземних мов / Ніколаєва С. Ю., Петращук О. П., Бражник Н. О. // Бібліотечка журналу «Іноземні мови». – 1996. – № 1. – 90 с.

Reference Guide for the Teacher of English. Довідник учителя англійської мови [упоряд.: Т. Михайленко, І. Берегова]. – К. : Редакція загально-педагогічних газет, 2004. – 128 с.

1.2. Concept of teaching foreign languages in Ukraine. Major documents

School faces great changes these days: 12-year period of study at school launched in 2002, new system of evaluation of knowledge – 12-grade system, which seems more appropriate, compulsory foreign language studying from the 2 year in comparison with the traditional beginning from the 5 year of study, declared a new challenging approach to teaching foreign languages in senior classes – a concept of academic teaching (*концепція профільного навчання*) and other revolutionary innovations.

The National Education Reform initiated by the 1991 Education Act formulates the aims and objectives of the development of the Ukrainian education system. Some of the basic principles of the national policy on education closely connected with foreign language teaching are the following:

- democratic tendencies in the teaching process;
- humanistic approaches to teaching, learner-centered methodology;
- life-long learning.

A Concept of teaching foreign languages in Ukraine based on these principles was adopted in 1994. According to the Concept each child is a unique personality whose positive attitude towards learning foreign languages can be achieved through providing **real possibilities for spiritual development** and emotional self-expression, through the **feeling of personal success, moral comfort** and **joyful learning atmosphere**.

The conceptual changes in FLT have revealed the desire to follow the progressive road of the world's educational process and to work in accordance with all-European tendencies in teaching foreign/second languages. All the ideas and concepts have been implemented into some basic documents which regulate the educational process in Ukrainian secondary schools. First of all, it is the Program (Foreign Language Syllabus) and the National Educational Standard of FLT. The latter was adopted in the middle of 1990s and aimed at formulating major standards of language teaching for basic secondary school, giving definition of *communicative* competence (See: tables 3 and 5, App. 4). These ideas were further developed in innovative variants of the Program of Teaching Foreign Languages in Ukraine. The first one was launched in 2001-2002 academic year for a 12-grade school and was based on the principles of communicative teaching, learner-centered approach, learner's autonomy and skills integration. The second, which is in operation since 2005, follows the philosophy of humanistic pedagogy and based on the ideas of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEF).

CEF presents **agreed common reference standards**, a broad description of what a user of a language can "do" at six different levels of performance ranging from "**basic**" (A1, A2) through "**independent**" (B1, B2) to "**proficient**" (C1, C2) and three sub-levels A2+, B1+, B2+ (See: table 9, App. 4). **The global scale of the Common Reference Levels** (See: table 8, App. 4) which facilitate recognition of language proficiency, defining six levels of proficiency is purely descriptive in nature.

Level A1 (Breakthrough) is the lowest level of generative language proficiency which is established for beginners (early-school stage). The learner can *interact in a simple way, ask and answer simple questions about themselves, where they live, people they know, and things they have, initiate and respond to simple statements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics*. The Program of Teaching Foreign Languages (2005) envisages the achievement of the level to the end of primary school (2-4 years of study).

Level A2 (Waystage) is the level (junior stage) where the majority of descriptors stating social functions are to be found, like the ability *to use simple everyday polite forms of greeting and address; to greet people, ask how they are and react to news; handle very short social exchanges; to ask and answer questions about what they do at work and in free time; to make and respond to invitations; to discuss what to do, where to go and make arrangements to meet; to make and accept offers. The sub-level A2+(Strong Waystage) represents more active participation in conversation given some assistance and certain limitations and significantly more ability to sustain monologues. Level A2+ has to be achieved by the end of secondary school (5-9 years of study).*

Level B1 (Threshold Level) is categorised by two features. The first feature is the ability to maintain interaction and get across what you want to, in a range of contexts. The second feature is the ability to cope flexibly with problems in everyday life (intermediate stage). The sub-level B1+(Strong Threshold) is envisaged to be achieved by high school leavers with the same two features present plus a number of descriptors which focus on the exchange of quantities of information. Level B2 (Vantage Level) is focused on effective argument, the ability to converse naturally, fluently and effectively. The second new focus is a new degree of language awareness (upper intermediate stage).

More challenged and sophisticated performances such as Level B2+ (Strong Vantage), C1 (Effective operational proficiency) and C2 (Mastery) need further study and can not be achieved in secondary school.

The documents mentioned above provide teachers with understanding the **aims, objectives** and **content** of the educational process in secondary school and are the guidelines in teaching English.

Points for discussion

- New challenges in teaching foreign languages in Ukraine. The educational reform and its characteristics.
- Main principles of newly designed documents for language teachers: communicative approach, learner-centered methodology, learners' autonomy and skills integration.
- Common Reference Levels in language teaching.

Self-Check

- 1. The Program of Teaching Foreign Languages (2005) includes:
 - a) grammar minimum;
 - b) topics to discuss and language functions to practise;
 - c) lexical minimum.

2. Mark four major principles of *The English Language Program for 12-year* secondary school (2001):

- a) skills integration;
- b) co-operative learning;
- c) student-centered teaching;

- d) communicative language teaching;
- e) learners' autonomy;
- f) visualization.

3. Methods of teaching which emphasize the active role of students in learning and encourage learners to take more responsibility for their own learning are called

4. Match the Common Reference Levels with their description based on the global scale:

A1	a) The user can express him / herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes.
B1	b) The user can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfyang the needs of a concrete type. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.
C1	c) The user can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.

5. Match the Common Reference Levels with the years of study in Ukrainian school:

- A1 a) 5-9 years of study
- A2+ b) 10-12 years of study
- B1+ c) 2-4 years of study

Useful terms

Integrated approach/skills integration: The teaching of the language skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking in conjunction with each other, as when a lesson involves activities that relate listening and speaking to reading and writing.

Common Reference Levels: Description of learners' achievements, which facilitate recognition of language proficiency, global scale of Common Reference Levels defines six levels and three sub-levels of proficiency.

Curriculum: An educational program which states:

- the educational purpose of the program (the ends);

- the content, teaching procedures, and learning experiences which will be necessary to achieve this purpose (the means);

- some means of assessing whether or not the educational means have been achieved (another term for *syllabus*).

Humanistic approaches: Approaches to language teaching which give priority to learners' participation in classroom communication, encourage them to become the authors of their own language use, rather than vehicles for abstracted repetition.

Language proficiency: The degree of person's skill in using a language for specific purposes.

Learner's autonomy: The term describes the situation in which learner is totally responcible for all of the decisions concerned with their learning and the implementation of those decisions with no teacher involvement.

Learner-centred teaching: Learning situations where information and ideas are brought to the class by learners and used as learning material, and which are concerned with the interests, needs, learning styles, feelings, lives and/or values of learners.

Syllabus: 1. *British*: specification of the content of language teaching; a structuring or ordering of that content in terms of grading and presentation.

2. *American*: A schedule of items or units to be taught; a daily or weekly program of material to be presented (see *curriculum*).

Teacher-dominated teaching: Learning situations where teacher is the main authority in the classroom.

Reports proposed on the theme

- New approaches to teaching foreign languages in Ukraine.
- Innovations of school ELT and FLT programs for 12-year secondary school (2001 and 2005) and The National Educational Standard of FLT.
- Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEF) as the guardline for language professionals.

Further reading

Державний освітній стандарт з іноземної мови (загальна середня освіта). 5–9 класи / Під ред. С. Ю. Ніколаєвої. – К.: Ленвіт, 1998. – 31 с.

Програма для загальноосвітніх навчальних закладів. Англійська мова. 2– 12 класи / [під ред. П.О. Беха]. – К. : Вид. дім «Шкільний світ», 2001. – 39 с.

Програми для загальноосвітніх навчальних закладів та спеціалізованих шкіл з поглибленим вивченням іноземних мов. Іноземні мови 2-12 класи / [під кер. В. Г. Редько]. – К. : ВТФ «Перун», 2005. – 205 с.

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Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment. – Cambridge : CUP, 2003. – 260 p.

Insights from the Common European Framework [edited by Keith Morrow]. – Oxford : OUP, 2004. – 143 p.

1.3. Historical background of methods and approaches in FLT

The need to learn foreign languages is almost as old as human history itself. The field of foreign language teaching has undergone many fluctuations and dramatic shifts over the years. This is the field where fads and heroes have come and gone together with the changes in youth culture. So the sphere feels a great impact of time and society. The requirements of time and society dictate how to teach foreign languages as throughout history foreign language learning has always been an important practical concern. If a foreign language is so important for practical purposes the most favourable teaching approaches are those which encourage students using language in order to acquire it. If the society is not interested in practical implementation of language, then comes the time of analyzing it. Over the centuries, language teaching methodology has been vacillating between these two types of approaches:

- one which focuses on **using** a language;
- the other which focuses on **analyzing** it.

At the beginning of the 20th century, this distinctive pattern was observable in the shift from the analytical Grammar Translation Approach to the use-oriented Direct Method. Later the shift was connected with the rise of popularity of communicative approaches which emphasize language use over rules of language usage. Labeling this or that approach as good or bad is not fruitful. Success and effectiveness of different approaches or methods depend on whether they meet the requirements of time and society or not.

Historically the origin of modern language education has its roots in the study and teaching of Latin. 500 years ago Latin was the dominant language of education, commerce, religion and government in much of the Western world. But later, during the Renaissance period, Latin abandoned its role as **a lingua franca**, gradually becoming displaced as a language of spoken and written communication. Since that time Latin together with ancient Greek has become the *formal object of instruction* in schools and universities rather than *the language of everyday communication*. Otherwise the influence of the method of presentation of the dead language has been great. Actually from the 17th up to 20th century the study of classical Latin and analysis of its grammar was *the model for foreign language study*. We feel the influence even now in the practices of **Grammar-Translation Method** (see details in chapter 1.5), which became firmly entrenched as a method of teaching aimed at *analyzing* a language rather than *using* it. However, the swinging of the pendulum continued and by the end of the 19-th century the focus in language study shifted back to utility rather than analysis.

An alternative method to propose was **the Direct Method** (see details in chapter 1.5), other labels of which are Natural/ Conversational /Anti-grammatical method as its proponents (F. Gouin, E.B. de Sauze) were strongly opposed to teaching formal grammar, learning rules and translation practice. They advocated development of oral skills and the primary role of a spoken word. At the beginning of the 20th century, given the lack of teachers who were fluent in the target language, their endeavor was not quite successful and this led to the endorsement of **the Reading approach** to language teaching. It was the reaction to the impracticality of the Direct approach as at that period of time reading, not speaking was viewed as the most usable skill in foreign language. Reading comprehension is the only language skill emphasized within the Reading approach. Translation becomes once more a respectful classroom procedure, only the grammar useful for reading comprehension is taught, vocabulary is controlled first, then expanded.

In the middle of the 20th century new challenges and pressures of historical situation made imperative to teach people to speak and understand the target language quickly and efficiently. That helped to erect **the Audio-Lingual approach** (see details in chapter 1.5), which advocated departure from the traditional reading and translating procedures and stressed maximum opportunity to practice the target language.

It is evident that nowadays a foreign language is used for communicative purposes, and the acquisition of communicative competence is the main aim of teaching. In this connection we are speaking about **the Communicative Approach** (see details in chapters 2.1; 2.2; 2.3; 2.4), an umbrella term which covers a wide range of classroom practices and which focuses on *language as a medium of communication*. This time again the next cycle in foreign language learning has been shifted from language analysis to language use, from linguistic focus to communicative, practical view of a foreign language.

All the shifts and changes are historically approved as, being extremely practically-oriented science, studying foreign languages reflects the needs and demands of society.

Points for discussion

- Shifts and changes in the history of teaching foreign languages.
- Peculiarities of traditional approaches to language teaching.

Self-Check

1. Fill in the gaps in the classification of FLT methods and approaches:

Criteria	Methods
Language aspect focused	Grammar methods
	Direct methods
	Translation methods
The skill which is the main object of	Reading methods
teaching	The intuitive methods
Psychology of language learning	The Amos Comenius method
	The Gouin method
	The Palmer method
	The West method

2. Which method/approach can subscribe to the following: Language is a medium of *communication*?

- a) the Direct method;
- b) the Palmer method;
- c) the Communicative Approach;
 - d) the Audio-Lingual approach.
- 3. Which method/approach focuses on analyzing language:
- a) the Grammar-Translation Method
- b) the Direct method; c) the Communicative Approach; d) the Audio-Lingual approach.
- 4. Which method/approach focuses on using language:
- a) the Grammar-Translation Method; b) the Reading method;

c) the West method;

c) the Reading method;

d) the Audio-Lingual approach.

5. The Direct method opposed to:a) the Communicative Approach;

b) the Audio-Lingual approach;

d) the Grammar-Translation Method.

Useful terms

Audio-Lingual approach: A language teaching method which prioritizes mastering the whole language through repetition and reinforcement.

A lingua franca: language used for international communication.

Communicative Approach: An umbrella term which covers a wide range of classroom practices and which focuses on language as a medium of communication.

Community Language Learning (CLL): A language teaching method which advocates a holistic approach to language learning, communicatively-oriented, emphasizes learners' interaction with each other.

Direct Method: A language teaching method which prioritizes oral speech and aimed at rapid, practical command of language.

Grammar-Translation Method: A language teaching method which prioritizes reading and translation of unconnected sentences and analyzing grammar structure for the sake of analyzing.

Reading approach: A language teaching method which prioritizes practicing reading skills.

Suggestopedia: A language teaching method developed by Geogri Lazanov, based on the idea of psychological comfort while studying foreign languages. Students interact with each other adopting a new identity to feel more secure and less inhibited.

The Proprioceptive language learning method: (commonly called the *Feedback training method*) emphasizes simultaneous development of cognitive, motor, neurological functions, and hearing as parts of a comprehensive language

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learning process. Advocates verbal language drills for developing memory, practicing vocabulary and grammar structures.

The Silent Way (SW): A language teaching method developed by Caleb Gattegno, based on cognitive code theory. Silence is viewed as a teacher tool which stimulates learner responsibility.

Total Physical Response (TPR): A language teaching method developed by J.J. Asher, in which items are presented in a foreign language as orders, commands, and instructions requiring a physical response from the learner (e.g. opening a window or standing up).

Reports proposed on the theme

- Michael West and his reading method.
- Conversational method of E.B. de Sauze.
- Amos Comenius and his role in the history of pedagogy.

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1.4. Basic theories of language and language learning in FLT

There is a wide variety of methodological options, approaches, methods and techniques that a classroom teacher has to choose from. Methodology in language teaching has been characterized in a variety of ways but more or less classical formulation suggests the link between theory and practice. The theoretical background, philosophy of language teaching is called **approach** whereas a concretization of these theoretical issues and beliefs on paper is labeled **method**. **Technique** in its turn is implementation of the ideas in the classroom setting. The terms *methods* and *approaches* are often used interchangeably but still there is a distinction which is probably best seen as a continuum ranging from highly prescribed methods to loosely described approaches.

According to Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers, different methods and approaches vary in:

- their focus and goals;
- views of teacher and learner roles;
- typical techniques and forms of interaction;
- attitude to errors and use of mother tongue;
- role of instructional materials, etc.

Approaches are based on different theories of language and language learning. Basic theories **of the nature of language** are structural, functional and interactional (see table 10, App.4).

The first and the most traditional of the three is **the structural theory** that views language as a system of structurally related elements such as phonemes, morphemes, words, word-combinations and sentence types. Each language has a finite number of such structural items. To learn a language means to learn these structural items so as to be able to understand and produce language. An important belief of structural linguists was that the primary medium of a language is oral. Therefore, it was assumed that oral speech had a priority in language teaching. The linguistic principles of **structuralizm** are as follows:

- language is speech, not writing;
- language is a set of habits;
- learning a language entails mastering the elements or building blocks of the language and learning the rules of their combinations.

The **functional** view of language understands language as a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning. *Language is not speech, language functions in speech,* proclaimed the proponents of the view. Most of our day-to-day language usage involves functional activities: offering, suggesting, advising, apologizing, etc. (see table 11, App. 4). Therefore, learners learn a language in order to apply it in their real life as a means for doing things. To perform *functions*, learners need to know how to combine the grammatical rules and the vocabulary to express *notions* that perform the functions. Examples of notions are concept of present, past and future time; the expressions of certainty and possibility; the roles of agent and instrument within a sentence; and special relationships between people and objects.

Proponents of the view consider functions and notions as the basis of human language and communicative activity.

According to the **interactional** view, a language is an important medium in human communication and interpersonal relations, with the help of which people build up and maintain social interaction. Therefore, learners have to know not only the grammar and vocabulary of the language but also the rules of using them in a whole range of communicative contexts.

Structural, functional and interactional models of language provide the theoretical framework that may motivate a particular teaching method, but without **theories of language learning** successful language teaching would be incomplete. A great deal of research has been done in the subject and certain theories have had a profound effect upon the practices of language teaching. With reference to Jeremy Harmer we can name five of them:

- Behaviorist/stimulus-response theory;
- Cognitivism/mentalism;
- Language acquisition theory;

- Task-based theory;
- Humanistic aspects of learning.

Behaviorism and cognitivism are the terms used to describe a philosophy of mind. Behaviorists seek to understand human nature by observing how people act and interact. While cognitive science seeks to understand the mechanics of our brains, the behaviorist tradition sees the mind as a "black box." Behaviorists understand the mind by observing its input and output, rather than by dissecting its contents. The theory is associated with B.F. Skinner, who claimed that our minds emerge from the influence of our environment and that *all* language was a form of behavior. The human being was understood as an organism capable of a wide repertoire of behaviours. The occurrence of these behaviours is dependent upon three crucial elements in learning:

A stimulus, which serves to elicit behaviour (in language teaching – what is taught or presented in the foreign language);

A response triggered by a stimulus (learner's reaction to the stimulus);

Reinforcement, which serves to mark the response as being appropriate (or inappropriate), and encourages the repetition (or suggestion) of the response in future.

In the 1950s Skinner's work was challenged by Noam Chomsky, who thought that human minds are very structured, and that language emerges from patterns inside the brain. He proposed an alternative theory to behaviorism – **the theory of cognitivism**. The main principle was the contradiction that **language is not a form of behavior**, it is an intricate rule-based system and a large part of language acquisition is the learning of this system. Language learner acquires language competence, which enables him to produce language. Learners do not have to imitate behavior, but create language structures from abstract rules.

Language acquisition theory (Stephen d. Krashen) states that adults have two distinct and independent ways of developing competence in a second language. The first way is **language acquisition**, a subconscious process similar, if not identical, to the way children develop ability in their first language. It is implicit, informal and natural learning, "picking-up" a language when language acquirers are aware of the fact that they are using language for communication. The second way to develop competence in FLT is by **language learning.** The term *learning* refers to conscious knowledge of foreign language, knowing the rules, being aware of grammar, and being able to talk about them, "knowing about" a language. Acquiring a language is more successful and longer lasting than learning it, in Krashen's opinion.

The theory of **Task-Based Lerning (TBL)** is focused not so much on the nature of language input but rather on the learning tasks that students are involved in. Tasks in TBL are understood as activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome. Six types of tasks can be distinguished within the framework: listing, ordering and sorting, comparing, problem solving, sharing personal experiences, creative tasks (projects). Teacher's job is to maximize opportunities for learners to put their limited language to genuine use and to create a more effective learning environment. TBL is essentially different from another very common paradigm for language teaching – that of PPP (presentation, practice, production). Offering an alternative framework to the PPP model, TBL is based on the principles of learner-based approach (see table 12, App. 4).

Another perspective which has gained increasing prominence in language teaching is that of **humanistic aspects of learning** when the student is viewed as a *whole person*. In other words, language teaching is the area where students can develop their personalities. The experience of learners, their needs and ideas are cherished. The encouragement of positive feelings and emotions is seen to be as important as their learning of language. Thus, creating a relaxing, supportive atmosphere, positive rapport between teacher and learners, favourable student-centered activities are characteristic features of humanistic teaching, which follows the principles:

- the development of human values;
- growth in self-awareness and in the understanding of others;
- sensitivity to human feelings and emotions;
- active student involvement in learning and in the way learning takes place.

Points for discussion

- Historical background of different methods and approaches in FLT.
- Contrast and compare three basic theories of language.
- Behavioristic theory and its influence on language teaching.
- Influential ideas of cognitivism and its effect on language teaching.
- Methodology and practice of task-based language teaching.

Self-Check

1. Choose the right definition of *method*:

a) a teaching based on adherence to a particular theory about language or language learning;

- b) an overall teaching plan based on certain theoretical principles;
- c) classroom practice.
- 2. Cross out the item that does not refer to the definition of *approach*:
 - a) a system that deals with classroom practice;
 - b) theoretical background of language teaching;
 - c) philosophy that reflects a certain model or research paradigm.

3. Tick the theory of language learning which can subscribe to the following: *students should be allowed to create their own sentences based on their understanding of certain rules*:

- a) Behaviorist theory;
- b) Cognitivism;
- c) Language acquisition theory;
- d) Task-based theory.

4. Whom do the following words belong to: "*Language is not speech, it functions in speech*"?

- a) structuralists; c) proponents of communicative teaching;
- b) behaviorists; d) cognitivists.

5. March the theories of language with the ideas they express:

1) structural theory	А	Language is a medium of building up
	socia	l intercourse
2) functional theory	В	Language learning is a rule acquisition, not
	a hab	bit formation;
3) interactional theory	C	Language possesses some functions

necessary for expression of meaning;

Useful terms

Approach: Teaching which is based on adherence to a particular theory about language or language learning.

Cognition: The process of knowing, understanding, and learning something

Cognitive: Related to the process of knowing, understanding, and learning something (cognitive psychology).

Cognitive psychology: The study of mental states through inference from behavior (see behaviorism). A branch of psychology which deals with the study of the nature and learning of systems of knowledge, particularly those processes involved in thought perception, comprehension, memory, and learning.

Functional view of language: Sees language as a linguistic system but also as a means for doing things. Most of our day-to-day language use involves functional activities: offering, suggesting, advertising, apologizing, etc. Therefore, learners learn a language in order to be able to do things with it.

Interactional view of language: Considers language as a communicative tool, which aims at building and maintaining social relations between people. Therefore,

learners not only need to know the grammar and vocabulary of the language but also the rules of using them in a whole range of communicative contents.

Language input: The language that the students hear or read.

Language acquisition: 'Picking up' a language, not learning it consciously but by being exposed to it in natural situations (e.g. as a child learns its first language). It is often contrasted with *language learning*.

Language learning: A conscious knowledge of the language (e.g. learning grammatical rules). It is often contrasted with *language acquisition*.

Method: A system that spells out rather precisely how to teach a language; design, long-term planning, concretization of beliefs on paper:

- the general and specific objectives of the method;
- a syllabus mode;
- types of learning and teaching activities;
- learner roles;
- teacher roles.

Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP): A model of teaching a foreign language presenting a single language item first, then practicing it in different exercises and then encouraging learners to produce the new item in "free" use of language (alternative to TBL).

Structural view of language: Sees language as a linguistic system made up of various subsystems: from phonological, morphological, lexical, etc. to sentences. Each language has a finite number of such structural items. To learn a language means to learn these structural items so as to be able to understand and produce language.

Technique: A particular activity or procedure performed to achieve an immediate objective in the lesson.

Task-Based Learning (TBL): A model of teaching a foreign language setting a task first and encouraging the learners to use the target language fulfilling the task (alternative to PPP).

Reports proposed on the theme

- Basic theories of the nature of language and their influence on language teaching.
- Humanistic approaches to language teaching.
- Noam Chomsky and his theory of cognitivism.
- Acquisition vs learning in language teaching.
- Peculiarities of task-based learning in language teaching.

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1.5. Characteristics of Grammar-Translation, Direct, Audiolingual Methods

As it was mentioned above (see Chapter 1.4) methods and approaches may differ in their theoretical background, their focus and goals, views on teacher and learner roles, typical techniques and forms of interaction, attitude to errors and use of mother tongue, role of instructional materials, etc. (see table 13, App.4). Each of them has its own **strengths**, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT).

The analytical **Grammar Translation Method** is aimed at analyzing and studying the grammatical rules of language, usually in an order roughly matching the traditional order of the grammar of Latin, and then to practice manipulating grammatical structures through the means of translation both into and from the mother tongue. The method is very much based on the written word and texts are widely in evidence. A typical procedure is to present the rules of a particular grammar item, illustrate its use including the item several times in a text, and practice using the item through writing sentences and translating it into the mother tongue. The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use

language for communication.

Strengths of the method/approach are farming good academic knowledge of the target language, training grammar accuracy and developing students' memory.

Weaknesses lie in the sphere of using language for communicative purposes, lack of development of communicative skills, little if any experience of speaking and listening.

At the same time, the approach gives students **opportunities** to read classical literature and have some knowledge of history of the country. Besides, it provides translation practice (see table 15, App. 4).

Threats of the approach are first of all in demotivating learners with boring, mechanical exercises where meaning is not important but an accurate form is a must.

By the end of the 19th century the above mentioned method had failed to meet the requirements of time and society and the reaction to the failure was the creation of **the Direct Method**, which once more stressed the ability to use rather than to analyze language as the goal of language instruction. The proponents were opposed to teaching of formal grammar and aware that language learning was more than the learning of rules and the acquisition of translation skills. Spoken word was given primacy. Printed word must be kept away from the learner until she/he has good grasp of speech. Material was first presented orally with actions and pictures and mother tongue was never, never used. Culture was considered an important aspect of learning the language.

Practical goals and immersion into foreign environment, together with focus on speaking and listening practice are the major **strengths** of the Direct Method. Learners have **opportunities** to activate all channels of perception. Moreover, language acquisition is facilitated by enormous authentic input.

The greatest **weaknesses** are connected with an underestimated role of reading and writing and counterproductive prohibition of using mother tongue. Lack of explicit rules leads to various misinterpretations and problems in creative use of language, which, together with time consuming drilling, comprise the greatest **threats** of the method (see table 16, App. 4).

In the middle of the 20th century a new method, which adapted many of the principles and procedures of the Direct Method, was created. The method based on the principles of behaviorist/stimulus-response theory and structural view on language was called **the Audiolingual Approach** (see table 17, App. 4).

According to this approach the new material is presented in the form of dialogue. Based on the view that language learning is habit formation, the method fosters dependence on mimicry, memorization of set phrases and over-learning. Structures are sequenced and taught one at a time with the help of repetitive drills. The teacher should provide little or no grammatical explanations because grammar is to be taught inductively. The teacher should mind that vocabulary must be strictly limited and learned in context. Skills must be sequenced and developed in order; there must be an extended pre-reading period at the beginning of the course. The teacher must reinforce successful responses and take great care to prevent learner errors. There is a tendency to focus on manipulation of the target language and disregard content and meaning.

A wide use of authentic materials, presenting language items in dialogues rather than in isolation (as it used to be done in previously discussed methods/approaches) and introducing natural order of skills presentation: listening, speaking, reading, writing, makeup the main **strengths** of the approach. The method provides **opportunities** for successful pronunciation practice with the help of some useful types of phonetic exercises and predict learners' difficulties through comparative analysis of structures.

However, an overestimated role of mechanical drilling where meaning is often irrelevant and lack of flexibility are the **weaknesses** of the approach, leads to its **threats.** First of all, boredom and demotivating learners due to endless repetitions and imitations proposed, uninteresting drills for the sake of training, no challenge for learners.

Points for discussion

- Theoretical background of the Audiolingual Approach.
- SWOT analysis of the Direct Method.
- Teacher-dominated character of the Grammar Translation and the Audiolingual Approaches.

Self-Check

- 1. Which features belong to Classical or Grammar-Translation Method?
- a) thorough analyses of grammar structure of a language;
- b) based on "jug & mug theory";
- c) rapid, practical command of a language is sought;
- d) dominant role of a teacher;
- e) use of L1 is avoided at the lesson;
- f) based on the structural view of language;
- g) translation of unconnected sentences is the typical exercise type;
- h) academic knowledge of language is the goal.

2. How do we call a method the proponents of which advocated the idea of like teacher's proficiency in language teaching?

3. Fill in the blanks in the chart:

	GRAMMAR- TRANSLATION	DIRECT METHOD	AUDIO- LINGUAL
THEORY OF LANGUAGE		No single theory	
THEORY OF LEARNING			
GOALS			

4. Match typical exercise types to methods:

1.GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION	a) translation of unconnected sentences;
	b) mechanical drills;
	c) substitution tables;
	d) memorizing paradigms;
2. AUDIO-LINGUAL	e) imitation;
	f) transformation;
	g) sound discrimination;
	h) memorization of dialogues

5. Which of the methods can subscribe to the following attitude to errors: "*errors and mistakes should be avoided and must be immediately corrected*"?

- a) Grammar-Translation;
- b) Direct Method;
- c) Audiolingual;
- d) all of the above.

Useful terms

Audiolingualism: A language teaching approach based on structural linguistic theory and behavioristic psychology, methods of teaching language that emphasize habit formation and the production of error-free utterances.

Behaviorism (S-R theory: Stimulus-Response Theory): A psychological theory that regards objective and observable facts of behavior or activity as the only proper subject for psychological study. An example is the stimulus response theory of

animal and human behavior elaborated in particularly by B.F. Skinner and criticized subsequently by cognitive psychologists (cf. cognitive psychology).

Controlled practice (*also* **manipulated practice**): Practice in which the teacher guides or limits the students' use of language – such as by providing questions to be answered, sentences to be completed, or words or pictures to follow.

Direct method: A method of FLT which has the following features:

- only the target language is used in class;
- meanings are communicated "directly" by associating speech forms with actions, objects, mime, pictures, and situations;
- grammar is taught inductively.

Drill: A technique commonly used in language teaching for practising sounds or sentence patterns in a language based on guided repetition (also see *meaningful/mechanic drill*).

Grammar Translation Method: A method of FLT which makes use of translation and grammar study as the main teaching and learning activities.

Meaningful drill: A drill which cannot be performed correctly without an understanding of the meaning of what is said.

Mechanical drill: A drill which requires learners to produce correct examples of the language without needing to think about the meaning of the sentences.

SWOT analyses: characteristics of language teaching methods/approaches according to their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats.

Structuralism: An approach to the human sciences that attempts to analyze a specific field as a complex system of interrelated parts. It began in linguistics with the work of Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913), who believed that language was as a systematic structure serving as a link between thought and sound.

Reports proposed on the theme

- Peculiarities of Grammar-Translation Method.
- Typical techniques and forms of interaction in Audiolingual approach.
- Views on the teacher and learner roles in traditional methods.

Further reading

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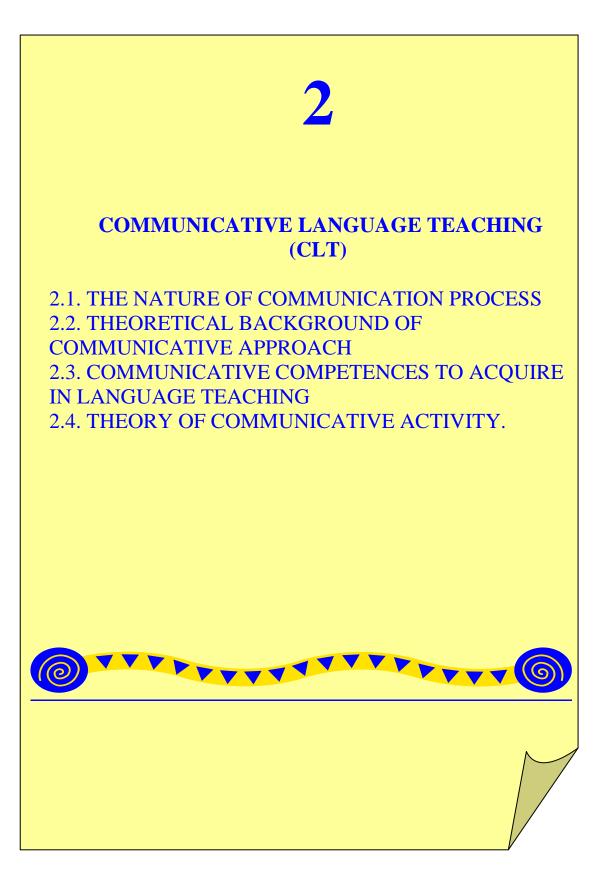
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2. COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING (CLT)

The Communicative approach is the product of educators and linguists who felt dissatisfied with Grammar Translation and Audio-Lingual approaches. It was evident that students were not learning enough realistic language relevant to their lives. Being at a loss to communicate in the target culture learners did not know how to use appropriate social language, gestures or expressions.

Authentic language use and classroom exchanges where students are engaged in real communication with one another have become quite popular since 1970s. In the years to come the approach has been adapted to different levels of language proficiency (see table 14, App. 4) and various age groups. The underlying philosophy has spawned different teaching methods known under a variety of names, including notional-functional, teaching for proficiency, proficiency-based instruction, and communicative language teaching. Today, perhaps the most acceptable instructional framework in FLT education is Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). In order to understand the sense of the approach it is necessary to analyse the nature of communication process, theoretical background and typical classroom practises of CLT.

2.1. The nature of communication process

Language is one of the means of communication, the process by which people exchange information or express their thoughts and feelings. Real-life communication is always *situational*. It happens under certain conditions, at a particular time in a particular place and includes verbal (*language*) and non-verbal (*eye contact, body language, gestures, mime,* and *face expression*) medium. Communicators' activity connected with the verbal medium of communication is called **speech activity** (see table 22, App. 4). Communicators or interlocutors involved in communication process (at least two) exchange their ideas in a certain *situation*, with a certain *motive* or *reason* why to start and/or continue

communication, choosing the appropriate *channel of communication* – spoken and/or written (see table 20, App. 4).

The first interlocutor has to initiate communication, to start it having some message in his/her mind. This message is produced either orally (as an utterance) or in a written form (as a text). If the production is oral, the sender of the message is the speaker, who has something to say/ask/inform another interlocutor. If the production is written, the sender of the message is the writer, who initiates communication via writing a letter, SMS, e-mail, note, article, etc. with the purpose of information, sharing ideas, conveying their thoughts, asking somebody about something. Both the speaker and the writer produce speech, thus the skills of speaking and writing are called productive. While producing the message they have in their mind, both the speaker and the writer have to encode it into some language code, in this sense the two initiators of communication may be called encoders (see table 19, App. 4).

The second interlocutor has to decode the message sent after receiving it, to react on something that was heard or read. He/she should share some common assumptions of the world with the sender (the same language code, appropriate level of language proficiency, acquaintance with cultural surroundings and the subject matter of the message, etc.) The receiver of the oral information is the listener, whereas a written text is received by the reader. Thus, listening and reading skills are called receptive (see table 19, App.4).

Modern methodology subscribes to the idea that message comprehension is as much **active process** as message sending. The receivers' job used to be considered a **passive** one, when the listener or the reader should only open their minds and let the meaning of the text comprehended pour in, in other words, they soak up the information given like a sponge. In reality the process is much more complicated. Not all the meaning in the text actually gets into the reader's / listener's mind. Unfortunately, there is no guarantee that the receivers will understand everything they listen to or read as it depends on their experience, motivation, language competence on the one hand, and the senders' ability to be clearly understood, on the other.

Communication is a two-way process, which is based on the **cooperative principle.** Without cooperation, human interaction would be far more difficult and counterproductive. As phrased by Paul Grice, who introduced the principle, it states, "*Make your contribution such as it is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged.*" The cooperative principle can be divided into four maxims, called **the Gricean maxims**, which are the guidelines for how to communicate successfully. The presumptions state what we as listeners/readers can rely on and as speakers/writers exploit.

The first maxim is **the maxim of quality.** It contains a demand to be truthful in your messages and responses and not to say anything for which you lack adequate evidence. The second is **the maxim of quantity** with its demand to make conversation/communication just as informative and clear as required, correlated with the current purposes of the exchange. The third principle is **the maxim of relation.** The participant's contribution should be relevant to the interaction and indicate any way that it is not. The fourth principle is **the maxim of manner.** People should avoid obscurity and ambiguity in their communication, be clear understood, brief and orderly. In this way the communication will be interesting and memorable for the interlocutors (see table 21, App. 4).

Grice's theory is often disputed with the argument that cooperative conversation, as with most social behaviour, is culturally determined. Therefore, the Gricean maxims and the cooperative principle cannot be universally applied due to intercultural differences. However, it is a big advantage for English language teaching as it depicts how people should normally behave in English conversation and in interaction as a whole.

Points for discussion

- Language as a means of communication.
- Different motives and reasons of communicators.

- Speech activity and its components.
- The cooperative principle of communication.

Self-Check

1. Choose the component which does not belong to the characteristic of speech activity:

- a) language means of realization;
- b) motivation to interlocutors' exchange;
- c) subject of activity;
- d) non-verbal assistance;
- e) product and result.
- 2. Interlocutors who initiate communication are called:
- a) senders;
- b) writers;
- c) decoders;
- d) readers.
- 3. Read the conversation and write down which of the Gricean maxims was broken:
- A: How are you doing in school?
- B: What fine weather we're having lately!

4. Which of the two conversations meets the requirements of maxim of quantity of information?

- a) A: Where is the post office?B: Down the road, about 50 metres past the second left.
- b) A: Where is the post office?B: Not far.

5. Match the Gricean maxims to their meaning:

maxim of quality	a) be informative
maxim of quantity	b) be clear
maxim of relation	c) be truthful
maxim of manner	d) be relevant
	1

Useful terms

Channel of communication: A route by which information is communicated.

Communication: The process of sending and receiving information or making emotions/ideas known to someone.

Non-verbal communication: Communication with the help of extra linguistic means such as eye contact, body language, gestures, mime, face expression, which assist people's self-expression.

Speech activity: Verbal communication between at least two interlocutors with a certain motive/reason in order to achieve a particular aim.

The Gricean maxims: Four specific rational principles observed by people who obey the cooperative principle; these principles enable effective communication.

Verbal communication: Communication using the language medium, different linguistic means (grammatical structures, vocabulary stock, pronunciation potential, spelling practice).

Reports proposed on the theme

- Productive skills and their peculiarities in teaching English.
- Receptive skills and their peculiarities in teaching English.
- Pros and cons of Grice's theory of cooperative conversation.

Further reading

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2.2. Theoretical background of Communicative approach

Communicative approach appeared in early 1970s and grew out of the work of anthropological linguists (D. Hymes, M. Halliday), who viewed language first and foremost as a system for communication. It focuses on language as a medium of communication and recognizes that all communication has a social purpose – learner has something to say or find out. Communication embraces a whole spectrum of **communicative functions** (requests, denials, offers, complaints) and **notional categories** (concepts such as time, sequence, quantity, location, frequency). Some fruitful ideas contributed to CLT practice – *learning by doing* or *the experience approach*, studying language in a broader *sociocultural context, learner-centered* and *experience-based* view of foreign language teaching. There is a distinction between a strong and a weak version of CLT. **The weak version** is described as **learning to use language** for communicative purposes. **The strong version** is described as **using language to learn** it. It advances the claim that language is acquired through communication.

At the level of **language theory**, Communicative Language Teaching has a rich theoretical base (see table 14, App. 4). Some of the characteristics of this communicative view are as follows:

- Language is a system of the expression of meaning.
- The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.
- The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.

• The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

Language is for communication, it is interpersonal activity for developing creative thinking and personal interaction. The focus shifts from grammar and sentence formation to the use of language in context, both in linguistic context and its social, or situational context.

As to the theory of language learning, CLT is based on:

- *cognitive code theory*: learning is not simply the learning of habits but an active mental process, learner is responsible for using and learning a language;
- *second language acquisition theory:* emphasis on comprehensible input (language is acquired by understanding messages), language learning comes through using language communicatively (*learning by doing*);
- CLT advocates a holistic approach to language learning. *True human learning* is both cognitive and effective. This is termed *whole person learning*.

One of the main challenges of the Communicative approach is to integrate the functions of a language (information retrieval, problem solving, and social exchanges) with the correct use of structures. The question is how to combine communicative fluency with formal accuracy.

The main **goal** of CLT is to **acquire and increase communicative competence**, which means being able to understand and interpret messages, understand the social contexts where language is used, apply grammar rules, and employ strategies to keep communication from breaking down. According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages competences are the sum of knowledge, skills and characteristics that allow a person to perform actions and communicative language competences are those which empower a person to act using specifically linguistic means (see chapter 2.3.).

The approach **focuses on skill integration** idea and aims to develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. Skills are integrated from the

beginning; a given activity might involve reading, speaking, listening, and also writing (this assumes the learners are educated and literate),

The range of **exercise types and activities** compatible with a Communicative approach is unlimited. Learners are encouraged to be involved in such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction. W. Littlewood distinguished between *functional communicative activities* and *social interaction activities* as major activity types in CLT. **Functional communicative activities** include such tasks as:

- Learners comparing sets of pictures and noting similarities and differences;
- Working out a likely sequence of events in a set of pictures;
- Discovering missing features in a map or picture;
- Following directions;
- Solving problems with shared clues.

Social interaction activities include:

- Conversation and discussion sessions;
- Information-gap/opinion-gap activities;
- Dialogues and role plays;
- Drama and simulations;
- Improvisations and debates.

Typical form of interaction in the language classroom is pair and group work. It helps students to transfer (and, if necessary, negotiate) meaning in situations where one person has information that the other(s) lack. Such kind of classroom organization gives students more valuable talking time, encourages rapport between students, enables students to invest much more of themselves in the lesson, gives an opportunity for shy or unconfident students to participate, adds variety to the lesson (see chapters 5.2., 6.3).

Teacher role in any classroom setting can hardly be exaggerated. In teachercontrolled classes teacher is dominant, he/she is the main authority and expert and mainly teacher performs the role of **controller**. But in CLT classes the teacher is the initiator of communication, who provides opportunities for interaction by selecting content and classroom activities based on learners' needs and interests. Therefore teacher plays a variety of roles. First of all he/she is a facilitator who facilitates the communication process, and very often – an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. Some other roles may be as **an organizer** of recourses and recourse him/herself, **a guide** within the classroom procedures and activities, **a group process manager**, **needs analyst**, etc. (see chapter 6.1.)

Students' security is initially enhanced by using their native language. Attitude to use L1 is relevant to students' needs. Its use is occasional and cost-effective when necessary.

Attitude to errors in communicative classroom is tolerant; learners are encouraged to take risks. Errors and mistakes are treated in a non-threatening way and viewed as inevitable, natural steps in language learning. The more language practice, the fewer mistakes are made, practice makes perfect.

Materials used in CLT have the primary role of promoting communicative language use. Practitioners of communicative teaching view materials as a way of influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use. Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers speak about three kinds of materials currently used in communicative teaching and label them as *text-based*, *task-based* and *realia*. Under the first label numerous textbooks designed to direct and support CLT are meant. Task-based materials contain tasks and activities for classroom interaction as different games, role plays, conversational situations, etc. Many proponents of CLT have advocated the use of *authentic*, 'from life' materials in the classroom. For example, newspapers, magazines, signs, notes, e-mails, advertisements, etc. designed not for educational purposes. A variety of communicative activities can be built around such language-based realia.

The approach possesses more advantages than disadvantages in language teaching (see table 18, App. 4). Creative atmosphere of mutual cooperation, variety of classroom interaction, focus on learners' needs, facilitative presentation of language items in meaningful context motivate learners and stimulate their language

use. CLT appeals to those who seek a more humanistic approach to teaching, one in which the interactive process of communication receives priority.

Points for discussion

- Sociological view of language, language as a means of communication, notions and functions.
- Goals of teaching: communicative competence, social appropriacy, acceptability.
- Integrated approach to all the four skills development.
- "Strong" and "weak" versions of CLT.
- The variety of teacher roles in CLT classroom.
- The role of materials in CLT.

Self-Check

- 1. Tick the characteristics which belong to the Communicative approach:
 - a) grammar explanation is avoided;
 - b) linguistic competence is the goal;
 - c) language learning is learning to communicate;
 - d) communicative activities only come after a long process of drilling;
 - e) meaning is very important;
 - f) contextualisation of language items is a must;
 - g) use of native language is accepted where learners benefit from it;
 - h) reading and writing are not taught till speech is mastered.

2. Label the activities proposed as *functional communicative activities* (F) or *social interaction activities* (S):

- a) Conversation and discussion sessions;
- b) Learners comparing sets of pictures and noting similarities and differences;
- c) Working out a likely sequence of events in a set of pictures;

- d) Information-gap/opinion-gap activities;
- e) Dialogues and role plays;
- f) Drama and simulations;
- g) Solving problems with shared clues.

3. Match the communicative functions listed with the examples done:

a) London, did you say?
b) The service is appalling!
c) Stay where you are, or else!
d) I DO apologize!
e) Careful there!

4. Write down the teacher roles you remember:

a) c r	e) m ar
b) for	f) - o
c) -ri	g) s tor
d) g	h) c t

5. Complete the table of CLT SWOT analysis:

Strengths	
-	
-	Lack of accuracy due to the focus on
-	fluency.
-	
	Threats
	-
-	-
- Variaty of alageroom interaction	-
-Variety of classroom interaction	-

Useful terms

Authentic materials: Language-based realia such as newspapers, magazines, signs, notes, e-mails, advertisements, etc. designed not for educational purposes and used in communicative activities to create the atmosphere of real-life communication.

Communicative approaches: Approaches to language teaching in which the focus is on processes of communication rather than on structural, functional, or notional items.

Communicative language teaching: A teaching method in which the goal is for learners to be able to communicate using L2 both in the classroom and in real life. It generally encourages more learner talk for real communicative purposes and a more facilitative role for the teacher.

Communicative function: The function of any sentence/ sentence fragment in communication, (e.g. question, statement, command, apology, request, etc.), which reflects what the speaker's purpose is, either seeking an object for information, refusal, provision of information, indications of agreement, or social engagement.

Holistic approach: Holism (from $\check{o}\lambda o \zeta$ holos, a Greek word meaning all, entire, total) is the idea that all the properties of a given system (physical, biological, chemical, social, economic, mental, linguistic, etc.) cannot be determined or explained by its component parts alone. Instead, the system as a whole determines in an important way how the parts behave. The general principle of holism was concisely summarized by Aristotle in the Metaphysics:

Information gap: An activity in which a learner knows something that another learner does not know, so he / she has to communicate to "close the gap". Information gap activities are common in communicative language teaching.

Notional categories: Concepts based on meaning rather than on form (such as time, sequence, quantity, location, frequency). In the teaching of English as a foreign language, the term *notional* was applied in the 1970s to syllabuses aimed at developing communicative competence.

Realia: Things from real life which are used for demonstration or/and manipulating in the language classroom, around which a variety of communicative activities can be built.

The Notional Functional Approach: It is based on speech act theory which categorizes the social purpose of utterances within given settings.

Text-based materials: Different text-books, course-books and other manuals designed for educational purposes that contain a variety of different texts for reading, discussion and listening.

Task-based materials: Task-cards, pictures, charts, maps, graphs, readymade and teacher-made materials containing activities, tasks and exercises for learners (games, role plays, simulations, *realia*, *authentic materials*, etc.).

Whole person learning: A new breakthrough in today's learning-how-tolearn. It ensures people to learn easier and faster, makes them increase the desire and ability to learn, ignites creativity and innovation, improves job performance, helps enhance confidence and self-esteem.

Reports proposed on the theme

- Historical background of CLT.
- Major characteristics of the Communicative approach.
- Peculiarities of CLT materials and classroom procedures.
- Learner-centered approach to classroom procedures.

Further reading

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2.3. Communicative competences to acquire in the language teaching

As it was stated above, the main practical aim of teaching foreign languages is acquisition of communicative competence. It is essential to trace back the course of the research of the phenomenon and to analyse three representative models of communicative competence done by Dell Hymes, M. Canale and M. Swain, and L.F. Bachman.

D. Hymes (in 1972) was the first who proposed that communicative competence should include the social meaning. It is the person that becomes the highlight of communicative competence. The individual's linguistic system, the psycholinguistic capacity of the individual, the nature of communication, possibility, feasibility, and appropriateness comprised Hymes' understanding of communicative competence. In other words, communicative competence entails knowing not only the language code or the form of language, but also what to say to whom and how to say it appropriately in any given situation. Communicative competence includes knowledge of what to say, when, how, where, and to whom.

Later M. Canale and M. Swain's version of communicative competence (1980) was related more with the communicative approach application in language teaching. They included grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic and discourse competences in their definition. M. Canale and M. Swain highlighted the importance of context, but

somehow ignored the form (grammatical accuracy) in order to achieve the communicative function.

L.F. Bachman's model (1990) is a more current attempt to take forward the subdivision of communicative competence provided by M. Canale and M. Swain. He proposed the framework of Communicative Language Ability (CLA) that includes language competence, strategic competence and psychophysiological mechanisms.

The above mentioned versions of communicative competence indicate three stages of development of the idea how to facilitate mutual recognition of language proficiency in the situation when the language learnt has immediate practical application outside the classroom.

According to the modern point of view, all human competences contribute in one way or another to the language user's ability to communicate and may be regarded as aspects of communicative competence. Common European Framework of Reference for Languages presents a list of **general human competences** (see table 7 App.4) and **communicative language competences** (see table 6 App.4). General human competences include *declarative knowledge*, *skills and know-how*, *'existential' competence* and *ability to learn*.

How communicative language competence is understood nowadays is shown in (table 5 App.4). The table shows major reference documents that language practitioners follow while teaching in Ukraine – *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, National Educational Standard of Foreign Languages (CEF)*,

English Language Programme for 12-year Secondary Schools of 2001, Foreign Language Programme for 12-year Secondary School of 2005.

All the documents mentioned concentrate their attention on the same sides of communicative competence. Yet, they view every competence from somewhat different prospective. To start with, the Common European Framework (together with Foreign Language Programs for 12-year secondary school of 2001 and 2005) talks about **linguistic competence** as lexical, phonological, syntactical knowledge and speech skills development. This component is considered in the document from the

point of view of a given individual's communicative language competence, related not only to the range and quality of knowledge but also to cognitive organization and the way this knowledge is stored and to its accessibility. Knowledge may be conscious and readily expressible or may not. Its organization and accessibility will vary from one individual to another and vary also within the same individual. It can also be held that the cognitive organization of vocabulary and the storing of expressions depend, amongst other things, on the cultural features of the community or communities in which the individual has been socialized and where his or her learning has occurred.

In contrast to CEF, the National Educational Standard of FLT specifies **language** and **speech competence**, where **speech competence** is aimed at the acquisition and improvement of competence in all four skills: reading, speaking, listening, and writing, and **language competence** is the ability to use obtained knowledge of language (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling) in oral and written communication. It presupposes the acquisition of systematic knowledge about language as means of sharing ideas and feelings and language habit formation.

Pragmatic competences mentioned in CEF are concerned with the functional use of linguistic resources (production of language functions, speech acts), drawing on scenarios or scripts of interactional exchanges. It also concerns the mastery of discourse, cohesion and coherence, the identification of text types and forms, irony, and parody. For this component even more than the linguistic component, it is hardly necessary to stress the major impact of interactions and cultural environments in which such abilities are constructed. Some other definitions of communicative competence (the Foreign Language Program of 2005) include the notions of **discourse and strategic competences**, which are actually parts of pragmatic competence. **Discourse competence** is the ability to organize speech structurally by means of thematic and logical organization, style, register and rhetoric effectiveness. **Strategic competence** means the ability to gain knowledge independently, plan educational process and the ability for self-evaluation and self-assessment.

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

Generally, **communicative competence** is viewed as functional language proficiency which involves interaction between different people or between a person and a written or oral text and comprises **linguistic (language/speech)**, **pragmatic (discourse/strategic)** and **sociolinguistic/ sociocultural competences**.

Points for discussion

- D. Hymes and his understanding of communicative competence.
- Strategic and discourse competences and their definition in M. Canale and M. Swain's works.
- Common European Framework as the major reference for language professionals.
- Programme documents on teaching foreign languages in Ukraine.

Self-Check

- 1. Name the terms that are defined here:
- a) the ability to sustain coherent discourse with another speaker;

b) the ability to deal with potential breakdowns in communication, to repair trouble spots.

2. Define communicative competence according to Dell Hymes.

3. The notions of strategic and discourse competences first appeared in the definition of:

- a) M. Canale and M. Swain;
- b) D. Hymes;
- c) L.F. Bachman;
- d) D.A. Wilkins.
- 4. Choose the item that Communicative Language Ability (CLA) does not include:
- a) language competence;
- b) strategic competence;
- c) discourse competence;
- d) psychophysiological mechanisms.
- 5. Match the terms with their definitions:

Function	a) the level of what a language user
	knows about the structure
	of the target language and can make use of it;
Competence	b) the manifestation of learner's knowledge
	in actual language use, realization of
	competence;
Performance	c) the communicative purpose of a
	structure on a particular occasion i.e. what
	the language user is trying to do through the
	language (e.g. inviting, suggesting, etc).

Useful terms

Breakdown in communication: Failure in communicating.

Communicative competence: Functional language proficiency; the expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning involving interaction between two or more persons belonging to the same (or different) speech community (communities) or between one person and a written or oral text (cf. linguistic competence).

Discourse competence: An aspect of communicative competence which describes the ability to produce unified written or spoken discourse that shows coherence and cohesion and which conforms to the norms of different genres (e.g. business letter, a scientific essay, etc.).

'Existential' competence: The communicative activity of users/learners is affected not only by their knowledge, understanding and skills, but also by selfhood factors connected with their individual personalities, characterised by the attitudes, motivations, values, beliefs, cognitive styles and personality types which contribute to their personal identity.

Functional competence: Concerned with the use of spoken discourse and written texts in communication for particular functional purposes.

Grammatical competence: Knowledge of, and ability to use, the grammatical resources of a language.

Language competence: The ability to use obtained knowledge of language (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling) in oral and written communication.

Lexical competences: Knowledge of, and ability to use the vocabulary of a language, consists of lexical elements and grammatical elements.

Linguistic competence: Lexical, phonological, syntactical knowledge and speech skills development.

Pragmatic competences Are concerned with the functional use of linguistic resources (production of language functions, speech acts), interactional exchanges.

Semantic competences: The learner's awareness and control of the organisation of meaning.

Sociolinguistic competence: The ability to use language appropriate to a given communicative context, taking into account the roles of the participants, the setting, and the purpose of the interaction.

Speech competence: The acquisition and improvement of all four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing

Strategic competence: An aspect of communicative competence which describes the ability of speakers to use verbal and non-verbal communication strategies to compensate for breakdowns in communication or to improve the effectiveness of communication.

Reports proposed on the theme

- L.F. Bachman's contribution into modern understanding of teaching foreign / second language.
- Updated understanding of communicative competence.
- Human general competences and their role in language acquisition.

Further reading

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2.4. Theory of communicative activity.

A situation in which people are busy doing different things in order to achieve a particular aim is called activity. **Speech activity** is a purposeful interaction of people via language. As any other activity, it has *a motive* or *reason* for the interlocutors to communicate (see table 22, App. 4). When we have something to say, want to get/receive information or convey our thoughts, we start communicating with other people. When we are interested in other peoples' ideas or information, we read or listen to them. Without any particular reason speech activity does not exist (see chapter 2.1.).

The subject of speech activity is someone else's thought, idea or message. Speech (both written and oral) is realized by *language means* (phonetic, lexical, and grammatical). *The product of speech activity* in speaking is an utterance, in writing – a text, and in listening and reading is comprehension. *The result of speech activity* may be expressed in the reaction to it, for example, a reply or answer of a person, fulfilling some actions and the like.

In FLT methodology there are two terms *task* and *activity*, which are very often used interchangeably. Though *activity* is the most general term for the units of which a lesson consists of, *task* (according to G. Crookes, C. Chandon) is a less-controlled activity, which produces realistic use of foreign language. According to Nunan, *task* or *activity* is the smallest unit of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language. It is important in this respect to cover **the theory of activity** done by Jim Scrivener (see table 24 App.4). He distinguishes five steps of activity procedure:

• lead-in or pre-activity introduction; used to raise motivation or interest, or perhaps to focus on language items.

- **set up** the activity– first step of activity; clear instructions, sometimes demonstrations or examples are done.
- **run** the activity activity itself; when the material is well-prepared and the instructions clear, students can work on the task without too much interference.
- **close** the activity final step of activity which may be at the same time the first step of another one;
- **post activity** follow up stage, where some kind of feedback should be given.

If lesson is seen as a set of activities, then activity procedure evidently follows the steps of lesson procedure (see: chapter 5.2.; table 57, App. 4). A great variety of activities can be proposed in the English lesson. One of the classifications is done in table 25 (see App. 4), where activities are differentiated according to the level of teacher control and are labeled as *controlled (manipulated)*, *semi-controlled* and *free (communicative)*. Speech activities can also be classified according to the mode of interaction as *individual* and *cooperative* (see table 66 App.4). Simultaneous autonomous fulfillment of some language *exercises* and tasks in listening, reading, writing; individual students' replies; working in chain at the lesson can be called *individual activities*. Different variants of cooperative interaction – pair work (*open/closed pairs*); group work; whole class interaction (*mingle activity/choir work*) – are called *cooperative activities*.

Activities should be arranged in such a way that an easy activity must be followed by a more difficult one; a very active one with a quieter one, etc. The activities should be ordered logically – from more controlled to freer. Teacher should think over the character of the activity proposed and his/her own role in managing it. Each lesson stage after some set of activities should be supported by an appropriate *feedback*.

e.g. Topic: GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION OF the USA

Warmer (revision): Competition "How many words do you know?" Write as many English words and word-combinations for the topic in 5 minutes. Compare

60

your lists with the person sitting next to you; correct the mistakes and count the words. Which list will be the longest one?

Topic: WRITING LETTERS.

Warmer: (pre-teach) *Game "Jigsaw sentences"*. *Teacher gives a set of jigsaw sentences to each pair or group of students and asks them to make up and read three sensible sentences. The sentences are related to the topic of the lesson.*

Warmers or warming up activities, ice-breakers, brainstorming, regrouping activities, information gap, jigsaw, problem-solving and decision-making, opinion exchange, games, role-play and simulations, drama, projects, interviews, making surveys are typical activities of interactive classroom which motivate learners to participate using the target language. The majority of them are communicative or free.

Special attention should be given to the characteristic of **communicative/free activities** as they are the goal in communicative classroom (see table 24, App. 4). As any speech activity, a communicative activity is *purposeful*. Teacher should create a *communicative purpose* motivating learners to fulfill *a stated communicative task*. That will *create a desire* to communicate, without which communication will fail. Free, communicative activity *focuses on content*, first and foremost, *not on form*, as the priority is given to fluency of speech, its appropriacy to the situation, but not to grammatical accuracy. Students are free to express themselves, thus *a variety of language* is used. Such kinds of activities encourage students to communicate without *teacher intervention or material control* as in real life.

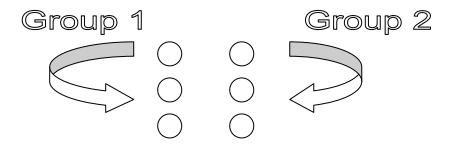
The biggest challenge for teacher during a lesson is *converting exercises* written in a textbook *into classroom activities*, to state a *communicative task* which is a must for communicative classroom. Sometimes instructions to exercises may leave teacher uncertain as to the management of classroom realization of it, its conversion into activity. For example, a typical instruction may be as follows:

Fill in the words from the list or *Underline the correct word then explain your choice*. How can teacher break the monotony and convert the exercise into exciting

activity? Below there is a variant of group work activity for intermediate students based on the exercises mentioned.

The class is divided into 2 groups. The leader from each group is given a list of words/word-combinations/half-sentences. They are different but interconnected (e.g. if group 1 has a beginning of a sentence/idiom/fixed phrase in the list, then group 2 possesses its end). The leaders dictate the lists to their groups (checking spelling against the key may follow). Then comes pair work when a student from group 1 interacts with a student from group 2 and they do matching activity. Graphically the structure of the activity may be noted into the teacher's lesson plan as in Chart 1.

Chart 1



Exercises borrowed from coursebooks are converted into classroom activities for the sake of maintaining learners' motivation and promoting success in task. Such a conversion needs some organizational efforts on the teacher's part (see chapter 6.2.), which are worth doing. Successful learning activities are built on the interests that students bring to the classroom or create that interest as part of their design.

Points for discussion

- Components of speech activity.
- The structural peculiarities of activity and its role in communicative classroom.
- Classification of classroom activities.

Self-Check

1. Name the components of speech activity:

a)	;
b)	;
c)	;
d) Product of activity;	
e)	

2. Choose free activities from the list belon:

a) role play demonstration;	d) problem solving;
b) composition;	e) question-answer, display;
c) mechanical drills;	f) discussion;

3. Match the terms with their definitions:

1. CLOSED PAIR WORK	a) students move around, speaking in
	pairs or groups which are constantly
	being formed or reformed, often in
	a random fashion, as at a party
2. OPEN PAIR WORK	b) students talk privately in twos,
	with all the students in the class
	working simultaneously
	c) two students exchange language across
3. MINGLE ACTIVITY	the classroom with the other
	students listening

- 4. Rearrange the components of activity procedure in a logical way:
- a) close;
- b) set up;
- c) lead-in;
- d) post activity;
- e) run.

5. The activities that follow - games, surveys, projects, brainstorming, information gap, jigsaw, problem-solving, decision-making exercises - can be called:

a) interactive activities; b) pair work activities

c) language exercises; d) controlled activities.

Useful terms

Choir work: Variant of cooperative interaction in the mode Class – Class; Student – Class)

Controlled practice: Exercises or activities where the teacher models the forms to be produced, provides a necessary linguistically correct input.

Exercise: An activity or process that helps practice a particular skill/habit; test a student's knowledge or skill.

Free practice: The stage of a lesson in which teacher does not intervene or attempt to control learner production. Practice can vary in the extent to which it is free (contrast with *controlled practice*).

Icebreakers: Activities to help learners and teacher get to know each other at the beginning of a course.

Interactive activities: Activities that promote interaction in the classroom being the most effective at maintaining cooperative learning atmosphere and fostering students' acquisition of communicative competence.

Manipulated activities: Those which provide students with a "prepackaged structures" (by means of tape, book, etc).

Mode of interaction: Pattern according to which classroom interaction runs. There are some most widespread modes as Teacher-Class/Class-Teacher; Teacher-Student; Student- Student; Student1- Student2- Student-3 etc; group work.

On-task behavior: Learner behavior which is directed towards the lesson or activity (opposite: off-task behavior).

Problem-solving activity: An activity where learners have to solve a problem (e.g. choose the best applicant for a job from several descriptions of applicants).

Rapport: The quality of relationship within the classroom.

Re-grouping activities: Aimed at the ways of organizing groups, for example, dividing students by rows, hair colour, dates of birth, number of family members, or food preferences.

Simulation: A group activity which imitates (simulates) real life situations. Learners play themselves.

Speech activity: A purposeful interaction of people via language.

Task: Applied to a separable element of a lesson, which is primarily geared to practicing language presented earlier and which has a specific objective.

Working in chain: Students answer one by one, in chain.

Reports proposed on the theme

- The role of warming up activities in successful classroom communication.
- Controlled practice in the English lesson.
- Variety of re-grouping activities and techniques.
- Project work in language classroom and outclassroom practice.

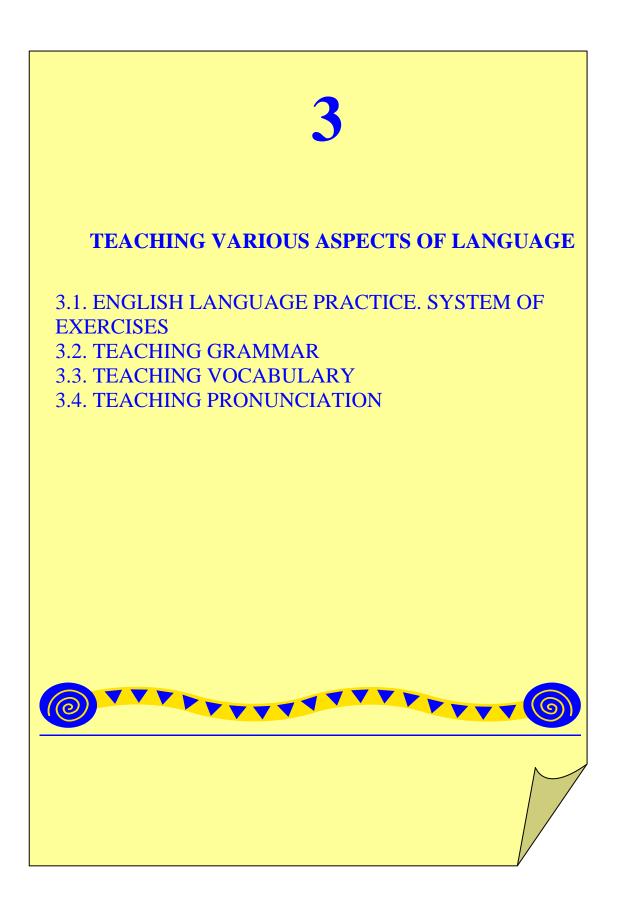
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3. TEACHING VARIOUS ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE

Language is the chief means of personality's self-expression and building social interaction with other people. Language functions owing to language habits and skills people have acquired. The only way to achieve a good operational command of the target language in a wide range of real world situations and to communicate effectively is to form language habits and develop speech skills.

3.1. English language practice. System of exercises

Teaching various aspects of language and language skills needs constant language practice. Chapter 2.4. covered the theory of activity and the ways of converting exercises prescribed in coursebooks and different teacher manuals into classroom activities. As we see, there is a difference between *exercise* and *activity*. The former contains a set of language material to practise individually or in cooperation with others, at home or in the classroom setting, whereas *activity* is a part of lesson. *Exercise* has a four-stage structure (see table 26 App.4) and is classified according to special criteria (see table 27 App.4). The first criterion is according to the direction of communication: receiving or producing the message. Exercises are classified as *receptive, reproductive, receptive-reproductive (phrase level); productive, receptive-productive (segment level).*

Receptive exercises are aimed at receiving some oral or written information that is perceived via listening or reading. Listening to sounds, words, grammar structures, somebody's speech, recordings, etc. practises *aural comprehension/reception*. Reading words, word-combinations, phrases, texts practises *reading comprehension/reception*.

For example,

Listen to the recording and follow the map. Read the words and find vowel letters in them.

Reproductive exercises are aimed at reproducing language forms such as grammar structures, lexical units, sounds and intonation patterns. Learners reproduce

some language orally or in written form (e.g. pronounce phonetic drills/ pronounce or write fixed expressions, phrasal idioms, fixed frames, single word forms/different grammar elements and structures).

For example,

Pronounce the sounds/letters done:-Copy the words into your copybooks.

Receptive-reproductive exercises aim at the two-step practice.

For example,

Listen to the recording and repeat the structures of Present Perfect. Read the words and write down those which are related to the topic FOOD.

Productive exercises aim at producing an utterance or a text.

For example,

Look at the pictures and express your opinion about the variety of leisure activities people can enjoy at weekends. (Oral production)

Write a letter to your pen-friend inviting him to visit your country in summer. (Written production)

Receptive-productive exercises aim at gaining some information through listening or reading first and reacting to the information received orally or in written form.

For example,

Listen to the dialogue and answer the questions.

Listen to the woman complaining about her holiday troubles and write down a letter of advice to her.

Read the timetable and discuss with the partner the best route to London. Read the article about Lady D and write down the plan of it.

The second principal criterion of exercise classification is according to its **communicative value.** In this sense exercises may be *speech/communicative*, *relatively-communicative* and *language/non-communicative*. **Speech/communicative exercises** are designed to practice speech skills and develop communicative competences. Such type of exercises is organized mainly in a classroom setting as

classroom activities (see chapter 2.4.). **Relatively-communicative exercises** contain meaning-focused tasks only indirectly related to real-life tasks where learners have to respond to the situation given. **Language/non-communicative exercises** aim at accuracy practice of language elements and mainly form-concentrated.

In communicative classroom controlled/manipulated exercises aimed at habit formation are associated with **meaningful drilling**. Meaningful drills are special pattern practices/exercises contextualized to meet the requirements of a communicatively-oriented design. Appropriate communicative situations are created in the classroom where learners have to repeat target language structures. Teacher follows up learners' training by reinforcing the forms practised. *Beginners r*equire a recycling of material from **controlled practice and drills** to more **free expression activities**. *Relatively advanced learners* may need to polish already developed skills and can be trusted to carry out less structured activities on their own.

Points for discussion

- Communicatively-oriented exercises/activities in the language classroom.
- The role of language exercises in practicing accurate production.
- Classification of exercises.

Self-Check

1. There are six criteria for evaluating communicative activities. Two of them are done below, add four more:

a)	_;
b) communicative desire;	
c)	_;
d)	_;
e) no teacher intervention;	
f)	_•

Read the essay title below. In pairs/small groups think of three advantages of being the only child in a family.

- a) productive, communicative;
- b) receptive-productive; language;
- c) receptive-productive; communicative;
- d) receptive, relatively-communicative.

3. Tick the exercises classified according to their communicative value:

- a) receptive;
- b) speech;
- c) relatively-communicative;
- d) receptive-reproductive;
- e) productive;
- f) language;
- g) reproductive.

4. Choose the most appropriate instruction to the exercise for practicing the interrogative form of verb:

- a) make the following sentences interrogative;
- b) insert the necessary auxiliary verb;
- c) ask your partner if he has done the actions you telling him to do;
- d) complete the sentences.

5. Choose the most appropriate instruction to the exercise for practicing the negative form of verb:

- a) correct me if I am not right;
- b) insert negations where necessary;
- c) make the following sentences negative;
- d) fill in the gaps with new words.

Useful terms

Aural: of or concerning the ear or hearing (aural and visual images; aural comprehension)

Habit formation: Associated with language drills which were designed to develop good habits in the use of English. The term was in common use back in the 1970s. Characteristics of an enquired habit are: *automatism* (reproduction of some language phenomena without conscious thought or control); *stability of a habit* (fixed and firm enough against negative influence of previously formed habits); *flexibility* (ability to function within new language material).

Oral: Spoken, not written; of, by or for the mouth (an oral exam).

Practice: When you do a particular thing, often regularly, in order to improve your skill at it:

Perception/perceptive skills: the ability to see, hear or understand things, awareness.

Production: The process of producing speech (oral/written).

Reproduction: The process of reproducing of language forms and units.

Reception: The action of receiving some oral or written information.

Skill: A developed or acquired ability to use one's knowledge effectively, an appropriate level of speech proficiency.

Reports proposed on the theme

- System of accuracy-oriented exercises for practising reproductive skills.
- System of accuracy-oriented exercises for practising receptive skills.
- Free communicative exercises and activities for development of productive skills.
- Free communicative exercises and activities for development of receptive skills.

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3.2. Teaching grammar

Grammar is one of the most common bits of terminology which learners and teachers use in talking about language. However what is grammar exactly? Some linguists and language practitioners are of the opinion that grammar is the collection of arbitrary rules about static structures in a language. They associate grammar primarily with form and structure. But for others meaningful interaction is impossible without knowledge and use of grammar, viewed as rules and patterns which have to be obeyed in order to be communicative and understandable in a given language.

The goals of language instruction include teaching students to use grammar *accurately, meaningfully* and *appropriately*. In this respect grammar can be viewed as a rational and dynamic system comprising structures characterized by three dimensions of **form, meaning** and **use**.

Form is understood as actual words/sounds a grammar item is made of: e.g. *Present Continuous* = 'to be'+ full verb+ ing Learners' attention needs to be focused not only on the forms of the language, but also on the meanings these forms convey. **Meaning** is the concept a grammar item expresses. e.g. *Present Continuous expresses an action in progress at the present moment*.

Use is what the grammar item is used to do in a particular context; it is the way in which a speaker / writer uses a particular language form to communicate in a particular situation for a particular purpose. *Rules of use* refer to knowledge of when and with whom an item should be used, i.e. *appropriacy*.

The notions of **meaning** and **use** are composed into the concept of **function** (see table 28, App. 4). **Function** is a communicative purpose of a structure on a particular occasion – what the speaker is trying to do through language (e.g. inviting, suggesting, etc.) For example, the reason of misunderstanding in the following dialogue (a request for information was confused with offer) is functional:

FATHER: Do you drink?

YOUNG MAN: No, thanks, I'm cool.

FATHER: I'm not offering, I'm asking IF you drink. Do you think I'd offer alcohol to teenage driver taking my daughter out?

There is no one-to-one match between grammatical form and communicative function, still material writers find it useful to organize at least some grammatical structures under functional labels, such as *Inviting, Making plans, Requesting, Making comparisons, etc.* Contextual information plays a key role in our interpretation of what a speaker means.

These dimensions are interdependent, a change in one leads to in change in another. However, they all offer a unique perspective on grammar.

Form-based instruction is aimed at accurate production of grammar structures.

Context-based instruction focuses on *meaning* as languages are not learnt as discrete items, presented out of context but are acquired through *meaningful interaction*.

Communication-based instruction emphasizes language use over rules of language usage.

Grammar is a description of rules for forming sentences, including an account of the meanings that these forms convey, says J. Scrivener. It is generalization about how words and group of words behave in the process of communication. What grammar is necessary for language teaching?

Since school leavers are expected to acquire *linguistic competence*, which is an integral part of *communicative competence* (see chapter 2.3.), grammar teaching is envisaged in school syllabus and appropriate grammar material should be selected for the purpose. The English school syllabus covers not all grammar phenomena in the target language but specially selected **grammar minimum** (see table 28, App. 4), which consists of *active grammar* and *passive grammar* (see table 29, App. 4). Active grammar minimum contains some acquired grammar structures which are used to express one's own thoughts and ideas in oral and written discourse. Passive grammar minimum includes those grammatical structures which help learners to recept and comprehend thoughts and ideas of other people.

In terms of grammar teaching, two main approaches can be distinguished – **deductive** and **inductive**. The **deductive approach** is associated with classical Grammar Translation Approach when learners are taught rules and given information about a language. The application of these rules in language practice is the next step of learning language. Graphically it may be depicted in such a way:

The **inductive approach** to teaching grammar is based on the idea that learners are not taught grammatical or other types of rules directly but are left to discover or induce rules from their experience of using the language. Firstly, learners are shown the functioning of a certain grammar structure in speech/text and practise it, then comes the turn of analysis. Graphically it may be depicted in such a way:

Each of these approaches has its use for specific age-groups or for particular aspects of the language. The **deductive approach** is most useful for mature, well-motivated students with some knowledge of language, who are anxious to understand the more complicated aspects of the grammatical system, how language works.

The **inductive approach** is highly appropriate for young learners who have not yet developed fully their ability to think in abstractions and who enjoy learning through active application; for students who can take time to assimilate the language through use.

Grammar items may be presented in different ways. Conceptually there are two main trends. The first one is to divide the whole of the English language into manageable bite-sized chunks, and then introduce these to students, one chunk per lesson, so that they gradually and systematically accumulate a complete picture of the language. Following the concept we need to use **PPP** (see table 12, App. 4) framework using various *presentation techniques* (see table 30, App. 4).

Another trend of grammar presentation is in creating the environment where a lot of language, known and unknown, is met (mainly when doing speaking and listening tasks) and where students are helped with new language only when they already have some awareness of it, and have curiosity or questions about it. The concept proposes to follow **TBL** (see table 12, App. 4) framework to grammar teaching.

One of teacher's main roles is to *introduce*, or "*present*", and *practice* new language and to *revise* language that learners have met before. Presentation and practice techniques are particularly useful at lower levels where much of the language that students come across is new. Some of this new language might be acquired naturally through exposure to native speaker discourse, but learners also need and want important areas of language to be highlighted by the teacher: to be explored or illustrated in terms of meaning and form, and then practiced. Teacher's role at practice stage of grammar teaching is to get a good balance between controlled activities (e.g. *drills*) and free ones (e.g. *information gap tasks in pairs*); exploit all four skills (where appropriate); keep up the interest (through the varied and stimulating topics and tasks); personalize the new grammar item; guide, support, encourage learners to succeed in language learning.

Points for discussion

- The importance of teaching grammar communicatively.
- Different approaches to teaching grammar.
- Content of teaching grammar (form, meaning, use/usage).
- Presentation techniques in grammar teaching.

Self-Check

1. Active grammar minimum consists of:

a) grammar phenomena that can be recognized and identified in the texts while reading;

b) grammar phenomena learners can perceive by listening and reading, produce and reproduce orally and in written form;

- c) grammar phenomena used only orally;
- d) grammar phenomena used only in written form.

2. Passive grammar minimum includes:

a) grammar notions necessary to be recognized and understood in the texts while reading and listening;

- b) grammar notions used in oral speech and reading;
- c) grammar notions used in oral speech only;
- d) grammar notions necessary to be recognized while listening.

3. Read the quotation from the author of *Hotline* and decide which approach to grammar teaching inductive or deductive is meant: *Grammar is treated as a problem*solving activity and students are treated as thinkers who are guided to work out the rules of grammar for themselves. (Tom Hutchinson)

4. Which presentation technique is described here: *Learners are proposed to talk about their lives, experiences, opinions, plans.*

a) elicitation;

- b) using realia;
- c) personalization;
- d) explanation.

5. Read the example of one of the conceptual frameworks to teaching language aspects. Write down the name of the trend:

Students are encouraged to ask for information about train and bus timetables and to get the correct answers (that is the task). When they have completed the task, teacher can, if necessary, give them a bit of language study to clear up some of the problems they encountered while completing the task.

Useful terms

Deductive learning or approach: Learners are taught rules and given information about a language. They then apply these rules when they use the language.

Elicitation: A technique in which the teacher draws information from learners through question and answer.

Error: Imperfect production caused by genuine lack of knowledge about the language (contrast with *mistake*).

Form: The actual words (written) or sounds (spoken) used to express something in language, as opposed to *meaning* or *use*. It is often synonymous with *structure*.

Formal grammar: Grammar presented as a form in isolation from its meaning in context.

Functional grammar: Grammar seen as a system for the expression of meaning.

Grammar: The identification of systematic regularities in language.

Inductive learning or approach: Learners are not taught grammatical or other types of rules directly but are left to discover or induce rules from their experience of using the language.

Mistake: A slip of the tongue which the learner can self-correct when challenged because it is not caused by lack of knowledge. A mistake is sometimes referred to as a *performance error* (see *error*).

Notional grammar: Grammar based on the meanings or concepts that people need to express through the language (e.g. time, quantity, location, duration) and the linguistic items and structures needed to express them.

Personalization: A technique in which learners communicate about themselves or about their own lives. To personalize a new grammar item means to get learners to use it to talk about their lives, experiences, opinions, plans.

Presenting language in context: It is the facilitative intake of grammatical features by providing meaningful context where the target grammar points are used.

Usage: Refers to examples of language which are correct grammatically and have meaning, but which have no communicative value. *Rules of usage* refer to knowledge of grammatical form and meaning.

Use: The way in which a speaker uses a particular language form to communicate in a particular situation for a particular purpose. *Rules of use* refer to knowledge of when and with whom an item should be used, i.e. appropriacy.

Reports proposed on the theme

- Communicatively-oriented grammar teaching.
- Structural approach to teaching grammar.
- Advantages and disadvantages of deductive/inductive approach to teaching grammar.
- Learners' difficulties in assimilating English grammar.

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3.3. Teaching vocabulary

It is experience of most language teachers that the single, biggest component of any language course is vocabulary. If language structures, says Jeremy Harmer, make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh. For many years vocabulary was seen as incidental to the main purpose of language teaching – the acquisition of grammatical knowledge about the language.

Recently the status of vocabulary has been considerably enhanced. This has come about mainly as a result of the development of communicative approaches, proponents of which point out that the acquisition of an adequate vocabulary is essential for successful FL use otherwise comprehensible communication can hardly be possible.

The problem is what words and idioms students should retain, what are the principles and criteria of vocabulary selection. Different scholars (M. West, McCarthy, Richards, and Galina Rogova) name the following: *frequency, coverage or range of contents, ease, learnability, familiarity, learners' needs* (see table 31, App. 4).

Word **frequency** is an example of purely linguistic approach to word selection. It is claimed to be the soundest criterion because it is completely objective. But frequency does not necessarily equate with usefulness or relevance to learner needs and coverage or range of contents may be more important. The useful words for learner are those which occur across a wide variety of texts. The next criterion for vocabulary selection for teaching purposes is **ease** with which words may be learned. For example, abstract items are more difficult to learn than words that denote concrete things, actions or qualities. The ease or difficulty a word presents depends on variety of different reasons, and may need special attention or focus in teaching. According to Michael McCarthy learnability of words is an important criterion which should be taken into account selecting vocabulary for teaching purposes. Words with low learnability cause some problems for students (e.g. spelling or phonological difficulties, vague or halfcomprehended cultural setting, words may be perceived as very close in meaning by the learners and then confused, etc.). Words with high learnability do not cause additional difficulties and may be more familiar to learners. The criterion of familiarity is a concept incorporating frequency, meaningfulness, concreteness (Richards). Learners who are familiar with a particular sphere of life (e.g. physics, economics, etc.) will find the words connected with the sphere less difficult to learn. It is important to understand that different learners need differentiated vocabulary lists, and that the list should reflect the communicative needs of learners. Thus, an important criterion for selection is learners' needs. Teacher and coursebook writer should predict learners' communicative needs and equip learner with the basic core of language (the most common grammatical and lexical items) and a survival vocabulary, creating at the same time a sense of need for a word in learners.

The selection of vocabulary, though important, is not teacher's chief concern. Teacher's concern is how to get their students to assimilate the vocabulary prescribed. Teacher should bear in mind that a word is considered to be learned when:

- it is spontaneously recognized while listening and reading;
- it is correctly used in speech (both oral and written), the right word in the right place.

Real vocabulary that learner possesses serves both *productive* and *receptive purposes*. When producing speech (while speaking/writing) learner operates freely some words, word-combinations, and expressions for their communicative purposes, their vocabulary is called **active** / **functional** / **productive vocabulary**. When comprehending wide variety of texts and utterances (while listening and reading) learner is able to understand but not yet use the vocabulary, it is called **passive** / **recognition** / **receptive.** Learners can be seriously under-equipped to deal with *authentic language* if they neglect to extend their passive /receptive vocabulary and develop their **potential** vocabulary.

It is undoubted that any language is a rationally organized structure. Not only grammar but also vocabulary is based on some structuring principles. The teacher's job is to find the ways to utilize the regularity and organization of lexical structure and help learners acquire lexical competence (see chapter 2.3.). **Lexical competence** is viewed as acquiring an appropriate quantity of lexical units, in other words, owning vocabulary. Unlike the learning of grammar, which is essentially a rule-based system, vocabulary knowledge is largely a question of accumulating individual items. To know a word means to know its

- *meaning* (denotation, connotation, polysemy, homonymy, synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy),
- *form* (phonology, orthography, morphology),
- *distribution* (collocation, register, style) (see table 33, App. 4).

Constant use of a new word is the best way of learning it. New words should be approached from different *sides*, in many different *ways*, by means of many different *forms of work*. Teacher can ensure lasting retention of words for their learners, relying upon their sensory perception and thinking upon their auditory, visual and kinaesthetic analysis so that learners can easily *recognize* the words while listening and reading and *use* them while speaking and writing. The stages of vocabulary acquisition are shown in table 34 (see App.4).

There are numerous techniques concerned with **vocabulary presentation**. For example, the **meaning** of a word can be given by using an L1 translation; using a

known L2 synonym or a simple definition in the L2; showing an object or picture; giving demonstration; drawing a simple picture or diagram; breaking the word into parts and giving the meaning of the parts and the whole word; giving several example sentences with the word in context to show the meaning; commenting on the underlying meaning of the word and other referents (see table 35, App. 4).

It is possible to draw attention to the **form** of a word by showing its spelling as well as pointing out any spelling irregularity in the word; giving the word pronunciation; showing the prefix, stem and suffix that make up the word.

In drawing attention to **the use** of the word it is a good idea to show the grammatical pattern of it; to give a few similar collocations, a well known opposite, or a well known word describing a group or a lexical set it fits into.

If we want to help learners remember new language more easily, it is useful to have some insight into how students learn. Marilee Sprenger asserts that memories are stored in different areas. She lists five **memory lanes**:

- semantic (deals with words only without any context);
- episodic (location driven);
- procedural (involves step-by-step process);
- automatic (associations);
- emotional (emotions are involved via music, role play, debates etc).

To maximize the effectiveness of learning, all the memory lanes should be accessed through a variety of appealing activities – games, problem-solving and others, which can improve language learning ability of students when used as a central strategy in the language classroom and not just for fun.

Points for discussion

- Peculiarities of functional/active, receptive/passive and potential vocabulary.
- Development of rich vocabulary as an important element in foreign/second language acquisition.
- Content of vocabulary teaching in communicative classroom.

Self-Check

1. Match the notions with their definitions:

1.FUNCTIONAL	a) those unknown words which might be
VOCABULARY	understood by learners using their previous
	knowledge;
2. POTENTIAL	b) words which learners understand but
VOCABULARY	do not necessary by use;
	c) those words which learners can use in their
3. REAL VOCABULARY	oral and written speech;
	d) active and passive vocabularies of
4.RECEPTIVE VOCABULARY	vocabulary learners.

2. Tick the right criteria of vocabulary selection:

a) frequency;	e) familiarity;
b) functions;	f) representation;
c) authenticity;	g) learners' needs;
d) learnability;	h) coverage or range of contents.

3. Differentiate between visual and verbal direct method techniques in vocabulary presentation:

a) crosswords;	e) word-building;
b) facial expressions;	f) realia;
c) synonyms;	g) context;
d) showing objects;	h) familiar or famous words.

4. Tick the aspects of word meaning:	
a) denotation;	e) hyponymy;
b) collocation;	f) word-building;
c) polysemy;	g) antonymy;

d) register;

h) style.

5. Real vocabulary consists of:

a) functional and potential vocabulary;

b) receptive and passive vocabulary;

c) active and potential vocabulary;

d) functional and receptive vocabulary.

Useful terms

Active vocabulary: those words which learners can use in their oral and written speech.

Antonymy: words that are opposite in meaning to another word in the same language: *e.g. Good - bad*

Collocation: The way in which words are used together regularly.

Connotation: The feelings or ideas that are suggested by a word, rather than the actual meaning of the word: "*armchair*" has connotations of *comfort and relaxation*

Denotation: The thing that is actually named or described by a word, rather than the feelings or ideas that are suggested by the word.

Frequency: It is derived by counting the number of occurrences of words appearing in representative printed material comprising novels, essays, plays, poems, newspapers, textbooks, and magazines.

Functional vocabulary: Another term for active (productive) vocabulary.

Homonymy: Sound and spelling are the same, meaning or origin is different: *Bear* (n), *bear* (v).

Homophones: Sound is the same, spelling is different: "knew", "new"

Hyponymy: Relation of inclusion (e.g. *Tulip* includes the meaning *flower* – *Tulip* is a hyponym of *flower*).

Lexis: Another term for vocabulary. A lexical item is a piece of vocabulary to be taught – not only the meaning of single words but also phrases, idioms, etc. kept together at the same pace.

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Meaning: The conventional or literal meaning of a particular *form* (e.g. that past tense form *means* past time).

Passive vocabulary: Words which readers/listeners understand but which they do not necessarily use.

Polysemy: having many different meanings.

Potential vocabulary: Those unknown words which might be understood by learners using their previous knowledge – international words or derivatives, converted words, compound words – or context.

Productive vocabulary: Another term for active (functional) vocabulary.

Receptive vocabulary: Another term for passive (recognition) vocabulary.

Recognition vocabulary: Another term for passive (receptive) vocabulary.

Retention: The ability to recall or remember things after an interval of time. It may depend on the quality of teaching, or the meaningfulness of the materials.

Synonymy: Words with the same meaning or nearly the same meaning as another word in the same language: "*sad*", "*unhappy*" *miserable*"

Reports proposed on the theme

- Vocabulary selection criteria for educational purposes.
- The nature of lexical competence.
- Different vocabulary presentation techniques.

Further reading

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3.4. Teaching pronunciation

Over recent years there has been a renewed interest in the teaching of pronunciation. Why is it so important? Work on pronunciation is important for two main reasons:

- to help the students understand the spoken English they hear;
- to help them make their own speech comprehensible and meaningful to others.

Christine Dalton and Barbara Seidlhofer define pronunciation as the production of significant sound in two senses. First, sound is significant because it is used as part of a code of a particular language. In this sense we can talk about pronunciation as *the production and reception of sounds of speech*. Second, sound is significant because it is used to achieve meaning in context of use. Here the code combines with other factors to make communication possible. In this sense we can talk about pronunciation *with reference to acts of speaking*.

So, **primary communicative goal** is important as a general guide for teaching pronunciation, because *pronunciation is never an end in itself but a means to negotiate meaning in discourse*. Teaching English pronunciation is envisaged in English School Syllabus as it is one of the basic habits necessary to be acquired in school. Under phonetic habits that should be formed we mean:

a) comprehensible and intelligible pronunciation of individual sounds, sound clusters or sounds in connected speech, correct word stress, rhythm and stress in utterances;

b) intonation patterns.

The main requirement to learners' pronunciation is to be **phonetically intelligible** and **accurate** enough to be understandable. Absolute phonetic accuracy is impossible to achieve in secondary school, we cannot expect more than *approximate correctness*, the correctness that ensures communication between people speaking the same language. In communicative language teaching *appropriacy* is a more important criterion for intelligibility than *correctness*. So, the **principle of approximation** is the basic principle of teaching pronunciation in school. It deals with the pronunciation that is similar to the RP standard but not perfect and authentic enough as it is impossible to gain in secondary school. **Approximated pronunciation** is comprehensible pronunciation which is sought in the teaching process.

As in case of grammar and vocabulary, some limits to phonetic material acquisition are envisaged in a secondary school curriculum. So, we deal with phonetic school minimum. The criteria for its selection are as follows:

- **difficulty of a certain phonetic phenomenon** (the subject for special training is phonetic phenomena which are difficult to overcome, e.g. unusual sounds and sequences, the length of vowels, etc.);
- **communicative needs** (those sounds and intonation patterns which possess meaningful distinctive features should be in the sphere of attention:

e.g. question tags where rising or falling tones will result in different meaning;

requests with rising tone in English and falling tone in Ukrainian; *orders* with rising tone in Ukrainian and falling tone in English; *sentence stress*; *function of an utterance*);

• **Received Pronunciation (RP) standard** which is the phonetic standard teaching object, a convenient teaching norm for foreigners.

Teaching pronunciation is a process which should be covering both **early and advanced** stages of instruction. A distinction must be drawn between the types of exercises suitable for each stage. Training on the **early/initial** stages aims at avoiding problems in comprehension; not only particular *sounds* are practiced, but also patterns of *stress, information* and *juncture*. Phonetic habits are formed through *identification* exercises, *imitative production*, and *guided non-imitative* *production.* At a later, advanced stage, the stage of *autonomous production* appropriate exercises for *remedial training* should be proposed for advanced students who often need intensive practice in the production of certain problem sounds or sequences of sounds to correct a "foreign accent".

The classification of phonetic exercises acceptable for secondary school learning is as follows:

- **receptive** (recognition, discrimination, identification);
- **reproductive** (imitation, substitution, transformation, answering the questions) (see table 37 App.4).

Teaching pronunciation should be strategically planned and connected with the particular structures and lexis dealt with in the lesson. In the light of this Gerald Kelly divides lessons into three main types (see table 36, App. 4):

- **Integrated lessons** in which pronunciation forms an essential part of the language analysis and the planning process, and the language presentation and practice within the lesson;
- **Remedial or reactive lessons,** where a pronunciation difficulty which arises in class is dealt with there and then, in order to facilitate the successful achievement of classroom tasks;
- **Practice lessons** in which a particular feature of pronunciation is isolated and practiced for its own sake, forming the main focus of a lesson period.

As native speakers of our first language, we automatically *adapt our ways* of speaking to situations and interlocutors. However, learning a foreign language may make us painfully aware of these factors. This awareness will be affected by *our purpose* and *motivation*. Motivation in second language learning may be instrumental and integrative, state Ch. Dalton, B. Seidlhofer (see table 38, App. 4).

An **instrumental orientation** reflects the practical advantages of learning a language, while an **integrative orientation** stems from a sincere and personal interest in the people and the culture. Obviously, this distinction is a very general one between two extreme positions, and many learners may actually go through different motivational stages in their language learning career. Learner with primarily

instrumental motivation will probably be interested mainly in getting meanings across, and regard their linguistic performance as satisfying if it is *accessible* to interlocutors.

An **integratively** motivated learner, on the other hand, will probably set greater store by the interactional side of communication, and will be concerned to be not only accessible but also *acceptable* to the foreign language community he or she is aspiring to be a member of. Attitudes and motivation can naturally change, both in the course of learning and in the course of a particular interaction.

All in all, the communicative value of pronunciation is undoubted and the importance of teaching pronunciation is evident since if we sound badly, nobody will understand us, if we perceive badly, we will fail to understand others.

Points for discussion

- The importance of teaching pronunciation and its communicative value.
- Problems and approaches in pronunciation teaching. Phonetic school minimum.
- Principle of approximated pronunciation. Different types of activities and exercises in pronunciation teaching.

Self – Check

1. What are the items that constitute **the content** of pronunciation teaching at school? Complete the list:

Discrimination, articulation;_____

2. Match the lesson types with their definitions:

1. INTEGRATED	a) in which a particular feature of pronunciation is
LESSONS	isolated and practiced for its own sake, forming the main
	focus of a lesson period;

2. REMEDIAL OR

REACTIVE LESSONS

3. PRACTICE LESSONS b) in which pronunciation forms an essential part of the language analysis and the planning process, and the language presentation and practice within the lesson;

c) where a pronunciation difficulty which arises in class is dealt with there and then, in order to facilitate the successful achievement of classroom tasks.

3. What types of exercises are defined here?

a) the exercises are designed for developing students' ability to recognize, discriminate and identify sounds, sound sequences, stressed syllables, stressed words, melody and other phonetic phenomena in isolation, junctures or phrases;

b) the exercises are designed for developing learners' pronunciation habits, i.e. their ability to articulate English sounds correctly and to combine sounds into words, phrases and sentences easily enough to be able to speak English and to read aloud in this language.

4. What are the aim and the type of the exercise: "*Listen to the words with sounds* [∂] [θ] and raise your hand when you hear a voiceless variant"?

5. Approximated pronunciation is:

a) comprehensible, phonetically intelligible and accurate enough to be understandable;

b) comprehensible;

c) native-like;

d) strictly according to RP standard.

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Useful terms

Accents: Regional or/and social varieties which only differ with respect to phonology (sound level).

Articulation: Learning to make the motor movements adequate to proper production of English sounds.

Approximation: The basic principle of teaching pronunciation at school.

Approximated pronunciation: Comprehensible pronunciation which is sought in the teaching process in a secondary school. It is similar to the RP standard but not perfect and authentic enough.

Articulation: learning to make the motor movements adequate to proper production of English sounds.

Auditory: Of or related to hearing.

Auditory discrimination: The ability to hear and recognize the different sounds in a language.

Automaticity: making correct production so habitual that if does not need to be attended to in the process of speaking.

Content of pronunciation teaching: the items that constitute the content are discrimination, articulation, intonation, integration, automaticity.

Dialects: Regional varieties which differ from the common core with respect to syntax, lexicon, morphology, and phonology.

Discrimination exercise: Receptive phonetic exercise where a learner hears the differences between phonemes which are not distinguished or used in L1 and between falling, rising and level tones.

Identification exercise: Receptive phonetic exercise where a learner must listen and identify (*to recognize and correctly name*) sounds.

Imitation exercise: Reproductive phonetic exercise where a learner repeats sounds, words, phrases or sentences after the teacher/speaker.

Integration: Learning to assemble the phonemes of a connected discourse with the proper allophonic variations.

Intelligibility: Not guaranteed by linguistic similarity and phonetic accuracy, but is often overridden by cultural and economic factors. Intelligibility is closely linked to the issues of social position and individual character. We adjust our understanding of the other person according to how we relate to them socially and as individuals.

Intonation: Learning to make right stresses, pauses and use appropriate patterns.

Function of an utterance: Intonation and stress can indicate the function of an utterance. For example,

a) Why don't you come to my PARty? (suggestion or invitation)

b) WHY don't you come to my party? (showing interest or surprise)

RP: Received Pronunciation, British standard.

Received Pronunciation (RP) standard: The phonetic standard teaching object, the type of English pronunciation which has been thorough described in linguistic literature, and seems to be easily understood throughout the English-speaking world, traditionally makes in a convenient teaching norm for foreigners.

Recognition exercise: A receptive phonetic exercise where learner recognizes (*knows what something is because they have heard or learned about them before*) the sounds he / she hears.

Substitution exercise: A reproductive exercise where learner substitutes or uses one item instead of another (phonetic, grammar or vocabulary items).

Transformation exercise: A reproductive exercise where learner transforms sounds into orthographically written words.

Varieties: Distinctions within the code of a language in general.

Reports proposed on the theme

- Phonetic school minimum. Selection criteria.
- Content and stages of teaching pronunciation. Different types of exercises.
- Communicative value of pronunciation and its role in social interaction.

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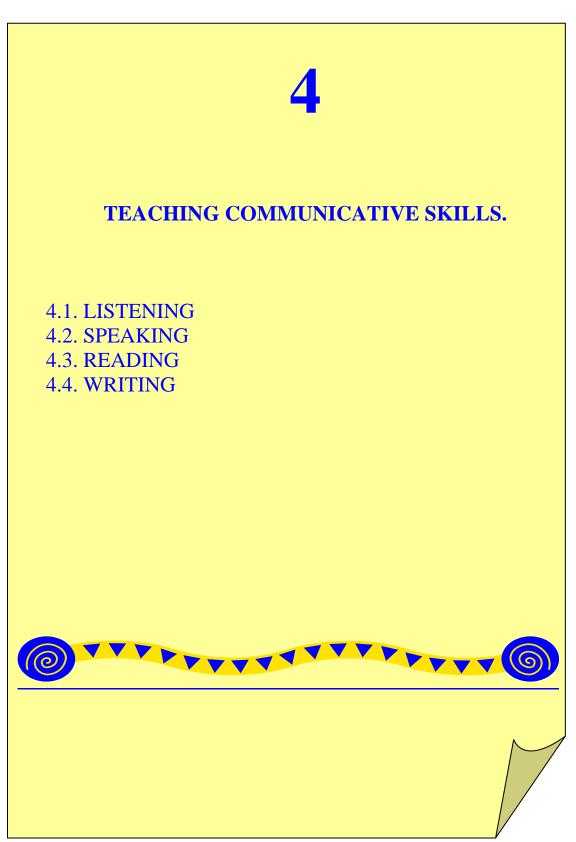
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4. TEACHING COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS.

People acquire language from reception to reproduction, first extracting meaning from the discourse they see and hear, and then getting to produce utterances or texts while speaking or writing. Natural sequence of speech skills are as follows: listening, speaking (oral speech), reading, writing (written speech) (see tables 19, 20; App.4). Productive speech is addressed to another side of mutual interaction and is ready for immediate or delayed feedback. Receptive skills are concentrated on the message because gaining information is desirable for listeners or readers. Teacher should always remember a communicative character of real-life interaction and base their teaching on the premises that the target language is not something remote and irrelevant for students, but an effective tool for students' self-expression, one more code in human intercourse.

4.1. Listening

When we speak about teaching a foreign language, we first of all have in mind teaching it as a means of communication. Essential to all interaction is the ability to understand what others are saying. It has been estimated by W. Rivers, M. Temperly that of the time adults spend in communication activities 45% is devoted to listening, only 30% to speaking, 16 % to reading and a mere 9% to writing.

Apart from communicative interaction, much of the enjoyment in foreign language use comes from listening activities – watching films and plays; listening to radio broadcasts, songs; talks by native speakers. Even in class students learn a great deal from listening to their teacher, to tapes or records, or to each other. In this respect listening is one of the most important skills and a challengeable activity in a foreign language teaching, and the importance of being a successful listener can hardly be overestimated. **Features:**

- According to its role in the process of communication, listening is **reactive** (+ reading), not **initiative** (as speaking and writing).
- Listening is a **receptive skill**, a developed or acquired ability to receive and perceive some oral information.
- The **product** of listening is deduction; the **result** comprehension, understanding of the information heard; the **subject** of listening is someone else's thought.

Major requirements for school leavers' listening skills (B1 level of *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*):

"The learner should understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc.; can understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear."

Teacher should take into consideration the following factors which can ensure success in developing learners' listening skills (see table 40 App.4):

Linguistic material for listening (phonetic, lexical, grammatical);

Content of the material suggested for listening comprehension (learners' familiarity with the subject/topic of communication; type of communication – description, narration; way the narrative progresses – chronological or narrative order; form of communication – dialogue, monologue; understanding of the cultural context, observation and interpretation of the circumstances of the utterance);

Conditions in which the material is presented (speed of speech; number of presentations; visual "props"– objects, pictures, photos, motions, etc.; voice of the speaker; recorded or alive presentation).

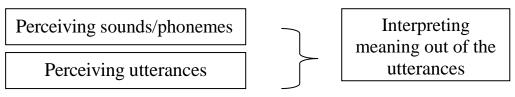
To overcome the difficulties teacher should realize how the physiological process of listening goes on. Before *input* is stored in our **long-term memory (LTM)** it must first be processed in **the short-term memory (STM)** which works very quickly. Underwood draws a distinction between **'echoic' memory** (about one second), short-term memory (a few seconds) and *a long-term memory*. *The echoic*

memory 'freezes' the message while *the short-term memory* works on making sense of what has been heard. *The short term memory* is the type of memory we use when we need to remember something for a limited time only – for example, a new telephone number while we are dialing it. Unfortunately, its natural limit is seven characters (chunks of information) or, with some people, even less than that. So it has to operate very quickly to enable people to understand spoken messages. Information kept in *the short term memory* needs to be transferred to *the long term memory* if it is not going to be forgotten by the listener. *The long term memory* is where information is stored for a relatively long time. After the message has been understood, *the sense is stored* in LTM while *the actual words disappear from our memory* (see table 39 App.4).

For example, I can remember what my parents told me on the telephone yesterday, but I cannot remember the exact words that they used.

Listeners may often have problems if they *try to understand every word* using their knowledge of the structure of language. They tend to get confused and will probably be less successful than listeners who *seek the meaning without focusing too much on language*. This approach of trying to understand every word is known as the **serial 'bottom-up' model**. It assumes that we perceive speech by building up an interpretation in a series of separate stages, beginning with the lowest-level units (phonemes) and gradually working up to the larger units such as utterance, trying to comprehend the meaning of the whole grasping each piece of information. From that we then derive our interpretation of speaker's meaning (see chart 2).

Chart 2

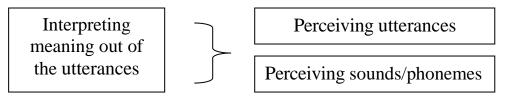


When listening to our native language our attention is focused on **the meaning** a speaker is trying to convey, rather than on the language (and other) sounds he/she is producing. Adult native listeners do not perceive speech phoneme-by-phoneme, or word-by-word. They use existing knowledge of the world to help them to work out a

reasonable interpretation of what they have heard. So, if a speaker says one word incorrectly, the listener is likely to be able to work out what was meant.

For example, if a speaker seems to say *Tm getting up at seven o'clock this morning'*, the listener is likely to find it easy to interpret this as *T got up at seven* $o'clock^{1}$ by using their knowledge of the world and their knowledge of the language. This is **the top-down model of** listening comprehension where the listener focuses on the meaning the speaker is trying to convey rather than on the language sounds he is producing (see chart 3).

Chart 3



For successful listening comprehension and development of auditory abilities of learners both models should be practised in variety of exercises (see table 41 App.4). First of all, auditory abilities of learners are trained and practised in preparatory or drilling exercises aimed at overcoming *linguistic difficulties* (lexical, grammatical, phonetic) and at *development of speech mechanism of listening* (logical thinking, prediction, attention, auditory memory). Then learners are proposed speech exercises and communicative activities in listening texts, recordings, conversations, etc. In communicative language classroom a usual framework for teaching listening listening is three-phased: pre-listening, while-listening, post-listening.

On the **pre-listening stage** learners are prepared for grasping the information. In order to facilitate listening teacher may provoke discussion to introduce the topic, to arose learners' interest or create (according to Roger Gover) a 'need to know' by telling them how the listening task fits in with a later activity they are going to do. The stage may contain some pre-teach exercises to diminish learners' difficulties in grammar or vocabulary.

While-listening stage is the listening itself. Traditionally, the first listening is focused on an overall understanding while the second listening on more detailed

understanding of the text. The ways of feedback in teaching listening skills may be very different (see table 42, App. 4). Teacher can use both verbal and non-verbal means to check learners' understanding.

Post-listening activities may include a variety of follow-up study ranging from the development of speaking or writing skills to practising language aspects. Learners can be involved into different kinds of interaction-based activities, such as *What do you think?* discussions or debates in pairs or groups, pre-writing exercises expressing their opinion on the problems arisen in the material listened to and so on. They can be focused on specific vocabulary or grammar structures used in the text with following practising the issues, etc.

Points for discussion

- Peculiarities of listening as a skill. Difficulties of listening comprehension.
- The listening process. Bottom-up and top-down approaches to teaching listening.
- Stages of teaching listening and exercises in development of auditory abilities of learners.

Self-Check

- 1. According to its role in the process of communication listening is:
- a) reactive skill;
- b) passive skill;
- c) initiative skill;
- d) receptive skill;
- e) productive skill;
- f) active skill.

2. Draw a model of how the listening process works:

message in code –memory – message is–

Non-verbal means	Verbal means		
	receptive	reproductive	

3. What ways of feedback in teaching listening skills do you know? Fill in the table:

4. Match the words with the definitions:

1. AURAL	a) spoken, not written;
2. ORAL	b) of or concerning the ear or hearing

5. Arrange the following components according to bottom-up approach to teaching listening comprehension:

grammar, vocabulary, global message, sound system

Useful terms

Audio-visual aid: An audio or visual device used by the teacher to keep learning (i.e. pictures, charts, flashcards-visual aids; radio, records, tape-recorders-auditory aids; film, television, video-audio-visual aids).

Authentic materials: Spoken or written texts from real-life sources, originally intended for native speakers.

Bottom-up process: The process of comprehension and learning that makes use principally of information which is already present in the data (i.e. the words, sentences, etc.).

Input: Something that is to be learned.

Pre-teach: To prepare learners for an activity by introducing a new language before starting the topic.

Reception: The action of receiving some oral/aural or written information.

Receptive skills: Listening and reading – learners are receiving language and processing it, without producing it (Contrast with *productive skills*.).

Skills / subskills: A supposed set of specific abilities which are built up sequentially, higher ones depending on lower ones, to produce a particular kind of behaviour; a skills approach to teaching involves the division of language data into manageable chunks.

Top-down process: The process of comprehension and learning in which the learner uses previous knowledge ("higher-level knowledge") in analyzing and processing information received (words, sentences, etc.). (Contrast to *bottom-up process*).

Reports proposed on the theme

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- Psycho-physiological mechanisms of listening.
- Learner's difficulties in acquiring listening skills. System of exercises.

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4.2. Speaking

The value and role of developed speaking skills in effective communication can hardly be exaggerated. Spoken or oral communication is known by its spontaneous, unplanned character, informal style and some peculiarities in syntax (see table 46, App. 4).

Features

- According to its role in the process of communication speaking is **initiative** (+writing), not **reactive** (as reading and listening).
- Speaking is a **productive skill**, a developed or acquired ability to produce and reproduce some information orally.
- The **product** of speaking is utterance; the **result** is the ability to produce an utterance with the help of all necessary phonetic, lexical and grammatical means; the **subject** of speaking is someone's thought.

Major requirements for school leavers' listening skills (B1 level of *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*):

In spoken interaction the learner should deal with most situations likely to arise whilst traveling in an area where the language is spoken. He / she can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events).

In spoken production the learner should connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, his / her dreams, hopes and ambitions. The learner can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. He / she

can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or a film and describe his / her reactions.

Main aims and general purposes, according to G. Brown and G. Yule, of speaking in real-life interaction are *giving* and *receiving information* (such message-oriented aim produces **transactional language**), collaborating in doing something, sharing personal experiences and opinions with a view to building social relationships. To reach this aim the learner has to be competent in an **interactional language**, the language for maintaining social relationships.

The development of speaking follows the same pattern both in the mother tongue and in a foreign language from *reception to reproduction* (see table 43 App.4). The *psychological characteristics* of oral language are as follows:

- Speech must be **motivated**, i.e. the speaker expresses a desire to inform the listener of something interesting, important, or to get information from him / her (inner or outward motivation). The learners' desire should be stimulated by the teacher in a classroom situation.
- Speech is always **addressed** to an interlocutor (a person taking part in a conversation or discussion). Every speaker needs a listener.
- Speech is always **emotionally coloured** for the speaker expresses his / her thoughts, feelings, his / her attitude to what he / she says.
- Speech is always situational for it takes place in a certain situation.

Language learners are considered successful if they can communicate effectively in the target language, producing good **fluency** of speech, whereas some decades ago the **accuracy** of the language produced would most likely be the major criterion of a success or a failure of student's performance. These two notions – **fluency** and **accuracy** – are of utmost importance when we speak about the development of speaking skills. *Nowadays the focus of attention in language teaching has been shifted from accuracy to fluency,* from grammatically correct production to communicative adequacy and appropriacy.

Classroom communication is viewed as a mirror of authentic communication that occurs in the real world. However, this does not mean that a focus on accuracy has no place in a communicative classroom. The proponents of communicative language teaching understand that if we force communication too early without regard for accuracy it can result in early fossilization of inaccurate production. Without grammar accuracy affective communication can hardly take place. Providing the slogan **fluency before accuracy** the proponents of communicative teaching do not deny the importance of teaching grammar but make it possible through communicative means.

There are two forms of speaking: **monologue** and **dialogue**. Each form has its own peculiarities. *Monologue* is a one-way process, not intended for reactive response. *Dialogue* is the process of speaking interaction between two or more participants, conversation or discussion in which opinions are exchanged. Both forms of speaking possess certain communicative functions in speech (see tables 44,45 App.4). For example, *informative function* – giving information, description of events, actions, states (for monological speech), giving and receiving information (for dialogical speech). Besides, monological speech has *influential* (encouraging, warning, persuasion), *expressive* (declining emotional stress), *entertaining, religious-ritual* (speech during some religious acts) *functions*. Communicating in dialogical speech people do not only inform each other, but also give and receive proposals (in the form of request, order, advice), share personal experience and opinions, state and justify their opinions, persuade other people.

Dialogue reflects the **rules** and **procedures** that govern face-to-face encounters. The basic to the management of a collaborative process in conversation is the *turn-taking system*. Dialogues progress as a series of "turns", at any moment the speaker may become the listener; these role exchanges constitute the nature of turns. The role of topics discussed has also a great importance in a language interaction. The acquisition of strategic competence, the ability to repair trouble spots and potential breakdowns in communication is one more significant rule in a dialogue procedure, together with the syntax and register of a conversational discourse.

There are different approaches to teaching dialogue. Two major strategies are:

a top-down strategy and *a bottom-up strategy*. The first is starting dialogue acquisition with the global listening of the whole dialogue, then learning and mastering it. The second means mastering separate elements of a dialogue, then gradually it goes to an autonomous production, i.e. "up" level of the acquisition.

Ukrainian scholars N.K. Skliarenko and T.I. Olijnyk consider **a dialogical unit** the basic unit in teaching dialogical speech. *A dialogical unit* (or *lead-response*, according to G. Rogova) is structurally, phonetically and semantically organized series of turns.

The first turn in a dialogical unit is always of **an initiative character** (it can be called **leading** or **encouraging** turn). It guides the conversation, begins it, stimulates the dialogue and helps to develop and increase it.

The second turn possesses **a reactive** or **reactive-initiative character**. If the turn is purely *reactive*, it means its absolute dependence on the first turn. If it is *reactive-initiative*, it includes reaction / response and encouragement to further conversation.

e.g. (reactive)	- What would you like to eat?	
	- A meat sandwich.	
(reactive-initiative)	- Is lunch ready?	
	- Yes. Let's have lunch in the garden.	

According to the communicative function of the first turn *a dialogical unit* may be divided into three groups:

I a) statement – statement;	e.g. I like the weather.	So do I.
-----	--------------------------	--------------------------	----------

b) statement – question; *e.g. I like the weather. Do you?*

c) statement – inducement / encouragement; e.g. - I like the weather. Let's go for a walk, then!

II a) inducement / encouragement – agreement;

e.g. *Drop in any time! Oh, with pleasure!*

b) inducement / encouragement – disagreement;

e.g. Drop in any time! Sorry, I'm afraid I can't.

c) inducement / encouragement – question.

e.g. *Drop in any time! What about Sunday?* (advice, proposal, invitation, request, order, instruction)

III a) Question – response;

b) Question – question.

According to S.Yu. Nikolaeva, N.K. Skliarenko and T.I. Olijnyk, the logical sequence of stages in teaching dialogue, is as follows:

0 zero – preparation stage, where learners practice giving response to the appropriate stimulus (familiar receptive-reproductive and relatively-communicative exercises)

I stage – mastering dialogical units;

II stage - microdialogues;

III stage – the autonomous production of a dialogue.

All the stages should be supplemented with a variety of exercises. Learners should experience all the structures of a dialogical speech to avoid artificial and unnatural character of a classroom dialogue. They are expected to possess the following *dialogical skills:*

- to begin, to initiate a conversation using the appropriate structures;
- to give quick and correct response;
- to support and stimulate a conversation using encouraging phrases;
- to produce dialogues of different communicative types grouped on speech situations done;
- to interrupt the speaker politely and repair trouble spots in a conversation.

In teaching *monologue* Galina Rogova distinguishes three stages according to the levels which constitute the ability to speak: *the statement level*; *the utterance level*; *the discourse level*. On the statement level different *linguistically structured activities* will be of help, combining different phrases into one utterance. At the second stage of monologue development some *"performance" activities* can be used (those in which the student prepares beforehand and delivers a message to a group in a usual classroom setting). At the third stage students participate in communicative activities in a natural setting.

Points for discussion

- Psychological characteristics of spoken (oral) language. Co-operative principle of conversation.
- Peculiarities in teaching monologue and dialogue.
- Learner's difficulties in speaking. Correlation between fluency and accuracy in ELT classroom.

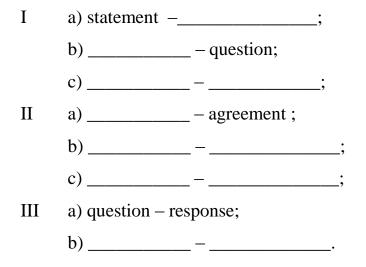
Self-Check

1. How do we call the ability to produce language easily without too many hesitations, with the focus on communication of the message rather than grammatical accuracy?

2. Which of these are types of monologue? Tick the right items:

- a) discussion; e) persuasion;
- b) information; f) description;
- c) opinion; g) questioning;
- d) negotiation; h) narration.

3. Three groups of dialogical units. Fill in the chart:



4. What is defined here: "the ability to produce grammatically correct language"?

5. Match the communicative functions of a dialogue with its types:

1) sharing personal experience and	
opinions;	a) dialogue – discussion;
2) persuading;	b) dialogue – negotiation;
3) giving and receiving information;	c) dialogue – questioning;
4) giving and receiving proposals.	d) dialogue– exchange of ideas

Useful terms

Accuracy: The ability to produce grammatically correct language.

Communication / to communicate: The exchange of ideas, information, etc. between two or more people. In an act of communication there is usually one speaker or *sender*, a *message* which is transmitted, and a person(s) for whom this message is intended (*the receiver*).

Communicative activity: An activity in which the student uses the language he/she has at his/her command to provide or elicit from other student(s) information or opinions hitherto unknown.

Cooperation: Working together with one or more peer(s) to solve a problem, complete a learning task, share information or get feedback on the performance.

Cooperative learning (*also collaborative learning*): An approach to teaching and learning in which classrooms are organized so that students work together in small cooperative teams.

Dialogue: A two-way, collaborative process of conversational interaction between two or more participants in which opinions are exchanged.

Discourse: Spoken or written language; giving a long talk or lecture about something.

Interact: To work together or communicate; to act or have an effect on each other.

Interactional language: Language used for maintaining social relationships,

for the purpose of mutual cooperation.

Fluency: The ability to produce language easily without too many hesitations, with the focus on communication of the message rather that grammatical accuracy.

Monologue: It is a one-way process, not intended for reactive response.

Repair: A term which is used for ways in which errors, unintended forms, or misunderstandings are corrected by speakers or others during conversation.

Transactional language: Language used in a real-life interaction for messageoriented purposes.

Reports proposed on the theme

- Peculiarities in teaching dialogue/monologue.
- Transactional and interactional character of speaking.
- Communicative competence. Communicative and manipulative activities in developing speaking skills.

Further reading

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4.3. Reading

Reading is an important speech skill and one of the means of communication, a skill which enables people to get written messages. Reading is a part of daily life for people who live in literate communities. Urban technological societies, as C. Wallace states, operate on the premise that their members can read. So, reading is a very important skill, both the aim and the means of teaching. As a useful technique reading is *the means of vocabulary and grammar acquisition; the source of information; the basis of further development of speech habits and skills*.

Reading and learning to read is a social, interactive process as much as a personal and private activity.

Features

According to its role in the process of communication listening is **reactive** (+ listening), not **initiative** (as speaking and writing).

Reading is a **receptive skill**, a developed or acquired ability to recept and percept some written information.

The **product** of reading is *deduction*; the **result** – comprehension, understanding of the information read; the **subject** of reading is someone else's thought, expressed in a written form.

Major requirements for school leavers' listening skills (B1 level of *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*):

The learners can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency everyday or job sentences, related language, can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters.

In real life people read because they have a **desire** to do so and a **purpose** to achieve. Besides they usually have some **expectations** about the content of the text/message they are going to read. The concepts of desire, purpose and expectations, J. Harmer says, have important implications for language learning.

Activities for developing reading skills should exploit these natural desires and impulses, preferably by supplying something which cannot be readily obtained in the

native language: something which is interesting, amusing, exciting, useful, or leads to pleasurable activity. "If the teacher exploits all the concepts in their language classroom, they will succeed in motivating their students to read and, therefore, to learn English," believes J. Harmer.

People normally read because they want information for some purpose (to know what is happening or has happened; to know when or where something will take place or what is available, etc) or because they are curious about some topics, need instructions in order to perform a task for their work or daily life. When people seek enjoyment or excitement, want to keep in touch with friends by correspondence or understand business letters, they also want to receive information from written sources.

Whatever the reasons for reading may be, we read because *we want to get something from the writing*, this *something* can be called *the message*, it might be facts, ideas, feelings, enjoyment, etc. Summarising up different reasons mentioned, four general ideas or four blocks of reasons can be mentioned (see table 47 App.4): reading for having general information about the text (*skimming*), careful reading to obtain detailed understanding of the text (*intensive reading*), reading for some specific information from the text (*scanning*), and reading for pleasure or interest (*extensive reading*).

Reading difficult psycholinguistic Ukrainian scolars is a process. (O. B. Bihych, S. Yu. Nikolaeva) distinguish two levels of understanding a written text. The stages of reading development are closely connected with these two levels. The first one is an import comprehension level (*рівень значення*). It is connected with graphemic-phonemic and structural reception/perception of a written text. Actually, the first constituent part of reading as a process is reader's ability to associate the graphic system of the language with the phonic system of that language, to find the logical subject/predicate of the sentences, and be aware of semantic constraints related to knowledge of the meaning of words and their distribution. Readers, according to Kenneth Goodman make use of three cue systems, represented by three levels of language within the text: graphophonic, syntactic and semantic. According to M. Rivers and W. Temperley this level of text understanding is characteristic of three initial stages of reading development:

1. *Introduction to reading or learning to read*, where the major emphasis is laid on the identification of sound-symbol correspondences, reading habit formation.

2. *Familiarization*, where students read rearrangements and recombinations of the material they have been learning orally.

3. Acquiring reading techniques.

If all these abilities are well-developed, learners can focus their attention on *meaning* rather than *form* and are able to understand a message.

The second level of understanding a written text is connected with extraction of information from a text – **a content comprehension level** (*piBeHb 3Micmy*). This is the level of the development of reading skills when learners are supposed to get information from a written text. In this connection we can present three more stages of reading development outlined by M. Rivers and W. Temperley:

4. *Practice*. There are two kinds of practice: intensive and extensive. Intensive – linked with further study of grammar and vocabulary. Extensive – students are on their own reading for their own purposes or pleasure. A wide range of language is read.

5. *Expansion*. Students can read a wide variety of materials in their original form without being discouraged.

6. *Autonomy*. Students who have reached this stage should be encouraged to develop an independent reading programme tailored to their special interests.

A successful, well-equipped, experienced reader focuses his/her attention on the text itself, its *meaning* and *information* it contains not on the *form* (letters, words, grammar) and treats the text as a familiar form of discourse and not as a task for deciphering. Coming from the first level of understanding a written text to the second one, from an import comprehension level to a content comprehension level is a logical reader's development.

There are two different views of reading, which influence teaching the skill, – **product view** and **process view**. In a **product view** of reading, reader's role is

passive; all the work has been done by writer and reader has only to open his / her mind and let the meaning pour in. On the other hand, reading is viewed as **an interactive process** – as conversation is – because both reader and writer depend on one another (Ch. Nuttal). Texts do not "contain" meaning; rather they "have potential for" meaning. This potential is realized only in the interaction between the text and the reader. The interaction between reader and writer (see table 48 App.4) will be fruitful if both of them share the same language, a common/similar command of it and certain assumptions about the world. The problems in understanding of a written text arise when there is a mismatch between the presuppositions of writer and those of reader.

Points for discussion

- Product and process view of reading.
- Levels of understanding a written text (an import comprehension level; a content comprehension level).
- What makes a text difficult for learners? The areas of shared assumptions between reader and writer: the same code; background knowledge; vocabulary; grammar.

Self-Check

- 1. According to its role in the process of communication reading is:
- a) reactive skill;
- b) receptive skill;
- c) initiative skill;
- d) productive skill.

2. Match the notions with their definitions:

1. SKIMMING	a) reading quickly to find specific information from the text;
2. ACCURACY	
	b) reading quickly for the main ideas of a text;
3. SCANNING	
	c) the ability to produce grammatically correct
4. FLUENCY	language;
	d) the ability to focus on communication
	of the message rather than on grammatical
	correctness.

- 3. Which of these are stages of reading development?
- a) presentation;
- b) imitation;
- c) production;
- d) familiarization;
- e) expansion.
- 4. Peculiarity of process view on reading is:
- a) reader's role is passive;
- b) text is a self-contained object;
- c) reader's role is reactive.

5. Name a least four positions which make the text difficult for readers.

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Useful terms

Extensive reading: Reading a long text, such as a book, or reading a variety of texts, generally for pleasure, for overall understanding and not for detailed understanding.

Gist: The main idea or message of a text, either spoken or written.

Global questions: Comprehension questions requiring general understanding of the passage as a whole.

Intensive reading: Careful reading to obtain detailed understanding of a text (contrast with *extensive reading*).

Jigsaw reading: An activity which involves the splitting of a text into different parts or the use of different texts on the same topic. The parts are given to different learners to read. They must communicate with each other in order to find out the whole message or different views of the topic.

Jumbled paragraphs: An activity in which the paragraphs in a text are mixed up and learners must put them in the right order. This can also be done with sentences.

Rapid reading: Techniques used to teach people to read more quickly and to achieve a greater degree of understanding of what they read (also called *speed reading*).

Reading method: A method (approach) in which reading comprehension is the main objective; the comprehension is thought through translation and grammatical analysis; spoken language is used to reinforce reading (also called *reading approach*).

Scanning: Reading quickly to find specific information from a text.

Skimming: Reading quickly for the main ideas of a text.

Speed reading: See: rapid reading.

SQ3R technique: An acronym for Survey-Question-Read-Recite-Review, a reading strategy often recommended for students who are reading for study purposes.

Reports proposed on the theme:

- Reading as communication process.
- Reading as a means of grammar and vocabulary acquisition.
- Successful reading techniques in language teaching.

Further reading

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4.4. Writing

Writing is one of the powerful modes of communication. It is a complex process that allows writers to explore thoughts and ideas, and make them visible and concrete. As E. Olshtain states, writing encourages thinking and learning for it motivates communication and makes thought available for reflection. When thought is written down, ideas can be *examined*, *reconsidered*, *added to*, *rearranged*, and *changed*. Successful written communication is extremely important in the modern world (see table 50 App.4) as interaction takes the form of not only traditional paperand-pencil writing but also the most advanced electronic mail.

Features

According to its role in the process of communication writing is **initiative** (+speaking), not **reactive** (as reading and listening).

Writing is a **productive skill**, a developed or acquired ability to produce and reproduce some information in written form.

The **product** of writing is *a written text*; the **result** is the ability to produce a written text; the **subject** of writing is someone's thought expressed in written form.

B1 Threshold Level (the level of school leavers) in writing is categorized by two features. The first feature is the ability to maintain interaction, getting across the information in a range of contexts. The second is the ability to produce a range of texts on familiar matters. A student must possess such a vocabulary, grammar, spelling competence to express himself/herself appropriately both in official documents (such as questionnaires, blanks, forms and announcements), and in everyday writing (such as congratulatory forms, reports, informal letters). Besides, learner must avoid ambiguity und vagueness in his/her writing, delivering the message and his/her opinion efficiently almost on any topic.

Though the nature of writing as a skill used to be underestimated in language teaching, the written aspect of a foreign language has gained more significance nowadays. Traditionally, writing was viewed mainly as a means of teaching grammar or sentence structure, an effective tool for practising language patterns, "a fairly one-dimensional activity" (Ch. Tribble). Nowadays we realize the importance of writing in human interaction, and the first reason why writing is included in a foreign-language syllabus is that people frequently have to communicate with each other in a written form in real-life situations. T. Hedge differentiates six types of every-day writing, important in real life intercourse:

personal writing (diaries, journals, shopping lists, recipes, etc.),

public writing (letters of enquire/complaint/request, form-filling, etc.), *creative writing* (stories, poems, autobiography, etc.), *social writing* (letters, invitations, notes, instructions, etc.), *study writing* (reviews, reports, essays, taking notes from lectures, etc), *institutional writing* (contracts, posters, specifications, etc.).

Writing, together with reading, is both a *useful mechanical skill* and *a learning strategy* on the one hand, and *a means of communication* on the other. While writing with an effort to express some ideas, the constant use of eye, hand and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning (see table 49, App. 4).

At the same time the view of writing as purely 'writing to learn' reflects the principle of Audoilingual theory, where writing is seen as a written form of spoken language, the basis for oral fluency, not as a means of communication in itself. Thus skill-using activities aimed at 'learning to write' are neglected by this approach. Instead learners are proposed to produce correct texts or "products" in which accuracy is all-important. This approach to writing is known as product approach. The limitations of product approach are on its concentration on the result rather than on the process of writing. By focusing on form and structure product approach at the same time neglects the process of composing this form and structure (see table 52, App. 4). Modern researchers stress the shift from language-focused writing activities to learner-centered tasks which help to create the atmosphere of communication in the language classroom. Writing is viewed as an interactive language process where learners are guided and taught how to write rather than what to write. This process approach focuses on discourse-level activities rather than sentence-level ones. Tasks for process approach include story writing, cooperative writing, or peer correction of subsequent drafts. Different researches show that writing as a process includes the following activities:

- setting the goal for the written communication;
- assessing the reader;
- gathering information and generating ideas;
- organizing writing a draft;

• revising, editing and proofreading.

Nowadays the distinction between these two approaches seems to be less clear and teaching writing combines both approaches, with slight emphasis on product writing as far as beginner learners are concerned (see table 51, App. 4). It is possible, then, to teach writing in classroom using different approaches and a variety of activities. Moreover, the attention should be given both to *the linguistic-accuracy level* and to *the message-transmission level*. It is the combination of content and organization with accepted formal features that will lead learners to better utilization of the writing skill in their future use of English.

Points for discussion:

- Contrasting and comparing oral and written speech.
- Development of writing skills from copying to free writing. Stages in writing acquisition.
- Clear and effective written communication of ideas. Variety of exercises and activities.
- Writing as interactive language process.

Self-Check

1. Which of the following deal with writing habit formation?

a) mechanics of writing;	d) writing essays;
b) creative writing;	e) filling in gaps;
c) spelling;	f) word-building.

2. Skill-using writing activities are those which help the learner be aware of how:

- a) to communicate with the reader;
- b) to practice some grammar structures;
- c) to express ideas without the pressure of face-to-face communication;
- d) to fill in gaps.

3. Process-focused approach to teaching writing is characterized by:

- a) whole class work;
- b) pair and group work;
- c) ideas coming from learners;
- d) uniform content.
- 4. Writing is...
- a) spontaneous, "moves on in real time";
- b) specially instructed;
- c) characterized by permanence;
- d) follows certain conventions and applies careful organization;

e) naturally acquired.

5. Which of these approaches refer to teaching writing?

- a) the Controlled-to-Free approach;
- b) the Grammar-Translation approach;
- c) the Free-Writing approach;
- d) the Paragraph-Pattern approach.

Useful terms

Coherence: The relationship which link the meanings of utterances in a discourse or of the sentences in a text. These links may be based on the interlocutors' shared knowledge.

Cohesion: The grammatical and/or lexical relationship between different elements of a text. This may be the relationship between different sentences or between different parts of a sentence.

Discourse: Connected speech or writing that extends beyond a single sentence or utterance.

Process approach: Moves away from a concentration on the written product to an emphasis on the process of writing.

Product approach: An approach which focuses on producing different kinds of written products and which emphasizes imitation of different kinds of model paragraphs or essays (also called *prose model approach*).

Strategy: Procedures used in learning, thinking, etc. which serve as a way of reaching a goal.

The Controlled-to-Free Approach: Learners work on given material and perform strictly prescribed operations on it. The approach emphasizes *accuracy* rather than *fluency* or originality.

The Free-Writing Approach: Stresses quantity of writing rather than quality. The emphasis is that intermediate-level students should put *content* and *fluency* first and not worry about *form*.

The Paragraph-Pattern Approach: Instead of accuracy of grammar or fluency of content, it *stresses organization* (copying, analyzing the form and imitating model paragraphs, putting scrambled sentences into paragraph order).

The Communicative Approach: Stresses *the purpose of a piece of writing and the audience for it*, extending the readership. *Interaction*_through the written message is the goal: what is written should be a purposeful communication on the practical or imaginative level, expressed in such a way that it is comprehensible to another person.

The Grammar-Syntax Organization Approach: Links *the purpose* of a piece of writing *to the forms* that are needed to convey the message.

Reports proposed on the theme:

- Different approaches to teaching writing.
- Peculiarities of writing as the means of communication.
- Cooperative techniques in teaching writing.
- Process-oriented approach to teaching writing.

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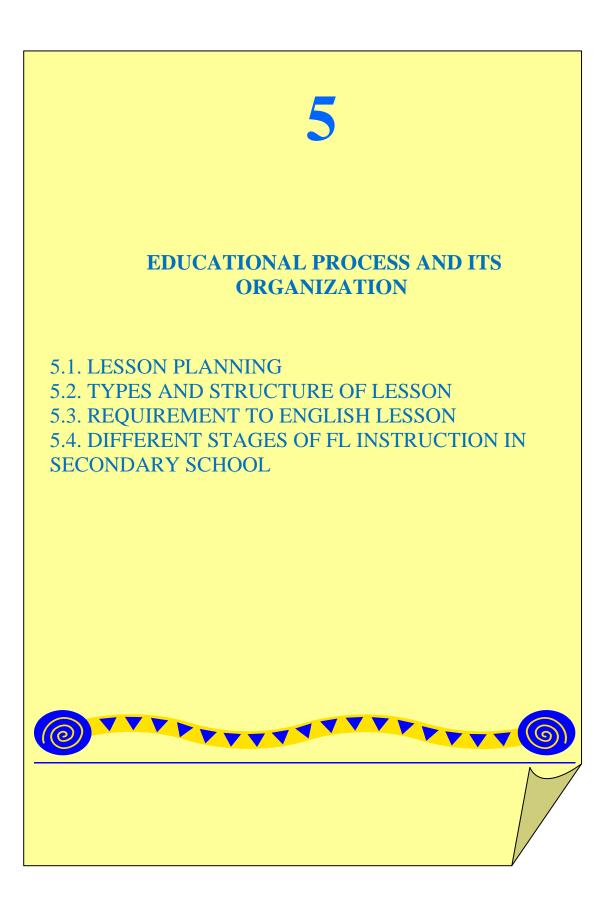
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5. EDUCATIONAL PROCESS AND ITS ORGANIZATION

Lesson is a basic unit of organized educational process based on conscious and purposeful teacher-student interaction. Modes and character of this interaction are of great importance. Depending on what we choose – *passive learning* and memorizing a stock of knowledge with further correct reproduction of the material proposed; or *active participation of learners* in the process of study, their cooperative efforts and fruitful interaction – the lesson will be shifted from *teacher-domination* to *learner-centeredness*.

The current tendency is the orientation on the student who should be in the centre of the educational process. Thus, what is taught is defined by student needs. Lesson should be carefully planned and prepared, meet the updated requirements and be well-structured in order to serve a fruitful model of instruction beneficial for students.

5.1. Lesson planning

An efficient working level of teaching is ensured by systematic and careful planning. A lot is going to happen on the spot in the class, sometimes it is difficult to completely predict how learners will respond to anything, but the better prepared teacher is, the better they are ready to cope with whatever happens. There is a good teachers' slogan: *Those who fail to prepare, prepare to fail.*

The main aim of lesson planning is scientifically tested organization of the educational process and achievement of successful acquisition of the language in question. At the beginning of the course teacher should predict how to organise the whole process and be aware of the results, which have to be achieved at the end of it.

Foreign language teacher needs two (even three) kinds of plans to work successfully:

- The academic year plan (a project based on English School Program and curriculum. It contains topics, language material to study, learning objectives to observe, types of learner assessment and evaluation).
- The plan of a series of class-periods for a unit of the textbook or a unit plan.
- And the daily plan or the lesson plan for a particular class-period.

A unit plan is not compulsory for our school authorities, it is never checked, but it is convenient for teachers to be at hand. *The academic year plan* is a real working document for the whole year of study (or the course of study) as it highlights the main steps of teaching for a long period ahead and is designed in correlation with the Program. Teacher can use a ready-made academic year plan worked out by material writers in accordance with the programme of study and appropriate course books. However, writing of such an academic year plan is very often the responsibility of teacher. Though the structure of the academic year plan is not fixed, it is rather flexible and depends on: the demands of the school/educational authorities; traditions of the school; convenience of teacher, their own understanding of how to plan their work; students' age and their level of knowledge; materials used. Sample structure of the academic year plan should include:

- Number of lesson;
- Topic/subtopic of lesson;
- Language work (grammar structures, pronunciation patterns, lexical material);
- Objectives concerning skills development;
- Homework.

The daily plan (see samples in App.3) often contains two parts:

1) an outline of the procedure of the lesson (i.e. the description of the activities, their order and predicted timing);

2) background information (i.e. aims/objectives for the lesson, target language, materials used, predicted problems, etc.).

Different scholars and teacher trainers (R. Gower, D. Phillips, S. Walters, J. Scrivener) suggest keeping lesson plan simple and easy to read, with clearly numbered sections and underlined or coloured important elements to draw attention to. Prose descriptions should be cut out, there is no need to script the whole lesson. However, some moments should be written down precisely: a model sentence, or a set of complicated instructions, or some questions to check students' understanding of a given text or a language point.

What should be included in a lesson plan? What are there some general areas to consider when planning?

1. Learners. It is necessary to take into account their interests, motivation to learn, age, attitudes, abilities. Will they enjoy doing the lesson? Will they benefit from it? 2. Aims and objectives (see table 54, App. 4). Teacher starts by stating the aim/aims or objectives of each class-period. The main aim / objective should be detailed, it might include specific sub-skills, which specific language learners have to understand and /or use, specific skills to develop. Learners coming to the lesson should know what they are to do during the lesson, what performance, level is required of them, and how it can be achieved.

The lesson objectives should be stated as precisely as possible (see the examples App. 2). Often there is **a main aim/objective** and perhaps a number of **subsidiary aims/objectives.** For example, in a lesson in which skills are integrated or when a listening or reading text is used to introduce a language item, it is important that teacher and students recognize the main aim of the lesson and of each stage. The major portion of time in the lesson should be allocated to the main objective. Subsidiary aims/objectives may have a large role in the lesson but not overlap the main objective.

E.g., the main aim might be as follows: Learners will be better able to cope with authentic news broadcasts by practising listening skills of (x, y, z).

One of subsidiary aims: Learners develop their discussion skills.

The examples of lesson aims and objective done below are not relevant as they are too abstract to be clear to learners and too wide to be gained for one class-period:

e.g.: To help students to speak English better. To teach learners to listen. To develop learners proficiency in reading.

The long-term aims of the course help teacher to ensure that every particular lesson is pulling in the right direction and is another step towards gaining the ultimate goals of the course.

3. The teacher point/personal aims or objectives. For any particular lesson, in addition to the learning aims for the learners, the teacher may set a personal aim to pay particular attention to some aspects of teaching.

E.g.: To talk less myself and involve the students more.

To make my instructions clearer.

To involve computer software presenting new structures.

4. **Procedure.** This is the part of lesson plan which lays out the stages of lesson to ensure that the aim(s) is achieved. Teacher should indicate the plan

what will be done at each stage and *why* (the stage aim); approximate *time*; *materials* used; perhaps details of any *complex instructions* the teacher is going to give or *questions* he/she plans to ask. In order to do this teacher has to order the *stages* and the *approach(es)*, *activities*, and *materials* that will be used at each stage.

5. Activities. For each stage teacher has to think what methods and techniques to use and what activities students will do to achieve the aims/objectives of the lesson. While planning activities and tasks for learners, teacher has to answer the questions like: *How to present or revise a language item: through a problem-solving activity, through a visual or oral context (dialogue, pictures, etc.), or through a text?*

How to develop skills?

What do students need before they can listen, read, write or speak?

How to follow up the skills work?

How to check students' understanding?

What type of practise activities to set up: speaking, pair work, and/or writing? Teacher should think over a *balance and a variety of activities* and materials. The activities should be arranged in such a way that an easy activity must be followed by a more difficult one; a very active one with a quieter one, etc. The activities should be ordered logically – from more controlled to freer ones. Teacher should think over the character of activity proposed and his/her own role in managing it. Each lesson stage after some set of activities should be supported by an appropriate **feedback** which is got and given for the purpose of mutual understanding.

Some researchers (R. Gower, D. Phillips, S. Walters,) stress on functional value of lesson plan (see table 53, App. 4), which can serve as an *aid to planning*, a *working document*, a *record*. It is a convenient aid which helps teacher think logically through the stages in relation to the time available. It is a working document, useful to refer to in the lesson which helps keep teacher on target. Suitably amended after the lesson, a lesson plan acts as a record of what the class has done and might form the basis for a future lesson plan with a similar class.

Points for discussion

- Necessity for planning and functions of lesson plan.
- Important items to include in lesson plan.
- Detailed formal lesson plan.

Self – Check

- 1. Tick the items the academic year plan depends on:
- a) the demands of the school/educational authorities;

b) traditions of the school; convenience of teacher, their own understanding of how to plan their work;

- c) students' age and their level of knowledge;
- d) materials used;
- e) all mentioned above.
- 2. Pick the most successful objectives of lesson:
- a) to help students to speak English better;

b) to prepare learners for a group work by listening to the text "Exotic Shopping in Paris";

c) to develop learners' proficiency in reading;

d) to present and practise "Why don't you?.." for giving advice.

3. Name the functions of lesson plan you know.

4. Tick elements and features of an effective lesson plan:

- a) information about learners;
- b) aims and objectives including personal teacher aims;
- c) procedure (stages of the lesson);
- d) activities and tasks logically ordered;
- e) materials and equipment;
- f) classroom management;
- g) all mentioned above.

5. What is defined here:

Part of a lesson plan which lays out the steps /the stages in the lesson to ensure that the aim/objective is achieved.

Useful terms

Activity: The smallest unit of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language.

Aim: A long-term goal to achieve during a set of lessons.

Anticipated problems: a desirable part of a lesson plan where teacher could predict some problems in terms of language or classroom management that could occur during any of the activities and any strategies teacher has considered for dealing with.

Goals: Vague general intentions behind any given learning task.

Feedback: Information that is given to learners by their teacher on their

spoken or written performance. It can also refer to learners reporting back to the class on what they have been researching or discussing.

Objective: steps to achieve aim; main objectives best formulated in terms of learner performance objectives or learning outcomes (rather than teaching objectives) *e.g.* by the end of the lesson, learners will be able to...will be (more) aware of...will have (further) developed their ability to...will have revised...

Procedure: Part of a lesson plan which lays out the steps /the stages in the lesson to ensure that the aim/objective is achieved.

Layout of lesson: The way in which a lesson is arranged.

Staging a lesson: Organizing different parts of a lesson so that they follow on logically and smoothly to make an effective whole (S. Walters).

Reports proposed on the theme

- Main principles of good lesson planning.
- Variety of warmers and ice-breakers at the beginning of a lesson.
- Typical structure of a lesson plan.

Further reading

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5.2. Types and structure of lesson

In the history of pedagogy lesson system is the earliest system of instruction organization. S.V. Gaponova admits that a strict structure of lesson, compactness of its procedure and relatively easy management are those positive sides which have deserved the popularity of lesson-typed instruction for centuries (see table 56 App.4).

At the same time the advantages of the educational phenomenon give birth to its disadvantages. A traditional well-structured procedure with its conservatism and fossilization of some traditional stages of lesson organization makes it hardly possible *to keep in touch with the real world and outclassroom practice*. Moreover, a traditional lesson *does not take into consideration an individual personality of each learner*. Though being criticized a lot, lesson-typed instruction has been in operation for centuries all over the world. And nothing better has ever been proposed yet. That is why the attempts should be made in the direction of its flexibility, being in tune with learners' needs and challenges of time.

Traditionally, **lesson** is thought to be *a unit of teaching knowledge, forming habits, developing skills and controlling results*. Actually, it is a view from teacher's point. Teacher plans what to do with learners, how to convey some knowledge and organize language and speech practice. Teacher is responsible for the whole lesson and mainly dominates in it. Sometimes the domination deprives learners from being active participants in the language classroom and we deal with the **passive model of teaching,** which gives no possibility for learner's free choice, treating learner as an object of educational process. At the same time, the traditional lesson organization used creatively can give learners an opportunity to be active participants in the educational process. Thus, the **active model of teaching** where learner is viewed as a subject of the teaching process can be in operation within the traditional lesson procedure as well (see table 55, App. 4).

During the *passive model* of knowledge acquisition and lesson organization learner is viewed as the **object** of teaching who has to soak knowledge like a sponge from the only true source – teacher/book. Learner's role is memorizing a big quantity of teaching material and reproducing it without mistakes. The classrooms based on the model of teaching are authoritarian and *teacher-dominated* (see chapter 1.2.).

Active model of instruction and lesson organization views learner as the subject of teaching, whose cognitive activity is stimulated and development of creative thinking is taken into account. Involving students into the educational process, encouraging their active participation and creative contribution are in the center of attention. The classrooms based on active model of teaching are more democratic and humanistic and less teacher-dominated.

Ukrainian scientists O. Pometun and L. Pyrozhenko add to the classification **interactive model** of instruction. This model broadens and deepens the best qualities of the previous *active* one and is understood as *cooperative learning*, as fruitful collaboration of students with each other and teacher with students, which is beneficial for both sides. The attention is shifted to learner and their needs and makes the educational process/lesson itself *learner-centered* or *student-oriented*.

Thus, the model of teaching greatly influences lesson and its organization. We can distinguish two conceptual approaches to lesson and its role in the educational process.

Traditionally lesson is viewed as a unit of teaching knowledge, forming skills and habits, and controlling results. According to this traditional organizational framework **three big lesson types** can be distinguished (see table 59, App. 4). *The first type aims at habit formation*, where some new language material is introduced, presented and trained. For example, new vocabulary presentation lessons where lexical (receptive/productive) habit formation is in focus; new grammar presentation lessons where grammatical (receptive/productive) habit formation is in focus.

The second type aims at skills development where speech practice prevails. For example, lessons of speaking and listening development; speaking and reading; reading and writing; integrated lessons and so on.

The third type is a mixed type of lesson, which is very usual in ELT. These lessons contain both habit formation and skills development activities. They aim at practicing language and speech skills.

However, new tendencies in instruction organization have proved the effectiveness of the model of teaching which deepens the best sides of the model mentioned above and is known as **interactive** one. *Interaction* is understood, according to Douglas H. Brown, as the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings or ideas between two or more people resulting in reciprocal effect on each other. Cooperative character of this kind of teaching is evident, which in its turn seems the most effective in acquisition of communicative competence nowadays. We are sure that interactive teaching needs special lesson organization where communication is a must to meet the innovative character of the model of teaching. Thus, a modern concept of lesson, which draws teacher's attention to learners, to their fruitful interaction, can best serve the purpose of interactive model of teaching and effective acquisition of communicative competence. The concept views lesson as *a unit of organized cognitive activity of learners* and subscribes to the ideas of learner-based teaching.

The lesson type within the view depends on what components of communicative competence are chosen as the objective: linguistic, pragmatic, cognitive or informative. A mixed type of lesson is a balanced teaching unit, in which all components of teaching communicative competence are present. Linguistic component depends on linguistic exercises. Their aim is to create in learners the idea of the language and the semi-skills of language use. The formation of the pragmatic (practical) component of the communicative competence depends on the interactive exercises in using speech functions. Elementary role play is an example. Cognitive component of the communicative competence is formed with the help of the cognitive (thought-activating) exercises like interpreting, sequencing, choosing, classifying, identifying, imagining, digesting, critical thinking, deducing. summarizing, and others.

Information exercises create background knowledge and include case-studying, project-writing, surveying, etc.

The main components of lesson structure are three subdivisions of it (see table 57, App. 4).

I. Introductory part of lesson. Warmer / warming-up activity. (see table 60, App. 4) As a rule, the beginning of lesson or its introductory part aims at involving learners in the language study, motivating them to participate effectively. It is natural, that innovative label of the part is "lead-in". Warmer establishes and maintains a foreign language atmosphere at the beginning of lesson which, first of all, should be positive and promote a good working relationship within the class. Establishing rapport, positive classroom environment will stimulate effective learning being one of the motivational factors of lesson. At the beginning of the lesson warmer serves as a push to start a target language communication. It is also a successful technique in pre-teaching some difficult new items (e.g. vocabulary or grammar points), or revising them.

II. The main body of lesson.

The main part of lesson aims at organization of learning. S. V. Gaponova characterizes this part as consisting of some **changeable** and **stable** components (see table 58 App.4). For example, presentation of new material, training habits, developing skills, speech practice, revision of what have been learned, assessment and evaluation, testing. Speech practice, together with assessment and evaluation, is a permanent constituent of every English lesson, the rest of the components may vary. The innovative label for the main part of lesson is **main activity** (see chapter 2.4.). Lesson itself is viewed as a set of activities.

III. The final part of lesson.

Giving homework. Round off.

These main structural components include certain stages. Each lesson stage has its own objective. Examples of presentation stage objectives from student's side and from teacher's side are given below:

- By the end of the lesson learners should be able to recognize, understand and operate the grammar: the Past Simple;- students' side
- To familiarize learners with more ways of expressing negation (surprise, etc.).
 teacher's side

Each English lesson aims at speech practice and language use; learners' contribution into the lesson is assessed either formally or informally as learners are given appropriate feedback after their performance.

Points for discussion

- Classroom interaction. Potential problems.
- Structural peculiarities of English lesson.
- Successful beginning of communicative lesson.

Self – Check

- 1. Tick positive sides of lesson:
- a) keeping in touch with the real world and outclassroom practice;
- b) easy management;
- c) taking into consideration an individual personality of each learner;
- c) well-structured and clear procedure.

2. Modern pedagogy differentiates three main types of lesson organization and models of teaching, name them:

- a)_____;
- b) _____;
- c)_____.

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- 3. Write down the main items of lesson structure in ELT:
- a) _____;
- b) _____;
- c) _____.

4. Choose interactive/cooperative forms of classroom organization from the list:

- a) work in chain;
- b) whole class interaction (mingle activity);
- c) individual students' replies;
- d) choir work Cl Cl; P Cl;

e) simultaneous autonomous fulfillment of some tasks in listening, reading, writing, and also speaking in the mode of "Pupil-announcer";

f) group work.

5. Fill in the gaps in the chart concerning the main part of lesson which consists of some changeable and stable components:

CHANGEABLE	STABLE
a)	a)
b) training habits	b)
c)	
d)	

Useful terms

Active model of teaching: Promotes active learners' participation in the language classroom where learner is viewed as the subject of the teaching process.

Cooperative learning: Type of teaching when learners acquire language working in teams/groups interacting with each other.

Changeable stages of lesson: The stages of lesson that may vary or change as not every lesson aims at presentation of new material, training habits, revision of what have been learned, or testing.

Stable stages of lesson: The stages of lesson that do not change as each English lesson aims at speech practice, assessment and evaluation.

Integrated skills: All or some of the language skills together (listening, speaking, reading and writing). Integrated skills activities bring together different language skills (e.g. learners discuss a reading passage, thus listening, speaking and reading).

Interaction: The collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings or ideas between two or more people resulting in reciprocal effect on each other.

Interactive model of instruction: Promotes *cooperative learning*, fruitful collaboration of students aimed at achieving common goals.

Lead-in: The introductory stage of lesson where learners warm-up.

Lesson: A unit of teaching knowledge, forming habits, developing skills and controlling results (traditional definition). A unit of organized cognitive activity of learners (definition based on the ideas of learner-based teaching).

Main activity: The main part of lesson which is viewed as a set of activities.

Motivation: The factors that determine a person's desire to learn.

Needs analysis: The process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities (also called *need assessment*).

Object of teaching: A learner who has to soak knowledge like a sponge from the only true source – teacher/book. Learner's role is memorizing a considerable amount of material proposed.

Observation: Gathering information by watching a class in order to describe what is happening.

Passive model of teaching: Promotes teacher domination in the classroom setting where learner is viewed as the *object* of teaching.

Warmer/warming-up activity: Introductory part of lesson aimed at involving learners into the atmosphere of the target language communication and creating a positive attitude to English study.

Reports proposed on the theme

- Advantages and disadvantages of lesson-typed instruction.
- A modern concept of lesson.
- Variety of introduction stages of lesson.

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5.3. Requirements to English lesson

The English lesson should be oriented more on training and practice some language phenomena and speech skills than on giving linguistic knowledge. Therefore, the first requirement to the English lesson is – to be communicatively-

oriented (see table 61, App. 4). All classroom *activities* should be clearly related to something the learners will need to do with English in their real world and reflect actual communication – that is, they have the following characteristics:

- Definite purpose for beginning the communication;
- Desire to communicate;
- Information gap which creates the desire and gives the purpose; (one person in the exchange knows something the other(s) do not)
- Choice what to say and how to do it;
- Feedback when learners evaluate communication according to how well the aims of the communication have been accomplished.

The next very important requirement claims the English lesson should have a complex, over-all skill-integrated character. Some approaches to language teaching (see chapter 1.5.) talk in terms of four separate skills – *listening*, *speaking*, *reading*, or writing. Skills lessons are principally designed to improve one single skill and often supplement grammar teaching. Communicative approach talks in terms of integrated skills. This peculiarity of a communicatively-oriented lesson depends on the nature of speech activity - in a real communication process all kinds of speech skills are integrated. With the exception of reading or listening for pleasure, it is rare for anyone to use one skill in isolation for any length of time. If you are *talking* to someone you will be both *observing* their reactions and *listening* for their responses; as you will listen to them, you will be composing what you want to say next. Writing usually involves reading, checking and often revising what you have written. Skills are integrated and sequenced in a real life so they should be integrated in the classroom. Most teachers today are aware of the benefits to be derived from using the four skills as a means of presenting, practicing and extending one and the same set of language forms and functions. Skills integration gives natural recycling of the language and topics taught, and most frequent combination of skills should be taken advantage of in the language classroom.

The third requirement to the English lesson is the view on **a foreign language** as both **an aim and a means of teaching**. Generally, language serves as a supporter,

a helper, and a mediator of the educational process. However, in case of language teaching the practical aim is to make students be aware of using language in different real-life situations and acquire some level of *communicative competence*. Thus, the target language should be taught by means of the target language. Teacher in the classroom is (and must be) a very valuable source of language, an effective language professional who uses language as a tool to communicate messages in authentic/semi authentic situations.

The classroom situation is a genuine social environment, which allows the meaningful situational use of the target language, and its communicative potential is closer to real interaction than is often assumed. Much of the language put into the mouths of learners in the name of practice may well have little direct application outside the classroom, but many classroom management phrases can be transferred to 'normal' social situations:

e.g., Could you open the window? Will you go and fetch a piece of chalk? Sorry, what did you say? I didn't catch it.

There are at least *two reasons* why teacher should try to avoid using the students' mother tongue in the classroom. First of all, because **the role of teacher talk** is *to provide natural communication in the classroom*. There is nothing artificial about a situation that involves teacher praising a student or asking another to try again. By managing the class deliberately and flexibly in the target language, teacher takes an important step forward removing the barriers between controlled, and often meaningless interactional language use.

Secondly, because *teacher talk serves as a model for learners*, an example to follow. So, teacher should mind his / her language, choose it carefully, and adapt the way they speak, thinking about the speed of delivery. Teacher's vocabulary and use of structures should be adapted to the level of the students. Although *teacher talk* is so important in the language classroom, teacher should mind the balance between their

talking time (*TTT – teacher talking time*) and that of students' (*STT – student talking time*):

TTT 10 %: STT 90 %

The balance depends on the type of lesson and activities involved, and on the level of students. But still – lesson is for students to speak and practice, not for teacher to demonstrate their competence. Bearing in mind the balance, teacher should create a lesson where the target language is a real means of teaching.

In addition, one of the most distinctive features of a present-day English lesson is its **learner-centeredness.** Learner-based teaching focuses on encouraging learners to express their ideas freely, and teacher's job is to give students appropriate language means for their self-expression. This rout to fluency is more direct than teacher imposing irrelevant topics in the hope that some day learners will be able to say what they really want to. In learner-based teaching the teaching and the learning are taking place on both sides. Learners with their ideas, opinions, experiences, and areas of expertise should be the centre of attention in the language classroom.

The next requirement to the English lesson is its **variety**. Variety is a good feature of all good teaching and teaching materials. It keeps learners' minds active and holds their interest. Monotony of lesson leads to demotivating students. If new language is always introduced in the same way (e.g. in a dialogue), then the introduction stages of the class will become gradually less and less challenging. If reading activities always concentrate on extracting specific information and never ask students to do anything else, reading will become less interesting. The same is true of any activity that is constantly repeated. The English lesson should provide variety in different aspects:

- Variety of activities and tasks proposed;
- Variety of modes of interaction;
- Variety of materials used;
- Variety of text types and exercise types;
- Variety of topics discussed, etc.

Teacher's aim is to provide a variety of different learning *activities* and *tasks* (see chapter 2.4.) which will help individual students to get grips with the language. Different modes of interaction used in the language classroom may vary from *plenary mode* (T - Cl or teacher – class), to *pair work* (St1 - St2 or student 1 – student2) and *group work* (see chapter 6.3.) *Individual forms* of work can be used in shift with *cooperative/collaborative interaction* (see table 61 App. 4). *Open pairs* can be shifted with *closed* and *mingled pairs*. The change is refreshing to learners and teacher and leads to renew learners' enjoyment, attention, to keep their interest and promote motivation.

Thus, a **motivational character** of the English lesson is last but not least item in successful teaching. Positive motivation is the key to success. Factors that promote high motivation of the English lesson are as follows:

- materials used;
- activities, tasks and techniques proposed;
- giving students a clear sense of achievement;
- creating a relaxed, supportive atmosphere and rapport.

Teaching **materials** should be challenging, tuned with learners' interests, colourful and attractive, characterized by variety of exercise types, texts and topics. Materials, especially coursebooks, should serve to enjoy learners. "*Fun is not an added extra, it is the lifeblood of effective learning*", says Tom Hutchinson, one of the most successful material writers for teenagers. A good coursebook *gives* learners extensive practice of all four skills; *stimulates* their interests by getting them to talk and write about their life and to relate the target language to their own experiences and aspirations. *Clarity* of organization, *creativity* of highly original tasks, *and flexibility* of the course tailored to the needs of learners serve as a good *motivational characteristic* to materials used.

Secondly, **activities, tasks** *and* **techniques** are also a good source to increase students' motivation to learn English. Sometimes a foreign language seems a remote and unreal thing for learners as they do not see the language as relevant to their own lives. It produces a negative effect on motivation. Therefore, thoroughly chosen,

useful and challenging *activities*, interesting *tasks* and encouraging *techniques* can help to bridge this relevance gap and make learners highly motivated.

One more effective factor of increasing learners' motivation is giving them a **clear sense of achievement.** Nothing can be more frustrating to be given a task which learner cannot do because they don't have necessary language knowledge. Well-organized and structured lesson, full of carefully graded activities help learners to feel comfort and confidence in fulfilling the tasks having enough of the language needed for it. This confidence and a sense of coping with the task, a sense of achievement can motivate students' learning and create a positive attitude to the lesson.

An effective motivational factor of the English lesson is creating **a relaxed**, **supportive atmosphere**, **a classroom psychological environment** which stimulates facilitative relationship and **rapport** between teacher and students. Different kinds of activities, language games, songs, jokes, puzzles, movement games can be of help in maintaining a favourable classroom atmosphere which can increase students' motivation and interest to language learning.

In conclusion, a successful English lesson should meet the requirements of humanistic teaching, where learner is the subject, not the object of teaching whose needs and interests are taken into account, whose ideas are respected and whose individual personality is cherished.

Points for discussion

- Variety of activities and tasks proposed in the English lesson.
- Motivational factors of successful lesson.
- Creating a relaxed, supportive atmosphere in the language classroom.

Self - Check

- 1. Which of the characteristic does not reflect actual communication:
- a) Definite purpose for beginning the communication;

b) Desire to communicate;

c) Information gap;

d) translation exercises.

2. The role of teacher talk in the language classroom is _____

3. What term is defined here: Information that is given to learners by their teacher on their spoken or written performance. It can also refer to learners reporting back to the class on what they have been researching or discussing.

4. Look at the sequence of tasks for intermediate learners and decide what requirement to the English lesson is exploited here:

Read the text "What kinds of things annoy you?" Write down examples of people and things that annoy you; Go round the class and ask people: "What annoys you?"; Make a list of the things that annoy people in your class.

5. Tick the motivational factors of successful lesson:

a) materials used;

- b) activities, tasks and techniques;
- c) giving students a clear sense of achievement;
- d) creating a relaxed, supportive atmosphere and rapport.

e) all of the above.

Useful terms

Communicatively-oriented English lesson: A lesson where all classroom *activities* should be clearly related to something the learners will need to do with English in their real world and reflect actual communication.

Individual forms: Forms of classroom activities which need individual learner's involvement.

Closed pair work: In closed pair work students talk privately in twos, with all the students in the class working simultaneously.

Cooperative / collaborative interaction is a two-way process in which learning takes place as students interact with each other and teacher and students actively work together.

Learner-based teaching: Aimed at narrowing a traditional gap between teacher and student. Experience, knowledge and expertise of individual learners are respected, their cognitive activity is stimulated and development of creative thinking, learners' needs and interests are taken into account. The concept is supported by the proponents of Communicative language teaching.

Mingle activity: A classroom activity when students move around, speaking in pairs or groups which are constantly being formed or reformed, often in a random fashion, as at a party.

Open pair work: In open pair work two students exchange language across the classroom with the other students listening.

Plenary mode of interaction: One-way mode of interaction (T –Cl) in which teacher gives the instruction and students receive it.

Skill-integrated character of lesson: Promotes presenting and practicing the target language using all four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in their integration.

STT: Student talking time.

TTT: Teacher talking time.

Reports proposed on the theme

- Didactical and methodological requirements to the English lesson.
- Different modes of interaction used in the English lesson and its role in classroom organization.
- Principles of choosing appropriate materials for effective teaching.

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5.4. Different stages of FL instruction in secondary school

There are four stages that can be distinguished in teaching foreign languages: **Pre-school period** (kindergarten)

Primary school or early-school period (learners in the 1-3; 2-4 years of study).

Junior stage (learners in the 5-9 years of study).

Senior stage (learners in the 10-12 years of study).

Traditionally foreign language was taught from **junior** to **senior** stage – the period of secondary school study. But nowadays we can observe steadily growing interest in teaching English to younger learners in **pre-school** and **early school** periods. The upsurge of interest of primary school and even kindergarten to the language learning is partly in response to the rapidly growing demand for English to be taught at younger ages by parents who want to provide their children with a competitive educational advantage. In our country the interest for teaching young children a foreign language was aroused soon after the first schools with a number of subjects taught in a foreign language were opened in 1950's. Experience has proved that the earlier the children begin to learn a foreign language, the better they master it.

Many psychologists and methodologists consider that the period from higher **pre-school to junior** is the most sensitive and productive in mastering a foreign language. At this age the child's both physical and psychological development is adequate for undergoing instruction in a foreign language, first of all, due to children's ability to *imprint* and *imitate*. Children's ability of *imprinting* and *imitation*, says Antonina Kooklina, are pre-requisites for achieving the best results in teaching them foreign oral speech. Young learners are great mimics, often unselfconscious and are usually ready to enjoy the activities teacher has prepared for them. They are able to memorize quickly and operate with the language they possess on phrase and sentence level. Psychologists have determined that this imprint phenomenon is effective up to the age of 8 years. At the same time practice in foreign language acquisition contributes to a child's general development, stimulates their creativity and human potential.

According to the Primary School Project launched in early 1990th in Ukraine the idea of English as a core subject apart from the mother tongue, mathematics and elements of science in primary school has been advocated. This Project has been implemented into practice and since academic year 2002-2003 all Ukrainian schools have had English as an obligatory subject from a primary stage (the 2 year of study). That was supported by appropriate English Language Programme (see **Further reading**). Teaching young learners is a very specific matter as foreign language is a byproduct of learning activities in primary school rather than a centerpiece. Every age period is characterized by *its own main type of activity*. The natural activity of 5-6year-child is a **game**. It is extremely important in children's intellectual, physical, emotional and social development. Playing is the best motivation for children to work at assimilating language.

At 6-7 years a gradual change of main activity takes place from *playing activity to learning activity*, but still playing retains its leading role. Different educational games, role playing make it easy to maintain a high degree of motivation, make the English class an enjoyable, stimulating experience for children and make even elementary utterances interesting and meaningful enough.

"As children mature, claims Sarah Phillips, they bring more intellectual, motor, and social skills to the classroom, as well as a wider knowledge of the world. All these can be applied to the process of acquiring another language"

The **initial**/ **early-school stage** of foreign language teaching which lasts for 3-4 years (age 5-6 up to 8-9) should lead to the achievement of the basic level of language acquisition - A1 or Breakthrough according to CEF (see table 9 App.4).

Learners on the **junior stage**, which lasts for 3-4 years (age 10 up to 14), are supposed to be *waystage users* of language and will be able to use English in their own or a foreign country for such general purposes as carrying out certain transactions: making arrangements, making purchases, ordering food and drink; giving and obtaining factual information – personal/non-personal; establishing and maintaining contacts with people. To the end of 9 year of study level A2+ has to be achieved.

Peculiar characteristic of teenage life period is their striving for independence and self-determination. This age is very controversial and unexpected. There can be observed an increase of educational interests, ambitiousness and striving for great results in language learning but on the other hand teenagers may reveal lack of desire to study, demotivation and absolute neglecting of learning. Teacher's challenge is to increase learners' motivation, to stimulate their ability to use the target language, designing enjoyable, provocative and appealing activities for teenagers of problemsolving character. Their critical-thinking skills should also be developed.

The **senior stage** involves high school students (age 15-17) who can realize the importance of FL proficiency in their life. They have to achieve *intermediate stage* of language competence (sub-level B1+ or Strong Threshold according to CEF). The increasing role of individualized instruction and purposeful realization of individualized learning are the peculiarities of the stage. Learners are expected to work independently using additional literature, some extra materials, authentic sources, technical aids and so on. Responsibility and conscious attitude to studying of senior students reveal greater possibilities of their independent work or *self-instruction*. The senior stage of instruction should prepare school leavers for further autonomous study and self-education.

The profound language practice, development of all four skills and the use of a wide range of topics help to reveal the wider resources of older learners and maintain the philosophy of making language *relevant*, *practical* and *communicative*.

Points for discussion

- Teaching young learners. Pre-school and early-school periods.
- Mixed-ability classes on junior and senior stages of instruction.
- Different approaches to skills development on junior stage (oral approach, integrated skills).
- Correlation between oral and written practice on senior stage.

Self-Check

- 1. Decipher the following abbreviations:
 - a) KET;b) PET;c) FCE;d) TOEFL.

2. Read the quotation and decade which age group it suits to:...learners respond to language according to what they can do with it, rather than treating it as an intellectual game or abstract system (S. Phillips):

a) learners in the 2-4 years of study;

b) learners in the 5-6 years of study;

c) learners in the 7-9 years of study;

d) learners in the 10-12 years of study.

3. What term is defined here:

Two individuals participate in an oral and/or written exchange in which production and reception alternate and may in fact overlap in oral communication.

4. Choose the most appropriate situation to be proposed to junior learners:

a) You are feeling very tired. You can't sleep at night. You've got entrance exams next week and you work until midnight drinking a lot of coffee. Express your feelings and complaints to your friend.

b) You notice that your friend B doesn't look very well. Find out what the matter is.

c) Fashion is usually defined as the popular style of clothes, hair, behavior etc. at a particular time, that is likely to change. What does **''fashion**'' mean to you?

5. Name at least two reasons which make it possible to teach English on the initial stage (pre-school period).

Useful terms

Competence/performance: A dichotomy proposed by Chomsky to distinguish what an ideal hearer or speaker knows about the structure of their native language (competence) and the manifestation of this knowledge in actual language use, realization of competence (performance).

False beginner: A learner who has had a limited number of previous instructions in a language, but who because of extremely limited language

proficiency is classified as at the beginning level of language instruction (see *true beginner*).

Full autonomy of learners: The situation in which learner is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his/her learning and the implementation of those decisions. In full autonomy there is no involvement of a teacher or an institution.

Game: An organized activity that usually has the following properties:

- a particular part or objective;
- a set of rules;
- competition between players;
- communication between players by spoken or written language.

Grading: Adjusting language or tasks to suit the ability level of learners.

Imprint effect: Presupposes quick memorization by children up to age 8 and the ability to operate in speech activity on word combination and sentence levels.

Initial/ early-school stage: Period of learning a foreign language from 2 to 4 year of study, where level of language proficiency A1 is achieved.

Individualized instruction: A learning process which is adapted to a particular individual, taking this individual's characteristics into consideration.

Junior stage: Period of learning a foreign language from 5 to 9 year of study, where level of language proficiency A2 is achieved.

Mixed-ability class: A class in which the learners are of different language proficiency levels.

Self-instruction: Refers generally to situations in which learners are working without the direct control of teacher. This might be for short periods within a lesson, for whole lessons or in the extreme case of *learner autonomy*, where learner undertakes the whole of their learning without the help of teacher.

True-beginner: A learner who has no previous knowledge of the language.

Reports proposed on the theme

• Special techniques and activities on different stages of instruction.

- Peculiarities of teaching the youngest.
- The role of game as a useful technique in language teaching.

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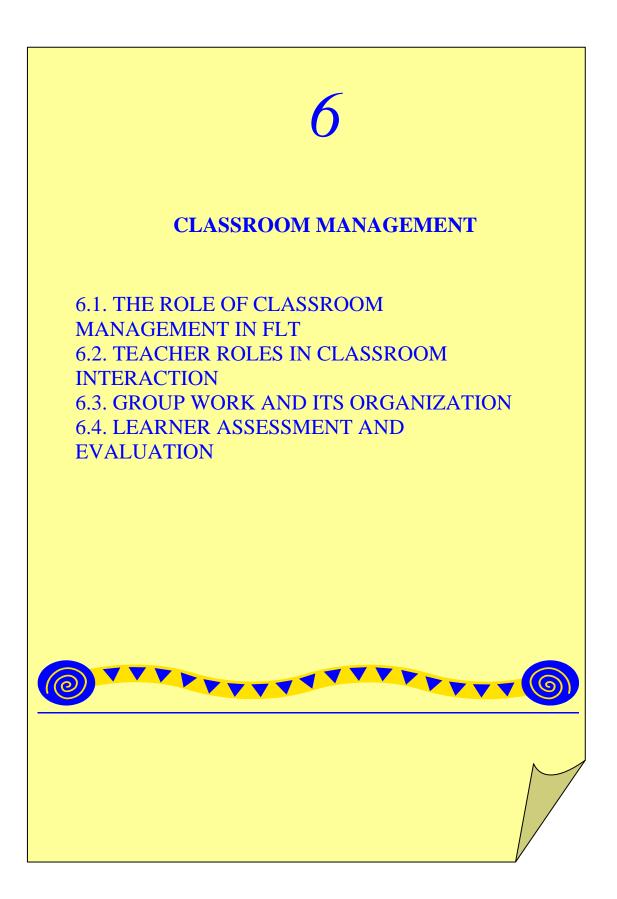
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6. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The term *classroom management* refers to the procedures, strategies, and instructional techniques teachers use to manage student behaviour and learning activities. Effective classroom management is one of the most important and the most difficult skills the teacher has to master. The strategies teachers use to create classroom environment have been studied and developed for many years because effective classroom and behaviour management is one of the major concerns of ELT.

The researchers in the field believe that comprehensive classroom management implies efficient organization of material, seating plans, keeping an up-to-date grading system, effective instruction, being aware of students' needs and characters, assessing their work and performance, and having a positive attitude while teaching. Thus, the concept of comprehensive classroom management is significant in facilitating the learning process since it creates well-organized classrooms where learning can be optimized.

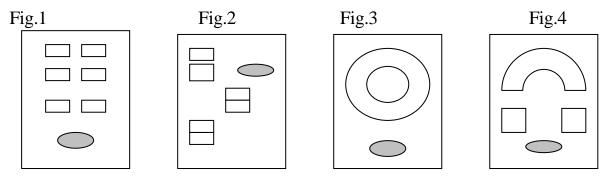
6.1. The role of classroom management in FLT

Classroom management is the way the teacher organizers her/his classroom and learners, it is, as Jim Scrivener says, the moment-by-moment decisions and actions concerning organization of the classroom and activities (e.g. seating and grouping arrangements, starting and stopping activities, etc.).

How to organize the classroom? Organizing the classroom teacher should create favourable **learning conditions**, both physical and emotional environment. Under **physical environment** some *physiological conditions* (noise, light, temperature) are meant, together with *equipment and educational aids* used by teacher in the classroom. An important constituent of physical environment is *seating arrangement* of learners, which in its turn depend on the character of the activities proposed and helps to create a special **emotional environment** of leason.

Experiments with **seating arrangement** on the one hand can help recreate new and unexpected situations, and on the other give some physical relax involving moving activities. Changing seating arrangement can help students interact with different people. In many pedagogical journals and teaching manuals language practitioners can find the ideas what grouping, seating, standing arrangements are most appropriate for each activity they do in class.

For example, traditional classroom setting (See: Fig. 1) can be successful in *teacher-class interaction* and *pair work*. However, the variety of activities in communicative classroom is hardly limited to these modes of interaction. Thus, traditional classroom setting can be improved in order to bring variety to language classroom, make it more motivated and funny. The most widely used mode, *group work*, needs appropriate seating arrangement (See: Fig. 2). The classroom should be



prepared for group work either beforehand (with furniture moved for convenient group interaction) or the existing setting should be adapted for the purpose (e.g. students may interact face to face each other around one desk). Moving the furniture in a classroom might be too time-consuming. Nevertheless, if group work is used for the majority of activities in a lesson and the group members have to mingle and change the partners several times, then moving desks is desirable for successful implementation of teacher's ideas. Two more pictures (See: Fig. 3, 4) show the variants of classroom organization which are helpful for *group discussions, exchanging ideas, brainstorming some problems* etc. Deliberate and well-considered classroom arrangements help teacher organize the classroom, making lesson more vivid and emotional.

Besides the classroom itself, teacher has to organize learners (see table 62, App. 4). Teacher is responsible for the **character of teacher-student interaction**,

depending on which classrooms may be *learner-centered* or *teacher-dominated*. A traditional *teacher-dominated classroom* contradicts with the mainstream pedagogical approach to putting learner in the centre of the educational process, encouraging their active participation and involvement in classroom interaction. The teacher role of a controller (in a teacher-dominated classroom) is shifted to that of a facilitator, whose job is to think not only about the procedure of the lesson, interesting and useful tasks and activities, but also about **motivational factors** that will influence successful learning (see table 62, App. 4).

The creation of **favourable classroom atmosphere** (see table 63, App. 4) is one of these **motivational factors** which leads to establishing **rapport** between teacher and learners (see table 63, App. 4). The teacher's manner to run a lesson and communicate with students; his/her personal interest in students' needs create trust and confidence in relations between teacher and students. It is a well-known fact that enthusiastic teachers have enthusiastic learners, so the teacher's own enthusiasm about their job, activities proposed and materials used encourage students' active participation and involvement.

Relaxed, supportive classroom atmosphere is also related to the variety of **activities** proposed by teacher during a lesson. The activity is lifeblood of language lesson. Proposing different activities in the classroom teacher should think over procedures and **techniques** for performing them in order to meet learners' expectations and create their positive attitude to the target language. Teachers should thus be prepared to develop fewer teacher-dominated activities and tasks, while remaining conscious of their students' need for guidance in setting objectives, for appropriate models of and feedback about the target language, and for constructive and supportive evaluation of their progress. In this case, teacher faces the problem of effective management.

Classroom management involves both **decisions** and **actions** teacher has to do every minute of lesson. *The actions* are what are done in the classroom, e.g. rearranging the chairs. *The decisions* are about whether to do these actions, when to do, how to do them, who will do them, etc. The essential basic skill for classroom is therefore to be able to recognize *options* available to teacher, to make appropriate *decisions* between these options and to turn them into effective and efficient *actions*. As teacher grows in experience the awareness of possible options will grow.

Points for discussion

- Teacher-Student interaction. Creating rapport.
- Class organization. Seating arrangements, grouping.
- Establishing creative classroom atmosphere and rapport.

Self – Check

- 1. Tick the items necessary for creating a positive classroom climate:
 - a) establishing rapport;
 - b) delicate balance between praise and criticism;
 - c) personalizing instructions;
 - d) giving/getting positive feedback;
 - e) learner-centered teaching;
 - f) unfavourable learning conditions.
- 2. Student-centered or teacher-dominated character of the classroom depends on:
 - a) teacher-student interaction;
 - b) activities proposed;
 - c) special organisation of the environment;
 - d) seating arrangement;
 - e) all of the above.
- 3. What are important items in establishing rapport?
 - a) teacher's helpful manner;
 - b) _____;
 - c) ____;

d)

4. Match the terms with their definitions:

1. GROUP WORK	a) a technique in which the teacher draws information	
	from learners through question and answer;	
2. ELICITATION	b) any form of learning activity which is done by	
	groups of learners working together. Often	
	distinguished from class work in which the whole class	
	works together.	

5. Fill in the gaps with appropriate terms:

of the a) who tries The role teacher as to create an b)_____which facilitates develops learning and a more c)_____classroom is the key in Communicative Language Teaching. But generally, teacher roles greatly depend on d)______ the students are doing.

Useful terms

Body language: Non-verbal communication (also known as paralinguistics); how messages are conveyed with the body (e.g. through eye contact, facial expression, gestures).

Brainstorming: A kind of group activity intended to generate a lot of ideas. Participants are encouraged at the beginning to think up ideas no matter how unlikely or farfetched. Every suggestion is recorded. Decisions about practicality are made later.

Buzz groups: An activity in which groups of students have a brief discussion to generate ideas, answer specific questions, etc. (similar to *brainstorming*). Buzz groups may be used as preparation for a lecture or as an activity during a lecture.

Classroom management: The way teacher organizes his/her classroom and learners (e.g. physical arrangement of room, when to stop and start activities, etc).

Collaborative skills: The ability to work together with other people in group/team.

Cross-over groups: A form of group activity in which the class is divided into groups to have a discussion. After some time, one or more members of each group change places and join one of the other groups. So two students from Group A might join Group B, two from Group B might join Group C, and so on, and the discussion continues.

Facilitator: A person (usually a teacher) who helps learners to find their own answers rather than providing them with the 'right' answers.

Grouping: Arranging students into groups to help them learn better.

Group dynamics: The way a group of people interacts with one another.

Learner-centered instruction: Has the benefits of greater individualization, students are observed working individually or in pairs and small groups, each on distinct task and project; increased student opportunity to perform (whether receptively or productively) with the target language; increased personal sense of relevance and achievement.

Learning strategy: A process or technique which a learner uses to help himself/herself learn a language (e.g. drawing on background knowledge and experience before listening to the news, etc).

Learning style: The way a particular learner learns something; their preferred style of working.

Monitoring: What a teacher does while learners are doing an activity – walking round the class, listening to learners, and, perhaps, making notes on their performance to give feedback on later.

Teacher-dominated/teacher-fronted classroom: Characterized by: teacher's speaking most of the time; leading activities; constantly passing judgement on student performance.

Reports proposed on the theme

- Components of effective classroom management.
- The advantages of pair and group work.
- Ways of increasing student talking time.

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6.2. Teacher roles in classroom interaction

CLT as a system and philosophy of teaching proposes a new role of teacher in the language classroom. Traditionally teacher is the main authority who guides the class and everything during the lesson is under his/her control. **The teacherdominated classroom** is characterized by teacher's overspeaking that leaves less time to student practice and constantly passing judgment on student performance. Communicative approach denies this teacher-domination as learner is proclaimed to be the subject and the centre of the educational process. **Learner-centered** **instruction** leads to greater individualization, encouraging students to perform with the target language; increasing personal sense of relevance and achievement. Thus, teacher shares his/her role and responsibility with learners facilitating studying, and plays a variety of roles. Character of teacher-student interaction, activities proposed, special organisation of the environment and, as a result, **teacher roles** reveal the peculiarities of the classroom.

Different scientists and methodologists, among them Douglas H. Brown, Kelly R., Byrne D., Harmer J. Bowen T., Marks J and many others, stress that there are two conceptually different roles in educational process – **teacher-controller** (who is compared to a puppet-master standing at the front of the class and controlling everything) and **teacher-facilitator** (who maintains students' freedom) depending on the organization of the classroom either in teacher-dominated or learner-centred framework.

Teacher-controller is in complete charge of the class. They control not only what students do, but also what language they use. This role may be useful on certain stages of the lesson, e.g. for introduction of new material, since the stage of accurate reproduction and drilling techniques needs to be carefully organized.

Teacher-facilitator has a less directive role when he/she steps away from the managerial or directive (controlling) role and allows students, under his/her guidance, to find their own pathways to success. A facilitator capitalizes on motivating students to discover language through using it pragmatically, creating rich environments and activities for linking new information to prior knowledge, providing opportunities for collaborative work and problem solving, and offering students a multiplicity of authentic learning tasks.

Teacher roles depend upon the purpose and nature of a wide range of activities proposed and the situation they are used in. Donn Byrne proposes a model for classroom interaction which shows how teacher roles differ influenced by the tasks and activities in the classroom (see table 64, App. 4). When the activity is *controlled* (box A in table 64, App. 4), *focused on accuracy* and done with *the whole class*, teacher performs the role of **conductor** or **director** in order to keep the process

flowing smoothly and efficiently and make sure that students know what to practice and to check whether they are doing well.

If the activity is *learner-oriented* (box B in table 64, App. 4), aimed at *accuracy* and meant for *a pair or group work*, the teacher functions as **organizer** (who clearly instruct students what to do and organizes their work) and **monitor** of activities. Monitoring is important for watching and checking students' performance in order to help in case of necessity.

The main reason for practicing *whole-class fluency activities* (box C in table 64, App. 4), is to get students to interact, to encourage them to participate. Often teacher needs to make suggestions about how students may proceed in an activity when there is a silence or when they are confused about what to do next. In this case the teacher's main role is that of **stimulator** or **prompter**.

When the activity is *learner directed*, focused on *fluency* (box D in table 64, App. 4), and done in *pairs or groups*, the teacher's role is to set them up (**manager**), and to be ready to help if asked for (**consultant**).

In the communicative language classroom teacher can also be an **equal participant.** Teacher's participation does not only improve the atmosphere in the class, but also gives the students a perfect chance to practise English with someone who speaks it better than they. The roles of **tutorial**, **adviser** or **guide** are applied when students are involved in self-study or project work and they are appropriate mostly at intermediate and advanced levels.

Teacher is the head manager of the educational process. It is obvious that classroom management skills are important since they help to ensure the success of the teacher and of the activities used at the lesson. Gestures, facial expressions, teacher's manner, position in the classroom, eye contact with students are those teacher's management skills which can serve as perfect tools for conveying the meaning of language, reinforcing instructions, cutting down on the amount of verbal explanations. They help teacher get across what he/she wants to say. Teacher's work – classroom language used, praise and criticism in evaluating learner's work –

can hardly be overestimated as he/she serves as a model in using the target language and an expert in assessing students' work.

There can be distinguished four main teacher's management skills:

- *physical* (gestures, facial expressions, voice, manner, position, eye contact);
- *verbal* (classroom language, evaluating learner's work);
- *organizational* (arranging physical environment, monitoring);
- problem-solving (recognizing options, making decisions and actions).

English language teachers may adopt different roles at various stages of the teaching process since different situations demand different solutions and different activities require different approaches. But the common feature of all teacher roles in the language classroom is that they should evolve gradually and develop in harmony with the needs of the class, leading to successful language learning.

Points for discussion

- Variety of teacher roles in communicative claasroom.
- Development of teacher management skills.
- Teacher-facilitator in learner-centered classroom.

Self-Check

- 1. There is a set of rules for teachers. Chose those which lead to an *effective teacher*:
- a) Teacher has to be patient and attentive.
- b) Teachers do not give children choice.
- c) Teachers label and categorize children.
- d) Teachers emphasize the meaning of language.
- e) Teachers emphasize trying and taking risks.
- f) Instruction is informal and discovery.

g) Teachers do not use examples while explaining some grammar or vocabulary forms/units.

2. What is defined here: *This term encompasses different procedures, strategies and instructional techniques that teachers use to manage student behaviour and learning activities at the lesson.*

3. Which of teacher roles is meant in this definition: *Most educators claim that teacher's participation does not only improve the atmosphere in the class, but also gives the students a chance to practise English with someone who speaks it better than they.*

a) tutorial b) adviser c) guide d) equal participant

4. According to J. Harmer, when teacher acts as a coach who gives advice and guidance while students are involved in self-study or project work, his / her role is:

a) monitor b) tutorial c) conductor d) controller

5. Match activities and modes with teacher roles:

Teacher roles: organizer, conductor, monitor, stimulator, manager, consultant, informant.

Activities and modes:

a) Doing pronunciation drills in chorus.

b) Completing questionnaires in pairs.

c) Discussing a topic in class.

d) Role-play in groups.

e) Listening to teacher explaining a grammar point.

f) Writing a peer-dictation in pairs.

Useful terms

Comprehensive classroom management: A teacher's skill to promote student learning and to organize students, materials, time, and space at the lesson.

Conductor/director: Teacher role in the language classroom when teacher conductes students' performance and keeps the process flowing smoothly.

Controller: A directive teacher role in the language classroom when teacher controls not only what students do, but also what language they use.

Facilitator: Teacher role in the language classroom when teacher facilitates learning and maintains students' freedom, works in partnership with students to develop their language skills.

Investigator/researcher: Teacher role in the language classroom when teachers themselves should gradually deepen their own skills of language learning in the aim of developing more effective teaching.

Model (modeling): Teacher role in the language classroom when teacher shares their ideas or thoughts about something and demonstrate or explain something (showing students how to do something in a step-by-step fashion).

Monitor: Teacher role in the language classroom when teacher monitors students' performance in order to help in case of necessity.

Organizer: Teacher role in the language classroom when teacher clearly instructs students what to do and organizes their work.

Prompter: Teacher role in the language classroom when teacher encourages students to participate in activity helps them only when it is necessary and is not intrusive.

Resource: This is the least directive teacher role in the language classroom. The implication of the resource role is that the student takes the initiative to come to teacher. And teacher is "there" for advice and counsel when student seeks it.

Teacher's management skills: physical, verbal, problem-solving and organizational skills teacher has to posses to be an effective classroom manager.

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- Teacher as an effective manager of the language classroom.
- Challenges of classroom options and teacher's decisions.

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6.3. Group work and its organization.

Acquisition of communicative competence presupposes *interactive organization of teaching*. Many scientists agree that interaction can be practically achieved through **group work**, which is the most effective way to maintain *cooperation* and *communication*. **Group** is not a random assemblage of independent

idividuals, say T. Gamble and M. Gamble, but is composed of individuals who interact verbally and nonverbally, who occupy certain roles with respect to one another, and who cooperate to accomplish a definite goal.

Different researchers in the field agree that **group work** is very important for organization of an interactive lesson and acquisition of communicative competence giving students greater opportunities to speak; developing their collaborative skills; giving students a feeling of security. Such *mode of interaction* promotes learner responsibility and autonomy, and contributes to individualized instruction.

The cooperative classroom where group work is actively used promotes **social skills training,** such as making sure everyone has a turn to speak, giving encouragement, being polite to other students, and listening when other group members are saying. Teacher should help students develop the abilities for social interaction, which are needed for effective collaboration. The abilities to coordinate work, make decisions, communicate and solve different problems are indispensable for long-standing group cooperation.

One more important advantage offered by group work is the **security of a smaller group**. As it is stated by psychologists, the main need of a human being is the need to feel safety. One of the most important ways of gaining safety is to join other people, to be part of a group, where each individual is not so starkly on public display. In small groups reticent students quite often become vocal participants in the process. The small group becomes a community of learners cooperating with each other in pursuit of common goals.

Working in small groups (2-4 people) places responsibility for action and progress of the whole group upon each of its members. It is difficult to "hide" in a small group. P. Johnson and M. Johnson speak about the principle of **individual accountability** and explain that it is in effect when each child knows that he /she may bear full responsibility for the information or the skills being learned by the group. There are no hitchhikers — only full participants. So group work **promotes learner responsibility and autonomy**.

One more positive side of group work is that it is a step toward **individualized instruction**, opportunity for teacher to take into account every student's needs and abilities that are unique. Teacher can recognize and capitalize upon some individual differences (age, cultural heritage, field of study, cognitive style, etc) by careful selection of small groups and by administering different tasks to different groups.

Ukrainian scholars O. Pometun and L. Pyrozhenko, Americans P. Johnson and M. Johnson and British scholar Roger Gower also highlight such advantages of group work as **positive interdependence**, **face-to-face interaction** and **group processing**. *Positive interdependence* means that the efforts of every member of the group are useful and indispensable for the success of the whole group; every member brings a unique contribution into the work of the group due to either their abilities, knowledge, experience or their role in the group. *Face-to-face interaction* is personal cooperation that stimulates education and development of speech skills. *Group processing* is just as important to the classroom routine as are quizzes and other strategies for determining progress in the subject content. Teacher helps learners analyze what is working well in their group and what can be improved, offers suggestions when individual groups are having specific problems. Much of the group processing can take place in the target language, providing an additional area for meaningful communication within the classroom.

However, some teachers neglect group work, because they feel they will lose control and students will use L1 instead of practising the target language, their errors will be reinforced in small groups as teachers fail to monitor all groups at once. Furthermore, some learners prefer to work alone or problems may occur when students hardly know one another.

But the fears seem unreasonable if teachers are prepared for managing the class in a proper way. Group work needs strategic organization, planning and qualified monitoring students' work, which requires a lot of attention and responsibility from teacher. **Lack of organisation** can cause serious problems in interactive classrooms.

One more challenge that leads to poor and unsuccessful group work is **dominance of some group members over others** on the one hand and **diffusion of responsibility** of some participants on the other. This is where teacher has to motivate students who are reluctant to participate and encourage the shared responsibility. If **group work is overexploited**, used indiscriminately or too frequently, it may lose its effectiveness. Thus, teachers should use this type of work appropriately and according to the situation.

Groups can be organised on *homogeneous* or *heterogeneous* basis depending on teacher's objectives. An important issue to consider is the **number of people in group**. All groups are classified as those having even and odd number of people. Y. Polat says that *groups of two people* can share information and have low chances of disagreements. Groups of *three people* are the most stable ones but there is a risk of two people dominating over the third person. *Groups of four-five* are also the most stable ones. Such groups are big enough to stimulate work and to exclude dominance of some members over others. The group of *more than six people* seems ineffective because of limited contribution of every student into the group work.

In conclusion, group work as a type of classroom organisation is effective if students are motivated in obtaining certain knowledge or experience in a particular situation, when they have enough language practice and may evaluate the completed work and the contribution of everybody into the success or failure of the group.

Points for discussion

- Group work activities and their organisation in the language classroom.
- Advantages and disadvantages of group work.

Self - Check

1. Choose the disadvantage(s) of interactive pair and group work activities:

- a) give students more valuable talking time;
- b) allow teacher to withdraw and monitor individual performances;

c) encourage rapport between students;

d) provide an opportunity for students to co-operate with one another and learn to become independent of teacher;

e) enable the students to invest much more of themselves in the lesson;

f) give an opportunity for shy or unconfident students to participate whereas they would be reticent about contributing in front of the whole class;

g) add variety to the lesson;

h) demotivate students.

2. Mixed-ability groups which foster creative potential of learners are called

3. Which of the terms done is defined here: *The key process whereby learning is managed, through the creation and exploitation of learning opportunities, systematic language practice and language development*?

a) group size;b) classroom interaction;c) brainstorming;d) activity.

4. Which of the activities proposed can be used for re-grouping purposes?

a) Make a conversation between two friends. One has been seriously ripped off and the other is sympathising the situation.

b) Work in groups. Brainstorm all the words you can think of connected to shopping.

c) Learners are proposed to form two teams: Team C (countables) and team U (uncountables) by picking up cards with countable and/or uncountable nouns.

d) Get into groups of four people to solve the problem: *You are the boss of the company*. *You'll have to hire one of the two employees*. *One of them is a very efficient worker*. *The other is not*. *But he is your close relative*. *What would you do?*

5. Read the ideas below and fill in the table:

social skills training; poor organization; security of group members; learner responsibility and autonomy; diffusion of responsibility of some participants; individualized instruction; dominance of some group members over others; positive interdependence.

Positive sides of group work	Negative sides of group work

Useful terms

Brainstorming: A group activity where students freely contribute their ideas to a topic to generate ideas.

Burn-out: Fatigue usually based on either the stress of overwork or boredom with the same task.

Classroom interaction: Language practice and learning opportunities in the language development process organized and maintained by teacher with active student involvement and participation.

Collaborative learning: A method of teaching and learning in which students team together to explore a significant question or create a meaningful project. In general, *cooperative learning* is a generic term for various small group interactive instructional procedures.

Comprehensive classroom management: The concept is significant in facilitating the learning process since it creates well-organized classrooms where learning through interaction can be optimized. This phenomenon, according to Jim Scrivener, "*encompasses an abundance of factors ranging from physical arrangement of the classroom to teaching "styles" and to what is called "classroom energy*".

Cooperation: A form of collaboration, when students work together to accomplish shared goals.

Effective classroom interaction: Aimed at language development purposes. For such purposes interaction must be seriously meaningful, about matters of serious concern to the participants, and therefore conducive to communication.

Face-to-face interaction: Personal cooperation that stimulates education and development of speech skills.

Homogenious groups: Consisting of students of approximately the same level of knowledge or educational background on the subject.

Heterogeneous groups: Consisting of students whose level of language proficiency is different. Heterogenious groups foster creative thinking and intensive sharing of ideas.

Interlanguage: The complexity of interaction entails a long developmental process of acquisition where the role of teachers' feedback is crucial. Numerous errors of production and comprehension will be a part of this development.

Interactive principles: Based on the aspects (according to H. Douglas Brown) of *automaticity* (when central attention is on meanings and messages and not on grammar and other linguistic forms); *intrinsic (or inner) motivation, strategic investment, risk-taking, the language-culture connection, interlanguage, communicative competence.*

Language-culture connection: The cultural loading of interactive speech as well as writing requires that interlocutors should be thoroughly versed in the cultural nuances of language.

Mixed-ability groups: Heterogeneous groupings, with a balanced mix of ethnic groups, females/males, and students of low-to-high ability and productivity.

Positive interdependence: Means that the efforts of every member of the group are useful and indispensable for the success of the whole group; every member brings a unique contribution into the work of the group due to either their abilities, knowledge, experience or their role in the group.

Risk-taking: Interaction requires a certain degree of risk of failing to produce intended meaning, of failing to interpret intended meaning (on the part of someone else), of being laughed at, of being rejected. But the rewards of course are great and

worth the risks.

Strategic investment into interaction: Requires the use of strategic language competence both to make certain decisions on how to say or write or interpret language, and to make repairs when communication pathways are blocked.

Reports proposed on the theme

- Promoting individualized instruction via group work.
- Variety of re-grouping activities in the language classroom.

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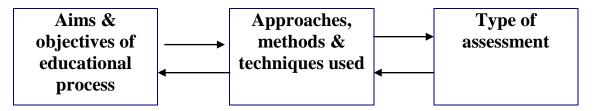
6.4. Learner assessment and evaluation

Teachers always carry out assessment to measure their learners' performance and provide them useful feedback. Thus, **assessment** means measuring students' performance in any one of many different ways, diagnosing the problems and measuring the progress the students make. Assessment is an estimate, judging the value of learners' knowledge.

Evaluation is viewed much wider. Generally, evaluation is assessing or forming an idea of the amount, quality or value of somebody/something. From the methodological point of view (according to the definition done by Michael Harris and Paul McCann) it is "*consideration of all the factors that influence the learning process such as syllabus objectives, course design, materials, methodology, teachers and assessment*".

Assessment and evaluation are often linked, because "assessment is one of the most valuable sources of information about what is happening in a learning environment" (Harris & McCann) and it helps us to evaluate this learning environment and students' performance. Actually, teaching begins when we put an aim. Starting to teach educators have appropriate aims and objectives in mind. Teachers know what they teach for (see: Char 4).

Chart 4



For example, the aim of teaching English in schools nowadays is gaining communicative competence. It influences methods / approaches of teaching and teachers have to choose CLT. As the result, the level of communicative competence

achieved should be assessed. Independent testing launched in Ukraine in 2009 assesses both receptive and productive skills on the level prescribed by the Program; therefore, it meets the requirements of communicative teaching. In its turn the type of assessment provided will dictate methods and techniques used in class, they might be far from communicative teaching, which will greatly influence and moreover change the initial aims.

According to Michael Harris and Paul McCann assessment must be subdivided into:

- formal assessment or testing, where test or exam conditions are established;
- **informal assessment**, carried out by teacher not under special test conditions, but in the normal classroom environment nearly every lesson, hand in hand with learning;
- **self-assessment**, carried out by students themselves of their own progress and problems.

Informal assessment is important in a classroom setting for measuring productive and receptive skills, their knowledge and ability to use specific structures and vocabulary. Oral and written reception (listening and reading) are normally developed in *lockstep fashion*. It means that all the students listen to or read one text at the same time. There are different ways of assessing understanding of texts and / or recordings:

- asking questions to recycle what they have heard/read (orally or in written form);
- proposing some speaking activities based on the text;
- using extra-linguistic means (e.g. raising hands, showing pictures, etc.);
- doing matching exercises, etc.

Oral and written production (speaking and writing) needs clear criteria of making reliable and objective judgments about students' performance. Different researchers and practitioners in the field propose oral assessment criteria which include: *fluency* (speed/amount of hesitation) and *communicative value* of speech;

message (relevance and appropriacy) or *content* of the utterance; *accuracy* (grammatical and lexical errors); *pronunciation* (sounds/intonation/stress).

Assessing students' written work can be very time consuming. It is thus very important to choose the most important pieces of writing that students do and not try to assess every piece of written work. Certain writing assessment criteria should be proposed as well, we think it can include: *structure* and *organization* of the text; *content*, the relevance and appropriacy of the message; *vocabulary richness*, appropriacy, relevant use; *accuracy* of grammar and lexical structures; *spelling*.

Any problems that the teacher diagnoses through informal assessment can then be dealt with by remedial presentation or further practice.

Formal assessment /testing should be seen as a complement to other forms of assessment (e.g. informal assessment, self-assessment). The basic differences are that if we have a *well designed, reliable and valid test*, then the test will measure students' ability *in a more objective way* than more subjective forms of assessment such as informal observation and self-assessment. In order to be operated successfully in the educational process learner assessment or testing should possess such characteristics as:

Purposefulness – testing should be aimed at certain speech habits and skills which are under estimation, which are measured;

Representativeness – means that testing should cover all language and speech material which is assessed;

Objectiveness – should be provided by objective ways of assessment;

Systematic use – is realized in the process of regular testing.

Providing formal assessment (testing) teacher should be aware of the quality of the testing materials, which should possess the major **characteristics of a good test**. Firstly, as any other kind of assessment, a good test should be **reliable**, consistent measure of students' performance. Clear criteria and clear procedures for assessing should be established beforehand. Secondly, assessment tasks should have **validity**, in other words, to test purposefully what it aims at, rather than testing something else. For example, a reading test where answers are marked for grammatical accuracy is not only a test of reading; it is also a test of writing and grammar as well. The example of **low validity** test is the following task for measuring writing skill in a general English class: *Write an essay 'Is photography an art or a science?'* It demands some knowledge of photography. Thirdly, a good test should be **practical.** It must not be too long to do or mark, be too difficult to organize or involve equipment and resources that are not available. Lastly, it should be clear to students that the tests reflect what they are doing in class, thus hopefully causing a **positive washback effect** on learning.

Types of test used in educational and examination process depend upon their purposes and aims (see table 65, App. 4 and **Useful terms**). If teacher needs to decide what level learners should go into, they propose *placement test*. If it is important to clear up how learners are getting on at the moment, *progress test* is used. *Diagnostic test* is suitable for diagnosing problematic areas. If it is necessary to know how much students have learned over the course, *summative tests* are used. Different **test techniques** can be exploited in test design (questions and answers; true/false; multiple choice; gap-filling and completion; matching; dictation; cloze; transformation; rewriting; translation; essay, etc).

Points for discussion

- Main features and functions of learner assessment.
- Informal assessment as a way of collecting information about students' performance.
- Different purposes of formal assessment/testing.
- Characteristics of a good test. Test types.

Self-Check

1. Assessment is _____

a) measuring the students' performance in any one of many different ways, diagnosing the problems and measuring the progress students make;

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- b) forming an idea of the amount, quality or value of something;
- c) consideration of all the factors that influence the learning process.
- 2. Fill in the gaps in the chart:



- 3. Characteristic features of assessment are as follows:
- a) self-assessment; b) reliability; c) validity;
- d) practicality; e) accountability

4. What feature of assessment is characterized by this quotation: "*Clear criteria and clear procedures for assessing should be established beforehand, otherwise there is a danger that some students might be discriminated*".

5. Match the teacher's questions to the types of test that teacher has to do with the learners:

1. What level should the learners go into?	a) proficiency;
2. How are the learners getting on at the moment?	b) summative;
3. What are their problems and weakness?	c) diagnostic test;
4. How much have they learned over the course?	d) placement test;
5. What can my students do in English?	e) progress test.

Useful terms

Achievement tests: Assess the students' performance in a given course.

Accountability: Characteristic feature of assessment which denotes whether a form of assessment provides learners, parents, institutions and society in general, with clear indications of what progress has been made and if it has not, why that is so.

Aptitude test: Assumes no prior study; is designed to reveal whether somebody is suitable for a particular type of work or of training.

Current / boundary testing: Administered after certain blocks of study: the former – in the process of studying this or that topic or unit; the latter – at the end of the process (e.g. after having learned the topic/unit; at the end of the term).

Diagnostic test: Used to find out problem areas. Where other types of tests are based on *success*, diagnostic tests are based on *failure*.

Developmental function: Aims at development of learner's personality and some psychological skills as memory, mental flexibility, phonemic hearing and so on.

Evaluation function/function of grading: Its purpose is to measure learners achievements (12-mark grading system is in operation in our schools). The role of marks is to serve effectively the purpose of stimulating, directing and rewarding students' efforts to learn.

Feedback function: The main function of learner assessment, a two-way process of giving and getting information to learners by their teacher on their spoken or written performance or to teachers about their teaching.

Formative test: A test, which is given during a course of instruction and which informs both the student and the teacher how will the student is doing. A formative test includes only topics which have been taught (see also: *summative test*).

Formal assessment or testing: Where test or exam conditions are established; more in-depth assessment that should be done throughout the course, giving feedback to both the learner and the teacher.

General proficiency tests: Assess students' skills for real-life purposes, aim to describe what students are capable of doing in a foreign language and are usually set by external bodies such as examination boards. Proficiency tests enable students to have some proof of their ability in a language.

Informal assessment: Assessment carried out by the teacher not under special test conditions, but in the normal classroom environment.

Placement/entry test: Assumes some prior study, however little. This type of test will indicate at which level a learner will learn most effectively in a situation

where there are different levels or streams. The aim is to produce groups which are homogeneous in level.

Practicality: Characteristic feature of assessment which denotes whether a form of assessment practical in terms of timing and in terms of physical resources such as tape-recorders and photocopies.

Progress tests: Administered during courses for assessment of instructional results. They aim at diagnosis, evidence of progress, evaluation of certain habits and skills developed, getting feedback from learners.

Reliability: Characteristic feature of assessment which denotes clear criteria and clear procedures for assessing should be established beforehand.

Self-assessment: That carried out by students themselves of their own progress and problems.

Summative tests: Administered at the end of courses and their objective is to see if students have achieved the objectives set out in the syllabus.

Test: a short examination of knowledge or ability, consisting of questions that must be answered or activities that must be carried out, by which learners' knowledge, abilities, skills are assessed.

Training/practising function: Any testing exercise is a specific activity which requires appropriate habits and skills. While fulfilling it learner practises some language items and exploits some habits that have been formed and skills that have been developed.

Validity: Characteristic feature of assessment which denotes whether a form of assessment affectively measures what it intends to measure and not something different.

Washback effect: The influence of tests or examinations on the teaching and learning leading up to the assessment. If tasks assess communicative ability, students will be encouraged to take part in communicative activities. If they test grammar, students will see skills work as peripheral to the main job of learning grammar.

Reports proposed on the theme

- Different kinds of tests and their aims and purposes.
- Progress and summative testing in the language classroom.
- Variety of test techniques in ELT.

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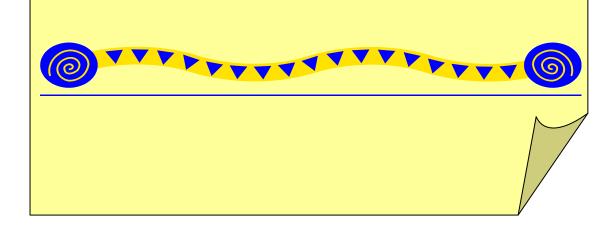
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KEY TO SELF-CHECK

 GENERAL PROBLEMS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND.
 APPROACHES AND METHODS IN FLT
 COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING
 TEACHING VARIOUS ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE
 TEACHING COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS
 EDUCATIONAL PROCESS AND ITS
 ORGANISATION
 CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT



KEY TO SELF-CHECK

1. General problems of foreign language teaching. Historical background. Approaches and methods in FLT

1.1. Language education, its major problems and aims

- 1. a) TEFL teaching English as a foreign language;
- b) TESL teaching English as a second language;
- c) FLT foreign language teaching;
- d) TENL teaching English as a new language;
- e) ELT English language teaching;

f) IATEFL – International Association of Teaching English as a Foreign language.

2. 1 c; 2 d; 3 b; 4 a.

3. b) habits and skills to develop, topics and situations to discuss in different spheres of intercourse, language material to practise;

4. Methods of FLT is a body of scientifically tested theory concerning the teaching of foreign languages in schools and other educational institutions. It is a science which studies aims, objectives and content of the educational process, teaching aids and materials involved and also methods and approaches, principles and techniques of training and instruction; educational value of teacher-student interaction on the basis of foreign language teaching.

5. c) practical aim of teaching foreign languages.

1.2 Concept of teaching foreign languages in Ukraine. Major documents

- 1. b) topics to discuss and language functions to practise
- 2. a) skills integration;
 - c) student-centered teaching;
 - d) learners' autonomy;
 - e) communicative language teaching;
- 3. Learner-centered approach
- 4. A1 b; B1 c; C1 a

5. A1	c) 2-4 years of study
A2+	a) 5-9 years of study

B1+ b) 10-12 years of study

1.3. Historical background of methods and approaches in FLT

1. Fill in the gaps in the classification of FLT methods and approaches:

Criteria	Methods
Language aspect focused	Grammar methods
	Lexical methods
Role of L1	Direct methods
	Translation methods
The skill which is the main object of	Oral methods
teaching	Reading methods
Psychology of language learning	The intuitive methods
	The conscious methods
Name after its inventor	The Amos Comenius method
	The Gouin method
	The Palmer method
	The West method

- 2. c) the Communicative Approach.
- 3. a) the Grammar-Translation Method.
- 4. d) the Audio-Lingual approach.
- 5. d) the Grammar-Translation Method.

1.4. Basic theories of language and language learning in FLT

- 1. b) an overall teaching plan based on certain theoretical principles.
- 2. a) a system that deals with classroom practice.
- 3. b) Cognitivism;
- 4. c) proponents of communicative teaching;
- 5. 1) structural theory B
 - 2) functional theory C
 - 3) interactional theory A

1.5. Characteristics of Grammar-Translation, Direct, Audiolingual Methods

1. a, b, d, g, h.

2. Direct Method.

3.

	GRAMMAR-	DIRECT	AUDIO-LINGUAL
	TRANSLATION	METHOD	
THEORY OF	Language as a system	No single theory	Structuralism
LANGUAGE	of rules		
THEORY OF	Deductive; 'jug &	Natural, like a	Behaviorism,
LEARNING	mug' theory	child learning L1	'stimulus-
			response', learning
			through repetition
			& reinforcement
GOALS	Academic	Rapid, practical	To master the
	knowledge, learning	command of a	whole language, to
	about the language,	language	present students
	literature, etc.		with an accurate
			model of the
			language

4. 1 a, c, d; 2 b, c, d, e, f, g, h.

5. d.

2. Communicative language teaching

2.1. The nature of communication process

1. d) non-verbal assistance;

2. a) senders; b) writers;

3. The maxim of relation. The second turn is irrelevant to the first one. The appropriate variant should be as follows:

A: How are you doing in school?

B: Not too well, actually. I'm failing two of my classes.

4. a) A: Where is the post office?

B: Down the road, about 50 metres past the second left.

5. maxim of quality c) be truthful

maxim of quantity a) be informative

maxim of relation	d) be relevant
maxim of manner	b) be clear

2.2. Theoretical background of the Communicative Approach

1. c, e, f, g

, g)	
e) f)	
d) I DO apologize!	
b) The service is appalling!	
a – a) London, did you say?	
e) Careful there!	
c)Stay where you are, or else!	
e) manager	
f) monitor	
g) stimulator	
h) consultant	
App. 4	

2.3. Communicative competences to acquire in the language teaching

1. discourse competence, strategic competence

2. The individual's linguistic system, the psycholinguistic capacity of the individual, the nature of communication, possibility, feasibility, and appropriateness comprised Hymes' understanding of communicative competence.

- 3. a) M. Canale and M. Swain;
- 4. c) discourse competence;
- 5. Function c)

Competence a)

Performance b)

2.4. Theory of communicative activity.

1. motive or reason, subject of activity, means of realization, product of activity, result;

- 2. b) composition;d) problem solving;f) discussion;
- 3. CLOSED PAIR WORK b)

OPEN PAIR WORK c)

MINGLE ACTIVITY a)

- 4. c) lead-in; b) set up; e) run; a) close; d) post activity.
- 5. a) interactive activities.

3. Teaching various aspects of language

3.1. English language practice. System of exercises

1. a) communicative purpose; c) content, not form; d) variety of language; f) no material control.

2. c) receptive-productive; communicative;

3. b) speech;

c) relatively-communicative;

- 4. c) ask your partner if he has done the actions you telling him to do;
- 5. a) correct me if I am not right;

3.2. Teaching grammar

1. b) grammar phenomena learners can receipt by listening and reading, produce and reproduce orally and in written form;

2. a) grammar notions necessary to be recognized and understood in the texts while reading and listening;

3 inductive

4. c) personalization;

5. TBL

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3.3. Teaching vocabulary

1. 1 c; 2 a; 3 d; 4 b.

- 2. a, d, e, g, h.
- 3. Visual: b, d, f.

Verbal: a, c, e, g, h.

- 4. a, b, c, e, g.
- 5. d.

3.4. Teaching pronunciation

1. Discrimination, articulation, intonation, integration, automaticity

2. 1 b; 2 c; 3 a.

3. a) receptive; b) reproductive

4. Identification exercise which aims at identifying a well-known sound possessing certain characteristics with another sound.

5. a.

4. Teaching communicative skills

4.1. Listening

1. a) reactive skill; d) receptive skill; f) active skill.

2. Message in code – "echoic" memory/ STM (short-term memory) – message is interpreted – LTM (long-term memory) – message is stopped.

3.

Non-verbal means	Verbal means	
	Receptive	reproductive
1. Performing actions;	1. True/false	1. Answering /asking
2. Showing numbers, cards,	statements;	questions;
etc	2. Multiple-	2. Retelling;
3. Designing schemes, charts,	choice tests;	3. Translation;
tables;	3. Jumbled	4. Writing a plan, fill
4. Drawing;	paragraphs/plan	a chart, a table, etc.;
5. Sorting out pictures, photos,	items/sentences	5. Discussion
things, etc.		

4. 1. b; 2. a.

5. Sound system grammar, vocabulary, global message.

- 1. Fluency.
- 2. b) information; f) description;
 - c) opinion; h) narration.
 - e) persuasion;

3. Three groups of dialogical units. Fill in the chart:

- **I** a) statement statement;
 - b) statement question;
 - c) statement inducement/encouragement.
 - II a) inducement/encouragement agreement;
 - b) inducement/encouragement disagreement;
 - c) inducement/encouragement question.
- **III** a) question response;
 - b) question question.
- 1. 1 d; 2 a; 3 c; 4 b.
- 2. accuracy

4.3. Reading

1. a) reactive skill;

b) receptive skill

- 2. 1 b; 2 c; 3 a; 4 d.
- 3. d) familiarization;
 - e) expansion.
- 4. c) reader's role is reactive.

5. Unfamiliarity with topic; unfamiliarity with lexis, vocabulary problems; grammar problems; poor development of reading habits; lack of shared assumptions between reader and writer.

4.4. Writing

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- 1. a) mechanics of writing;
 - c) spelling;
 - e) filling in gaps;
 - f) word-building.
- 2. a) to communicate with the reader;
 - c) to express ideas without the pressure of face-to-face communication;
- 3. b) pair and group work;
 - c) ideas coming from learners;
- 4. b) specially instructed;
 - d) follows certain conventions and applies careful organization;
- 5. a) the Controlled-to-Free approach;
 - c) the Free-Writing approach;
 - d) the Paragraph-Pattern approach.

5. Educational process and its organisation

5.1. Lesson planning

1. e) all mentioned above.

2. b) to prepare learners for a group work by listening to the text "Exotic Shopping in Paris";

d) to present and practise "Why don't you?..." for giving advice.

3. teaching aid, working document, record

4. g) all mentioned above.

5. Procedure

5.2. Types and structure of lesson

- 1. b) easy management;
 - c) well-structured and clear procedure.
- 2. passive, active, interactive.
- 3. a) introduction/warmer; b) main body / main activity; c) round off.
- 4. b) whole class interaction (mingle activity);

d) choir work
$$Cl - Cl$$
; $P - Cl$;

f) group work.

5.

CHANGEABLE	STABLE
Presentation of new material	Speech practice
Training habits	Assessment and evaluation
Revision of what have been learned	
Testing	

5.3. Requirements to English lesson

1. d) translation exercises.

2. the role of teacher talk is to provide natural communication in the classroom and to serve as a model for learners.

- 3. Feedback.
- 4. skills integration.
- 5. e) all of the above.

5.4. Different stages of FL instruction in secondary school

1.

- a) KET Key English Test;
- b) PET Preliminary English Test;
- c) FCE First Cambridge Certificate;
- d) TOEFL Test of English as a Foreign Language.

2. a.

- 3. Interaction.
- 4. b.

5. 1) scientific proof of the physical and psychological readiness of small children for undergoing instruction in a foreign language;

2) growing demand for a foreign language to be taught at a younger ages by parents who want to provide their children with a competitive educational advantage.

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6. Classroom management

6.1. The role of classroom management in FLT

- 1. a) establishing rapport;
 - b) delicate balance between praise and criticism;
 - c) personalizing instructions;
 - d) giving/getting positive feedback;
 - e) learner-centered teaching.
- 2. e) all of the above.
- 3. a) teacher's helpful manner;
 - b) teacher's personal interest in students' needs;
 - c) teacher's own enthusiasm about their job/activities/materials;
 - d) facilitative relationship.
- 4. 1 b; 2 a.

5. The role of the teacher as a) *facilitator* who tries to create an b) *environment* which facilitates learning and develops a more c) *person-centered classroom* classroom is the key in Communicative language teaching. But generally, teacher roles greatly depend on d) *the kind of activity* the students are doing.

6.2. Teacher roles in classroom interaction

- 1. a) Teacher has to be patient and attentive.
 - d) Teachers emphasize the meaning of language.
 - e) Teachers emphasize trying and taking risks.
 - f) Instruction is informal and discovery.

2. classroom management.

- 3. d) equal participant
- 4. b) tutorial

5. a) Doing pronunciation drills in chorus.	Conductor, informant
b) Completing questionnaires in pairs.	Organizer, monitor
c) Discussing a topic in class.	Stimulator
d) Rolr-play in groups.	Manager, consultant

e) Listening to teacher explaining a grammar point. Informant

f) Writing a peer-dictation in pairs.

Organizer, monitor

6.3. Group work and its organisation

1. h) demotivate students

2. heterogeneous

3. Classroom interaction

4. c) Learners are proposed to form two teams: Team C (countables) and team U (uncountables) by picking up cards with countable and/or uncountable nouns.

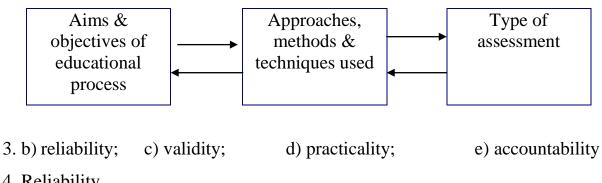
5.

Positive sides of group work	Negative sides of group work
promotes social skills training;	dominance of some group members
security of group members;	over others;
learner responsibility and autonomy;	poor organization;
individualized instruction;	diffusion of responsibility of some
positive interdependence.	participants.

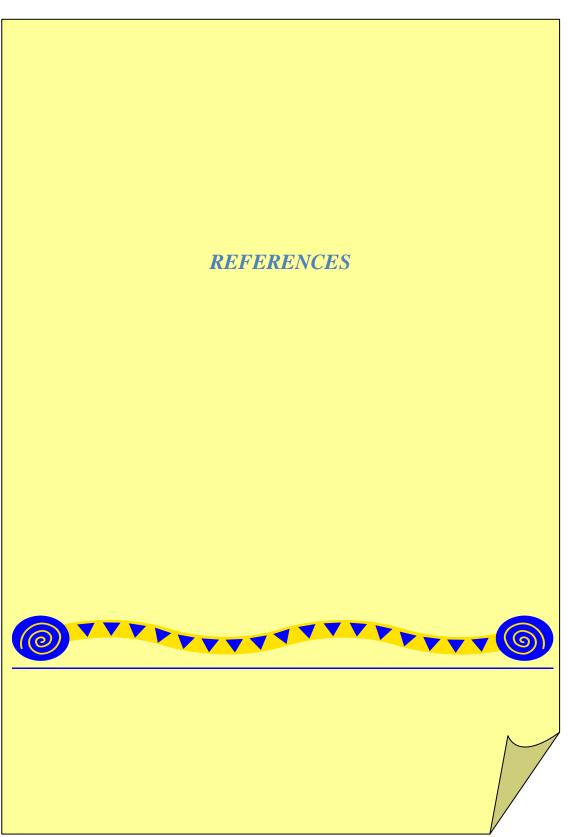
6.4. Learner assessment and evaluation

1. a) measuring the students' performance in any one of many different ways, diagnosing the problems and measuring the progress students make;

2.



- 4. Reliability.
- 5. 1 d; 2 e; 3 c; 4 b; 5 a.



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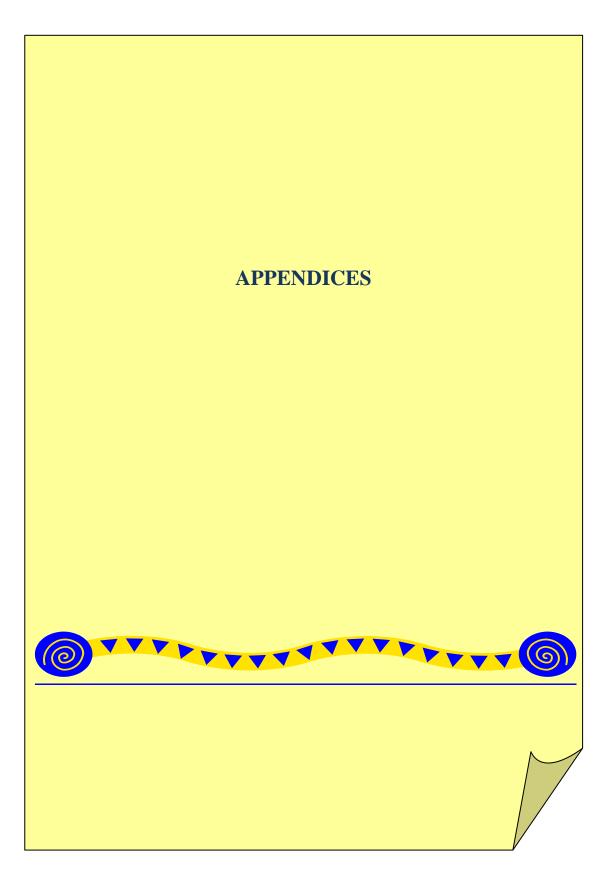
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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Sample lesson fragments

You are supposed to design lesson fragments (parts of a lesson which focus on a special language training or skills development) and then be able to create a whole lesson plan following the models done.

Part 1. Grammar teaching. Grammar fragments

Choose any grammar topic you like and work out appropriate exercises following the models. Use any materials you want, do not forget to make reference to the authors. In each model you have to start with stating **communicative task**. It is the key issue as every grammar structure possessing appropriate meaning **functions in speech**.

For example, if we want to speak about our dreams in English, we use II Conditional; if we speak about our plans for near future, we do it with the help of Present Continuous Tense, etc.

MODELS OF GRAMMAR FRAGMENTS

Aim: to introduce students the Present Perfect tense

Objectives: to the end of the lesson students will recognize the Present Perfect tense and will be able to correlate the form with its meaning.

Variant 1

Use deductive approach

Variant 2

Use inductive approach

Procedure

Variant 1

Use deductive approach

1. State communicative task. For beginners L1 is desirable.

e.g. Сьогодні ми з вами навчимося повідомляти новини англійською мовою. Новини – це те, що вже сталося, але **результат** має значення зараз, є очевидним зараз і **впливає на сьогодення**.

Наприклад, "Я прочитала цю статтю".

Щоб сказати це англійською, необхідно використати часову форму дієслова в Present Perfect Tense, яка складається з



I have read the article

2. Follow up activities/exercises:

e.g. a) form the Present Perfect Tense with the verbs be, do, have, live etc;

b) read the text and find the verbs in the Present Perfect in it;

c) listen to the text and recognize the verbs in the Present Perfect in it.

Variant 2

Use inductive approach

1. State communicative task. For beginners L1 is desirable.

e.g. Сьогодні ми з вами навчимося повідомляти новини англійською мовою.

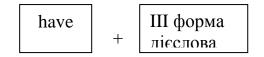
Подивіться на цей короткий діалог, де друзі обмінюються новинами:

- Hello, Steve! I'm glad to see you. How are you?

- Fine, thanks. I have passed my exam today.

2. Inducing the rule from the context:

Яким чином Стів повідомляє свою новину? Яка форма дієслова використовується у цьому реченні?



Це часова форма дієслова Present Perfect Tense, яка нам потрібна, коли ми хочемо повідомити новини один одному.

2. Follow up activities/exercises:

e.g. a) read/ listen to the text and pay attention how people exchange news using the Present Perfect;

B) read/ listen to the text and recognize the verbs in the Present Perfect in it.

Part 2. Vocabulary teaching. Vocabulary fragments

Imagine you are working with Pre-Intermediate students and your next topic is *Food & Drinks*. Your textbook gives the following list of words to work out:

ice-cream, cabbage, pepper, lettuce, aubergines, strawberries, lobster, carrots, prawns, mushrooms, crab, cake, pumpkin, chicken, turkey, sausages, grapefruit juice, lamb chops, steak, ham, milk, cheese, grapes, salmon, beans, yoghurt, trout, pineapple, pear, peach, artichoke, garlic, onion, mussels

Your aim/objective is to make students *recognize* the words proposed while reading and listening, then *reproduce /pronounce* them correctly and *use* in speech situations both orally and in written form.

In order to achieve the aim **design** or **find** in teaching materials **a set of exercises** to *present* and *practice* the items using those ways from listed below which best fit to your aim:

- 1. Realia and visual.
- 2. Word-building.
- 3. Matching.
- 4. Guessing from context.
- 5. Demonstrating.
- 6. Synonyms.
- 7. Familiar or famous words.
- 8. Examples.

9. Pictograms.

- 10. Translating.
- 11. Mind-maps & spider-grams
- 12. Crosswords
- 13. Definitions
- 14. Elicitations
- 15. Using dictionaries

Do not forget to make reference to the authors whose materials you have used.

Part 3. Teaching listening. Listening fragments

Find a text for listening and work out stages of listening comprehension based on the model done.

Pre-listening activities

Design 2-3 exercises (activities) aimed at facilitating listening to the text proposed. *For example,* the firsttwo exercises proposed below introduces the topic of the target text and prepares the listeners for its comprehension, while the third focuses their attention on the text itself. The learners are supposed to work in pairs and predict the answers to the questions.

1. **Preparation exercise**. Introduction to the topic *Beauty*. The teacher proposes the situation to discuss:

Being attractive is like being rich — it can help you find happiness, but it doesn't always make you happy. What is your own opinion about attractiveness? Why do people want to be attractive? What is an interesting face?

Learners share their opinions on the topic.

2. **Preparation exercise**. Introduction to the topic *Jobs & Professions*. The teacher proposes the situation to discuss:

Which factor is the most crucial when looking for a new job? Rank the following points in terms of importance and then discuss your reasons:

opportunities for promotion	working hours
vacation days	pension plan
interest level	salary
perks and bonuses	safety

3. **Prediction activity**. Students are proposed to guess the content of the recording after reading the title of it or looking at the pictures, then predicting vocabulary that may be used in the text, etc.

While-listening activities

Design 1-2 tests aimed at checking the learners' comprehension.

For example, propose true-false or multiple-choice tests:

True-false statements. You will be given cards with true-false statements. Please read these statements attentively. When listening try to decide whether these statements are true (T), false (F), or impossible to know (IK) according to the passage:

- 1. Everyone wants to be attractive.
- 2. Most beautiful people are unhappy.
- 3. No one likes to talk to a very pretty woman.
- 4. Some people think that handsome men are unintelligent.
- 5. Attractive men and women are usually intelligent.
- 6. Ugly people are not happy people.
- 7. A plain face is easily forgotten.
- 8. Not many interesting people are also attractive.

(Now pupils compare their answers in pairs/groups)

Follow up

Making corrections. The teacher checks the answers and corrects the statements which are wrong.

Post-listening activity

Design 2-3 activities aimed at checking the learners' comprehension and encouraging their speaking or writing skills as a *follow up activity*.

For example, organize a discussion or exchange of opinions based on the content of the text, propose some questions or proverbs (as in the example below) for such a discussion.

Look at these English proverbs and agree/disagree with them:

- a) Your face is your fortune.
- b) Beauty lies in lover's eyes.
- Match the proverbs to their equivalents:

Beauty and the beast	спящая красавица
Beauty is but skin-deep	в этом то вся прелесть
Beauty is in the eye of the gazer	наружность обманчива
Sleeping beauty	не по хорошему мил, а по милу
	хорош
That's the beauty of it	красавица и чудовище

Part 4. Teaching reading. Reading fragments

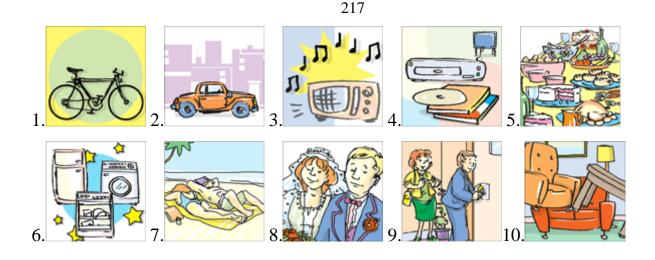
Find the text for reading comprehension and work out your lesson fragment according to the model done.

Pre-reading activities. Design 2-3 exercises (activities) aimed at facilitating reading the text proposed. Examples are done below.

1. Preparation exercise (vocabulary revision or presentation/ grammar acquisition).

Sample instructions:

1. Look at the pictures below and match the words with the pictures. *honeymoon, bicycle, car, DVD player, banquet, apartment, household appliances, studio wedding photos, radio, furniture*



2. Work in pairs and look at the pictures again. Which of them are wedding gifts? Do you think they are good wedding gifts? Put a tick beside the things you would like to be given.

3. Working in groups find as many words as possible connected with wedding. Then each group presents the words.

4. Answer the question: "What would you change if you had the chance to be/were____?" using the structures "If I had the chance..." and "If I were ...". Discuss the answers in pairs.

2. Prediction activity. Students are proposed to guess the content of the text after reading the title of it or looking at the pictures.

Sample instructions:

1. Read the headings A-H and the title of the article. What do you expect to read in the text? Read the article and check your guesses.

2. Look at the pictures before the text on page _____ and try to predict what the text is going to be about. Exchange your ideas in pairs.

While-reading activities. Design 1-2 tests (true-false / multiple-choice/completion) aimed at checking the learners' comprehension; propose exercises for scanning and/or skimming reading if the text is for rapid comprehension.

Sample instructions:

1. **Scan the text** about television in the USA and find out what the following abbreviations stand for: ABC, CBS, NBC, PBS, CNN, HBO, FCC.

2. Read the text and underline the if-clauses. (**Scanning** reading aimed at grammar training).

3. Look through the text and find out what the numbers done below refer to:
1 in 7 9 72% 1% 5 1 in 100 57% 1 in 5
3. Look through the text and tell about the main message of it. (Skimming reading).
4. Read the text under the title "*The answer is blowing in the wind*". There are missing sentences in the text – your task is to fill in the sentences below the text which best fit each paragraph. (Completion test)

5. Read the newspaper article on how fathers take part in looking after their children.
Choose the best answer (a, b, c or d) to the questions done. (Multiple-choice test)
6. Read the text on animals living in Canada and mark the statements done below as true or false (T/F) according to it. (True or false test)

Post-reading activities

Sample instructions:

1. **Role play** (after the text devoted to TV). Divide into groups of four and make conversations which can be between children and their parents who are persuading them that:

a) playing outside is better than playing computer games;

b) reading books is better than watching TV.

2. **Vocabulary practice**. Complete the sentences with the new words from the text. Compare with your partner.

- I prefer independent travel/package holidays because ...

- I'd rather spend a week on a sandy beach/in a historical capital/in the tropical rainforest because ...

- When I'm on holiday I want to *have an unforgettable journey/have fun and relax* because ...

- I'd prefer to go sightseeing/experience the local culture because ...

3. **Grammar practice**. Vicky is telling Mr Robinson her story. Put the verbs in brackets into the correct tense. Choose from this list:

the past simple the past continuous the past perfect the present perfect the present perfect continuous

Mr Robinson How long have you been in London, Vicky?

4. **Speaking practice**. Discussion based on the text devoted to the problems of endangered species:

What animal can you associate yourself with? Why? Imagine that you are only one step away from total extinction. Ask people for help. Use such words: *to hatch; tusks; natural habitat; ecosystems; to die out; pollution; toxic wastes; greenhouse effect; changes in climate; ozone layer; ecology; destruction; environment; resources; wildlife.*

What is the difference between animals in zoos and animals in the wild. Agree or disagree with the following statements:

Animals are free in zoos.

Animals get medical care in zoos.

Animals live very happy lives in zoos.Animals don't have food in zoos.Animals are protected from hunters in zoos.Animals are in their natural habitat in zoos.Animals are not protected from extinction in zoos.Animals are lonely in zoos.

Appendix 2. Sample aims and objectives to English lesson

Variant 1.

Objectives to the lesson on the topic *People's Appearance. Beauty* **for preintermediate students**

Practical

- to revise and practice vocabulary on the topic "Beauty";
- to prepare learners for group work by listening to the text;
- to make learners participate in common conversational exchange about the topic of the lesson, development of dialogical speech.

Developmental

- to develop communicative abilities of learners and their collaborative skills.

Educational

- to make learners understand that the attitude of people to a person depends on many things: his/her age, body, mind, manners, behaviour, abilities, character and appearance;
- to develop the chief and most important traits of person's character, which are vital for communication and understanding each other.

Cultural

- to broaden learners' idea of beauty and its elements.

Variant 2.

Objectives to the lesson on the topic *Celebrations, festivals & events* **for preintermediate students**

Practical

- to enrich students' vocabulary on the topic *Traditional celebrations, festive activities, feelings* while reading and listening;
- to improve students' speaking skills in dialogical mode;
- to train grammar structures of conditional sentences.

Developmental

- to develop learners' memory while practicing new vocabulary;
- to develop collaborative skills working in pairs and groups.

Educational/ Cultural

- to broaden students' knowledge about wedding celebrations in different countries.

Variant 3.

Objectives to the lesson on the topic *Every man to his taste: what kind of sport are you keen on?* **for intermediate students**

Практична мета:

- підготувати учнів до читання;
- практикувати в учнів навичку читання мовчки на основі статті Daredevil Shaun; вчити аналізувати текст за допомогою тестової вправи на розуміння, складання таблиці та обговорення прочитаного;
- навчити учнів висловлювати своє власнє ставлення до проблеми описаної у статті у письмовій формі;
- закріплення нових слів за темою «Спорт» за допомогою їх активного використання на уроці.

Розвивальна мета:

- розвиток правильної вимови нових слів та уміння правильно використовувати їх у мовленні;
- привчати учнів до роботи у парах та малих групах;
- розвивати короткострокову та довгострокову пам'ять за допомогою постійного використання активної лексики уроку;
- розвивати увагу при читанні та аналізуванні тексту.

Освітня мета:

 ознайомити з видами спорту, їх корисністю та ризиком, що їх супроводжує;

Виховна мета:

 виховувати в учнів інтерес до вивчення іноземної мови (англійської), спираючись на їх спортивні вподобання.

Varient 4.

Objectives to the lesson on the topic *Hollidays* **for intermediate students**

Practical:

- to improve students' productive skills in monological speech while presenting their plans and intentions as to the nearest holidays;
- to practice grammar structures and language formulas expressing arranged future actions;
- to practice new words and expressions on the target topic.

Developmental

- to develop students' co-operation in problem-solving activities.

Educational:

- to develop learners' creativity in presenting their ideas and projects;
- to teach students to be tolerant to other people's opinions.

Cultural:

- to enrich students' knowledge on the topical issues;
- to broaden students' outlook.

Appendix 3. Sample lesson plans

Sample 1

The sample lesson plan aimed at teaching the little ones – pre-school children

Тема: "Fruit and vegetables"

Цілі:

1) тренувати дітей у вимовлянні звуків [æ],[ə],[εә];

2) ввести нові слова-назви фруктів: an apple, a pear, an orange, a lemon, a banana, a plum;

3) практикувати дітей відповідати на питання типу: "Is this a plum?";

4) розучити пісню "I have a pear".

Хід заняття

1.Привітання. Діти вітаються з вчителем, використовуючи знайомий їм віршик "Good morning":

Good morning, good morning,

Good morning to you.

Good morning, good morning

I'm glad to see you.

2.Мовленнєва розминка. Вчитель пропонує дітям пригадати казочку про пана Язичка і потренуватися правильно вимовляти деякі англійські звуки:

В: Одного разу пан Язичок захворів і почав гучно кашляти: [k]-[k]-[k].

Діти імітують звуки, які промовляє вчитель.

В: Потім він пішов до лікаря, відкрив рот і показав йому горло: [a:]-[a:]-[a:]

Діти повторюють за вчителем відповідний звук і слово, в якому він є.

В: Лікар попросив відкрити ротик ширше: [æ]-[æ]-[æ].

Вчитель пропонує дітям зробити те саме.

В: Лікар дав панові Язичкові смачні льодяники проти кашлю і запевнив, що з його горлом скоро все буде гаразд.

3.Введення нового матеріалу.

В гості до дітей завітав англійський ведмедик Winnie-the-Pooh і приніс з собою книжечку а book (використовуємо зображення ведмедика на малюнку або іграшку):

-I have a book for you. В мене ε книга для вас.

-A very interesting book. Дуже цікава книга.

-With nice pictures. З гарними малюнками.

Діти дякують ведмедикові за подарунок:

-Thank you, Winnie-the-Pooh!

Далі відкриваємо книжку на сторінці, де зображені фрукти – fruits. Діти повторюють за Вінні Пухом нові для них слова: an apple, a pear, an orange, a banana, a lemon, a plum. Вінні Пух звертає увагу дітей на те, що англійською фрукти називаються fruits.

Для мимовільного запам'ятовування дітьми нової лексики проговорюємо слова з різною силою голосу (тихо, нормально, голосно).

Для того, щоб впевнитися, що діти правильно сприйняли й зрозуміли нову вербальну інформацію, використаємо такі ігри:

Гра "Show"

В: Діти, я - покупець у крамниці, а ви – продавці. Я називатиму товар, а ви підніматимете картку, на якій він зображений (перед грою кожна дитина отримує картки з зображенням фруктів).

Для цієї ж цілі використаємо ще одну гру, за допомогою якої можна також тренувати дітей давати коротку стверджувальну або заперечну відповідь на загальні запитання типу "Is this a pear?":

Гра-діалог "Yes or no?"

Вчитель бере картку з зображенням певного фрукта і запитує:

-Is this a lemon?

Діти відповідають:

-Yes, it is/No, it is not.

Відповіді можуть бути хорові або індивідуальні. Діалог може бути як між вчителем та учнями, так і між самими учнями.

4. Фізкультпауза.

Вчитель пропонує дітям трішки відпочити і порухатися разом з Вінні Пухом. Учні виконують вправи, повторюючи команди вчителя й ведмедика англійською мовою:

-Stand up! Hands up! Hands down! Hands on hips! Sit down! Stand up!

5.Розучування пісеньки "I have a pear"

Вінні Пух пропонує дітям вивчити пісеньку про фрукти. Він наспівує її на мелодію пісні "В траве сидел кузнечик":

-I have, I have a pear, (3t)

A pear and a plum.

-Do you have a pear? (2t)

-Yes, I have a pear.

-Do you have a pear? (2t)

-No, I have a plum.

Пісня супроводжується жестами і показом муляжів фруктів.

Далі діти проговорюють пісеньку речитативом і співають її разом з Вінні Пухом. В разі потреби можна перекласти пісеньку.

6.Закріплення нового матеріалу. «Музичний сеанс»

Затемнюються вікна. Діти сідають на стільчики, заплющують очі і під тиху музику вчитель чітко і спокійно читає матеріал заняття. Потім діти розплющують очі і намагаються пригадати, які саме слова вони почули під час музичного сеансу.

7.Домашнє завдання.

Намалювати фрукти, які згадувалися на занятті.

Sample 2

Час: 45 хвилин

Рівень: Elementary

Тема: What we like doing.

Практична мета:

- опрацювання вивченої лексики за темою *Спорт та спортивні ігри* в усному мовленні та тренінг орфографічних навичок;
- ознайомлення учнів з новою лексикою теми та закріплення її за допомогою творчих завдань і читання;
- навчити вживати конструкцію I like.../ I don't like...

Розвивальна мета:

- розвиток взаємодопомоги, вміння спілкуватися в парах та малих групах.

Освітня мета:

- ознайомити учнів з різними видами спортивних змагань.

Виховна мета:

- стимулювати інтерес учнів до вивчення нового матеріалу за допомогою ігрових завдань та спільного навчання.

Обладнання:

- тематичні малюнки;
- картки для самостійної роботи.

Хід уроку

I. Підготовка до сприйняття іншомовного мовлення

1. Привітання й повідомлення теми та мети уроку.

Т: Сьогодні ви навчитеся розповідати про те, що ви любите та що не любите робити у вільний час.

2. Введення в іншомовну атмосферу (Warming up).

Гра "Hidden words". Учитель роздає картки й просить учнів знайти слова, пов'язані з темою "Спортивні ігри". Учні обводять слова олівцем і по черзі називають слова, які знайшли.

(НО1) Знайди та обведи знайомі тобі слова теми "Спортивні ігри".

D	В	A	S	K	E	Т	В	A	L	L	Η
G	F	J	Р	Х	N	Y	S	E	D	Ι	0
0	D	V	0	L	L	E	Y	В	A	L	L
L	K	С	R	Ι	С	K	E	Т	E	A	Μ
F	0	0	Т	В	А	L	L	Р	E	L	N

II. Основна частина уроку

1. Опрацювання лексичного матеріалу, вивченого учнями на попередніх уроках.

- Γpa "Words without vowels" (Pair-work).

Учні в парах складають один для одного завдання: пишуть назви спортивних ігор, пропускаючи голосні літери. Партнер повинен відновити слово.

- Усна бесіда у змінних парах (технологія шеренги, що рухаються).

Ряд запитань: What's the English for "футбол"/, волейбол"/, команда" та iн.? Can you spell the word, please?

Ряд відповідей: Football. F-o-o-t-b-a-l-l, etc.

Аналогічно повторюються й назви інших видів спорту та спортивної термінології.

- Словниковий диктант у формі *peer dictation*. (Group work of 3-4 students)

Один із учнів читає слова, що записані на окремій картці, інші члени групи записують їх у зошитах.

T: Cricket, tennis, football, volleyball, basketball, team, golf.

Перевірка відбувається в парах: учні обмінюються зошитами й перевіряють диктанти один одного, звіряючись із ключем.

2. Подання нового лексичного матеріалу.

Усна бесіда в режимі Т→ P1-P2 etc із використанням опорних карток та малюнків. Наприклад:

T: In the *Greenwoods Summer Camp* children have a lot of fun. What can they do in the camp?

P1-P2 etc: They can play football / volleyball / baskeball / tennis / table tennis.

T: What else can children do in the *Greenwoods Summer Camp?*

Для того, щоб дати відповідь на запитання, подивимось на малюнки.

Учитель читає нові слова, просить учнів здогадатися про їх значення та

сказати їх українською мовою: учні хором повторюють за вчителем.

- Закріплення нового лексичного матеріалу.

Учитель роздає учням картки з малюнками й просить скласти

словосполучення. Наприклад, ride a bike. Учні самостійно складають,

потім читають їх і перекладають українською мовою.

(НО2) Склади словосполучення з поданих слів

ride	a picture	a kite	paint	fly
TV	music	listen to	table	tennis
watch	chess	a cartoon	a bike	play

3. Робота з читання та опрацювання структури I like doing/ He likes doing

- Етап підготовки до читання (Pre-reading)

Усна бесіда за малюнками до тексту.

T: Look at the picture. Whom can you see? Can we tell what they like doing? What does the girl with black / brown / fair hair like doing?

- Етап читання (While-reading).

T: Read the dialogue and tell which of the girls in the picture is Alice, which is Stella and which is Paula.

Учні читають про себе діалог і відповідають на запитання.

- Етап перевірки розуміння змісту тексту (Post-reading).

T: What does Alice / Stella / Paula like doing?

- Рольова гра (Follow up stage).

Учитель розподіляє клас на групи по три учні й роздає картки для групової роботи, наприклад:

(НОЗ) Складіть діалоги за поданою інформацією

P1 likes playing football.P2 likes riding a bike.P3 offers to play football & then ride bikes.

Учні складають діалоги за поданим зразком:

P1: Hey, boys! Let's go out and play football.

P2: I don't like playing football. I like riding a bike.

P3: Let's play football. Then we can ride a bike.

4. Вживання конструкцій I like.../ I don't like....

- Усна бесіда у режимі T-Class.

T: Do you like painting / reading etc?

Учні відповідають, використовуючи конструкції *I like.../ I don't like....*

- Робота в парах. Учитель роздає картки для парної роботи. (Даний вид діяльності краще проводити у змінних парах, наприклад, за технологією *mingling activity*)

(HO4) Запитай свого однокласника, що він любить робити. Постав у таблиці "+" чи "-".

	painting	playing tennis	watching sports	skiing
Do you like				

Учні повинні повідомити, а потім запитати один одного про те, що вони люблять робити. Наприклад:

P1: I like painting. Do you?

P2: Yes, I do. I like playing chess. Do you?

P1: No, I don't.

Після цього кожний учень заповнює таблицю стосовно себе й його друга й письмово складає речення за зразком:

P1: I like painting and my friend likes painting. I like playing chess, but my friend doesn't like playing chess.

Учитель вибірково просить учнів прочитати речення, які вони склали.

Наприкінці уроку він збирає зошити й перевіряє правильність написання слів і побудови речень.

- Опрацювання даної структури за вправою підручника та складання подібних речень про себе:

P1: I like reading. I don't like painting.

- Робота в парах. Учні усно складають діалоги за зразком вправи.

III. Заключна частина уроку

1. Домашнє завдання.

Скласти 10 речень з новими словами, використовуючи структуру I like.../ I don't like...

2. Підведення підсумків уроку.

Відбувається бесіда за схемою Т→ Р1, Р2, Р3.

Т: Чому цей урок був корисний для вас? Чому ви навчилися? Що

було найцікавішим? Яке завдання було найскладнішим?

Sample 3

Time: 45 minutes

Level: Pre-Intermediate

Topic: Second Conditional on the basis of the topic "Dreams and reality".

Aims and objectives:

- to introduce and practise the Second Conditional in all four skills (speaking, listening, reading, writing);
- to practice language formulas of agreeing and disagreeing in conversational exchange;
- to develop students' predictive skills and imagination speaking about unreal but attractive things;

- make students listen to the instructions carefully, develop their abilities to concentrate on important issues;
- develop students' creativity via drawing.

Equipments: board with an arrow, grammar poster on the blackboard, handouts, tape recorder, Soars Liz & John. Headway. Pre-intermediate: Student's Book

Procedure

I. Greetings. Introducing the topic and aims.

At the end of the lesson students will be able to understand statements in the Second Conditional and to speak about their dreams using the structure.

II. Warming-up.

Teacher gives the students HO1 with the picture of two kids and asks to listen to the recording where the kids tell about how they live.

HO1

Tanya, aged 7	Graham, aged 9
I live in a block of flats with	I live in a cottage in a village near
my Mum and a little brother.	Glasgow. My Dad in unemployed
My Mum works in a hospital,	and my Mum works in a pub in a city.
and so my Gran often looks	I go to the village school. I walk to
after us and helps my Mum.	school with my friend. We often play
I go to the St. Paul's School	football together. I have a cat and
and I wear a blue and grey	some chickens.
uniform.	

Then the teachers asks the students to predict the children's dreams about their lives if *Tanya, aged 7* and *Graham, aged 9* want to be from a royal family.

Suggested answers

I think *Tanya* dreams about living in a big castle with a lot of servants, to have beautiful dresses and go to fantastic parties, etc.

III. The main body of the lesson.

1. Introducing the Second Conditional using the inductive approach. Teacher proposes the students to look at HO2 where the same kids tell *if*-stories dreaming about their origin from a royal family.

HO2

Tanya, aged 7 If...if I were a princess, I would live in a palace. If I lived in a palace, I would have servants to look after me. My Mum would be the Queen, and she wouldn't work. I wouldn't go to school, I would have a governess. I would ride a white horse and I would wear a long dress and a gold crown. Graham, aged 9 If...if I were a prince, I would live in a castle. My Dad would be the King, and my Mum wouldn't work in a pub. A chauffeur would get me to school. I would play polo on a white horse. I would have peacocks in my garden.

Teacher concentrates the students' attention on the grammar of the passage.

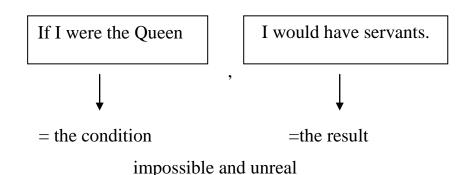
In the phrase *If I lived in a castle*... the word "*lived*" is in the Past Simple. It is the *If*clause which contains the condition (умову). The main clause contains the result of the condition *I would have servants to look after me*.

Teacher elicits the answers whether the students see the peculiarity of the form and asks the students to fill in the gaps in the rule which they have on their HO3.

HO3

The Second Conditional is formed with **If** + *the* ______*Tense*, *the auxiliary verb* + *the* ______*without* **to**.

While the students fill in the gaps the teacher puts the rule with the examples on the blackboard. In two minutes the students may check and correct their mistakes. *Examples*, The Second Conditional expresses an unreal situation and its results.



2. Practicing the new grammar structure.

Activity 1. Teacher has a board with an arrow in the middle. On the board the students may see a first part of the conditional sentence and their task will be to finish the sentence using their imagination.

- 1) If I found some money on the street...
- 2) If I were the President of Ukraine...
- 3) If I had a lot of money...
- 4) If I won 10.000 hryvnias...
- 5) If I spoke perfect English...
- 6) If I were on holiday...
- 7) If I had a car...
- 8) If I were taller...

Activity 2. Imagine you are dreaming about the situations given. Discuss with your partner and put the words in the correct form, *Past Simple* or *would*.

a) If I.....(be) rich, I.....(travel) around the world.

b) I don't like Hollywood. I.....(not live) there if I.....(be) a film star.

c) I.....(go) to work if I.....(not feel) so ill, but I feel awful.

- d) What......you do if your baby.....(fall) into the water?
- e) If I.....(have) more free time, I.....(not waste) it. I (learn) another language.

3. Speaking part. Dreams.

Teacher talk introducing the next stage of lesson:

Some people say that they never night dream. But that is hardly possible. Everybody has dreams and at least some of your dreams you remember. So, why do we dream? Are dreams important? The experts tell us that the images in our dreams have special meaning, and they can help us to understand our inner personality.

Activity 1. Group discussion on the questions:

- 1) Did you dream last night? Can you remember what your dream about?
- 2) Do you often dream? Do you often have the same dream?
- 3) Do you think dreams are important? Why?

Activity 2. Listening. The dream game. The students listen to the instructions and draw.

- 1. You are sleeping and you are dreaming. In your dream you find yourself in your perfect house. What is it like? Describe it in details (is it light or dark, how many rooms it has).
- 2. Now you are walking along a narrow path. Suddenly you find a cup/ glass/ drinking vessel on the ground in front of you. What is it like? What is in it?
- 3. Now the path ends and you are walking in a wood. You walk quite a long way until you find a clearing. In the middle of the clearing is a building. What sort of building is it?
- 4. Around the building there is a garden. Describe the garden.
- 5. You walk out of the garden and through the wood. At the edge of the wood there is a wall. The wall is too high to climb over, and it is too long to walk round. Suddenly you notice a small door in the wall. It slowly opens as you watch. What do you do? Do you go through the door?
- 6. On the other side of the wall is water. What does it look like? Do you want to swim in it?

Activity 3. Reading. The students are given the text with the interpretation of their drawings (HO4). They have to read and agree or disagree with the interpretation of their personality.

HO4

The house: the house is your idea of yourself. If your house is old, you probably do not like change, you like traditional things. If your house is large, it means you are quite confident, with a high opinion of yourself. If it is filled with light, you are optimistic. If it is dark, you are pessimistic. The number of rooms is the number of people you want in your life.

The cup: the cup is your idea of love. The more beautiful and valuable the cup, the more important love is in your life. You are a romantic person. The contents of the cup show what your experience of love has been so far.

The building: the building is your idea of religion and God. A strong building is a strong belief. A ruin would mean a lack of belief.

The garden: this is your idea of the world around you, your country, or the whole world. If the plants and flowers in your garden are dying, this might mean that you are worried about the environment and pollution in the world.

The wall: this is your idea of death. Is it the end or is there something after it? Do you go straight through the little door? Do you look and check before you go? Or don't you want to go through at all?

The water: the water is your idea of the future. If there is a sea with big waves, you feel positive and excited about your future. If you want to swim, you feel confident and want to take risks. If the water is a stagnant pool, you might fear your future and the future of the world.

Activity 4. Pair work. The students discuss the results of their drawings and give the commentaries using Conditionals.

Example,

If my house were old, I wouldn't probably like change, I would like traditional things. But I drew a new house, etc.

IV. Round off activity. Feedback stage.

Teacher: - What have we done today?

- Which activity did you like the best? Why?

Home assignment: to write a brief story continuing the phrase: *If I were a prince/ princess*...

Sample 4

Time: 45 min

Level: Intermediate

Topic: Informal/Formal letters

Objectives:

Practical:

- to present and compare different types of letters according to their style;
- to improve student's understanding of typical grammar and vocabulary of each style.

Educational:

- to enrich the students' vocabulary with the useful expressions to be employed while writing a letter;
- to teach students to discern between styles of writing.

Cultural:

 to get students acquainted with the cultural peculiarities of writing letters in English.

Equipment: charts, letter samples

Procedure

I.Introduction. Greeting. Ice-breaker.

- Announcing the topic and the aim of the lesson. By the end of the lesson the students will have been aware of stylistic differencies between formal and informal letters and will have written an informal letter to a friend.

II. Warming-up

The teacher presents the definition of a word and asks students to guess the word T: I will give you the definition of a word from the dictionary. Guess what word is.

A piece of paper that you write a message on and send to someone The teacher elicits the answer. Expected answer: The Letter

The teacher asks the class some questions. Mode of interaction: TEACHER-CLASS (T-Cl)

a. Do you often write letters?

b. Do you send letters?

c. How often do you receive letters?

d. Do you like to write letters?

e. When did people use to write letters more – in the 20^{th} or in the 21^{st} century?

f. Which kinds of letters are widespread today?

Possible answers:

e. it was popular in the 20th century more

f. electronic mail

III. The main body of the lesson.

The teacher gives out two sample letters to each student. They are to skim the letters and decide which of them is formal/informal. The letters are discussed in pairs and the results are reported to the teacher .

Letter 1

Dear Ben,

Sorry that I haven't written for ages, but I've been very busy studying. I'm writing because I'd really like your advice about a problem I have.

My friends and I have decided to go away on holiday in the summer, but I don't have enough money. I was wondering if you had any ideas about earning some extra cash. If I don't save up enough money by August, I'll have to go away with Mum and Dad instead. Can you think of anything that would help me to make some money quickly?

I know that you always have lots of great ideas. What would you advise me to do? Please write back as soon as you can.

Lots of love,

Mary

Letter 2

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am writing with regard to your advertisement for holidays on Mars, which I saw in 'The Daily Gazette' on 24th July. I am very interested in a weekend break to Mars. However, I would like some more information first.

I would be grateful if you could let me know the exact cost of a three-day trip during the summer, including transportation and accommodation, for two adults and two children (aged twelve and fourteen).

Secondly, I wonder if you could send me further information about the facilities, which are available at the Martian Hotel. My daughter would particularly like to know whether there is a nightclub.

Could you also confirm that we will not require either injections or passports? I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours faithfully,

Steve Knight

The teacher asks students questions and elicits immediate answers. The mode of interaction is T-CL.

T: Which of these letters is formal and which is informal?

What is the beginning of the formal letter? [Dear Sir/Madam]

How is the informal letter initiated? [Dear Ben]

How is the end realized in each of the letters? [Lots of love, Mary vs. Yours faithfully, Steve Knight]

The teacher splits the class into two groups, discussing the reasons for writing such letters. The students are given handouts containing questions. Both groups delegate members to write down the reasons or formal and informal letter on the blackboard.

What is the main reason for an informal letter:

- To apologize
- To ask for advice
- To get information

• To ask for a favour

What is the main reason for an formal letter:

- To complain
- To apply for a job
- To receive information on the ad
- To demand payment

Feedback: Class-teacher, student-student

Students' individual work with the texts. After the work has been done, the results are discussed in pairs. Feedback: Student-Student, Student-Teacher

- 1. Underline with the solid line (_____) the over-formal constructions
- 2. Underline with the broken line (_ _ _ _ _) the parts that sound like someone speaking rather than writing.
- 3. Box like this ______ the contracted forms.
- **A.** Students are being involved into the mingling activity. Each student gets a strip of paper with a beginning or an ending of a letter. They are to find the right correspondence and match beginnings and endings of different letters.

• Many thanks. 1 look forward to		
hearing from you in the near future.		
Yours faithfully,		
James Fox		
• We apologize for the inconvenience		
and will have pleasure in processing		
your order as soon as we receive the		
additional amount.		
Yours sincerely.		
Thames Valley Computer Software		
• It would be lovely to see you some		
time. Do you ever come to London?		
We could meet for lunch.		
Love Pat		
• Let me know asap.		
All the best,		
Martin		
• Can't wait to see you. Let's hope it		
stays fine.		
Love to Ellie. See you then.		
Deborah		

Which of these are informal?

The students get into pairs and decide which of the sentences are written informally.

Then, they discuss the variants in the class. Feedback: St-St, Cl-T

Which of the following sentences are written in informal style?

- 1) I'm writing to see how you're getting on in your new flat. Informal
- 2) I look forward to receiving a prompt reply.

- 4) What are you up to this summer?
- 5) We're having a fantastic time here at the camp.
- 6) Would it be possible for you to attend the club's annual meeting next month'

7) You'd never believe how well I've been getting on at school.

The students read the sample letter and choose the phrases appropriate to the style of the letter. After the letter has been completed, the group checking is employed. Students check their variants in groups. Feedback: St-St, Cl-T.

Dear (I) Sam/Mr Thompson,

Thanks for your letter. It was (2) really good/a pleasure to hear from you! I (3) am sorry/regret to hear that you didn't pass your German exam, but (4) never mind/you have no need to worry. You'll just have to work harder next time!

Things here are (5) satisfactory/fine. School is the same as ever — except I've discovered that I quite like English! I've decided (6) to take up a career/to get a job in tourism when I'm older. (7) I have a further point./Oh, and another thing! Guess what? Martha and Von are getting married! (8) I can't wait./I look forward to their wedding.

I think that's all for now. (9) I wonder if you could inform me/Tell me all about your holiday to America. I bet it was fantastic.

Must go now. Keep in touch.

(10)Yours sincerely/All the best,

John

IV. Summing up. Home assignment: (Laser Intermediate Workbook by M. Desypri and J. Stournanra, p.8, ex. 1-3).

Textbooks used

Mann, Malcolm. Laser Intermediate. Student's Book. - 2005.- Macmillan **Publishers**

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Soars, Liz and John. New Headway Intermediate. Third Edition. - 2007.-

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Sample 5

Time: 45 min

Level: Upper-intermediate

Topic: Jobs and Professions

Objectives:

- to extend vocabulary on the topic and practise it both in receptive and productive speech in various situations;
- to make students understand contextual meaning of words;
- to improve coherent descriptive speech characterizing various kinds of jobs;
- to practise reading and listening skills;
- to develop students' abilities to work co-operatively enhancing team spirit.

Equipment:

tape-recorder

Lesson Procedure

I Preparation for understanding the topic of the lesson 2 min

1. Announcement of the topic of the lesson and the aims of the lesson.

By the end of the lesson the learners should be able:

- to understand the meaning of the new words and use them correctly in various situations;
- to characterize various kinds of jobs;
- to understand contextual meaning of the words given.

Warm-up (preparation for foreign language speaking and introduction to the topic of the lesson). The activity is done in T-St mode, when teacher elicits information.

Teacher: "How do we call work that someone does to earn money?"

- a job.

T: "Who has a job that requires advanced education or training?

- a professional.

T: "How do we call the development and progress in person's professional life?" - a career.

II The main part of the lesson

38 min

Vocabulary practice

1. Revising vocabulary (*HO1*). Group or pair-work activity.

Teacher gives students cards with different types of jobs and their definitions. Students should match jobs with appropriate definitions:

HO1

1.boss	a) a person who works in an office, bank or law court and whose job is to look after records or accounts
2.secretary	b) a person responsible for running part of or the whole of a business organization
3.manager	c) a person whose job is to answer the telephone, arrange reservations or appointments, and deal with people when they first arrive (in a hotel, office or hospital)
4.clerk	d) a person who is employed to do office work, such as typing letters or answering phone calls
5.receptionist	e) a person in charge of the organization or department where you work
6.accountant	f) a person whose job is to keep financial accounts

2. Vocabulary reinforcement. Team work.

Teacher writes a number of adjectives on the blackboard. Students are divided into two teams. The 1^{st} team should name positive qualities for a man of business and the 2^{nd} team name negative characteristics, they should also keep in mind that there are neutral characteristics. Then, they have a small discussion as to their classification:

active willing to relax alert independent respective sophisticated aggressive sincere ambitious extroverted self-reliant consistent willing to travel imaginative adaptable

Reading & Speaking Practice

1. Pre-reading activities

1) Group Discussion. Students are divided into groups of four people. They are asked to share their opinions as to the questions:

Why do you think there is such a vide variety of jobs nowadays?

What factors predetermine the appearance of new types of work?

Why do so many people want to become real professionals in their spheres of work?

2) Overall Discussion

Teacher asks students to describe a good specialist, using the words on the blackboard (*see Task "Vocabulary Reinforcement"*). All students do this task in turns, thus creating a collective portrait of a true professional.

3) Give your definition to the following words (*HO2*). This is an exercise on comprehension of the new words; these words are written on the slips of paper, each student is proposed one slip of paper:

HO2

- butcher
- carpenter
- assembly line
- automation

- design (v)
- qualification

2. While-reading activities

1) Look through the text and fill in the table.

Cause	Consequence
Specialization of work	Creation of different kinds of jobs
	Time-saving and money-saving
	machines are used.
People who are	
unemployed for a long	
time	
	There are lots of opportunities.

Compare your answers with your partner. Then we are going to check the filling in the table.

2) Read the text.

Centuries ago there were only few jobs. People were farmers, bakers, butchers or carpenters, for example. Today work has become so specialized that thousands of different kinds of jobs have been created. Many require very special qualifications. Machines, automation, assembly lines and high technology have created new jobs and killed old ones. Much heavy, dangerous or unpleasant work is now done by time-saving and money-saving machines. Of course, people are needed to design, develop, produce and operate the machines. But those who have to work on an assembly line or at a machine all day, five days a week, sometimes get bored and **frustrated**. Most of them agree that it is still better than being **unemployed**. People who are unemployed for a long time often lose their **self-respect**.

What will work be like in the future? Not only high technology, but also job sharing and more flexible working hours may change **working conditions**. Nobody can be sure which jobs are safe. People now have to go on learning all their lives, so that they can react to a changing job situation. For skilled people there will usually be opportunities – especially if they are willing to move.

3. Post-reading activities

1). Explain words and word-combinations in bold.

2). Define whether the statement is true or false.

- 1. It was a wide range of jobs many years ago.
- 2. New kinds of jobs were created because of global increase of population.
- 3. Repetitious work with machines and other mechanisms makes people get bored and frustrated.
- 4. People stay quite pleased with themselves no matter how long they do not have job.
- 5. We have to learn all our lives in order to go with the times and always changing job situation.

3). Answer the questions:

- 1. Why do people have to create and then operate the machines?
- 2. What working conditions may lead to frustration? Why?
- 3. What do you think is better: a stable, but boring work or temporary unemployment? Why? How can you benefit from these situations? What would you do in both cases?

Listening Practice

1. Listen to the following dialogue

School owner: Why do you want to study computer programming?

Robbie Evans: Well, I lost my job last month, and I haven't been able to find another one.

School owner: I see. Do you have any money?

Robbie Evans: I have some money, and my girlfriend will be able to help me.

School owner: Good. The course costs \$ 5750.

Robbie Evans: Whew! Will I be able to find a job as a computer programmer?

School owner: Oh sure! You'll be able to get a good job and make lots of money. Please sign here. **2. Make a short dialogue of your own.** (One student is an applicant and the other is his future boss).

5 min

III Conclusion

1. Summing-up

T: What have we done today? Was this lesson interesting for you? Why/why not? What have you learned today?

Homework.

Prepare the following presentation (student may choose any):

- 1) The job of my dream.
- 2) Diligent work makes successful career.
- 3) The most popular professions in Ukraine.

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Appendix 4. Tables

The Subject Matter of Methods of Foreign Language Teaching

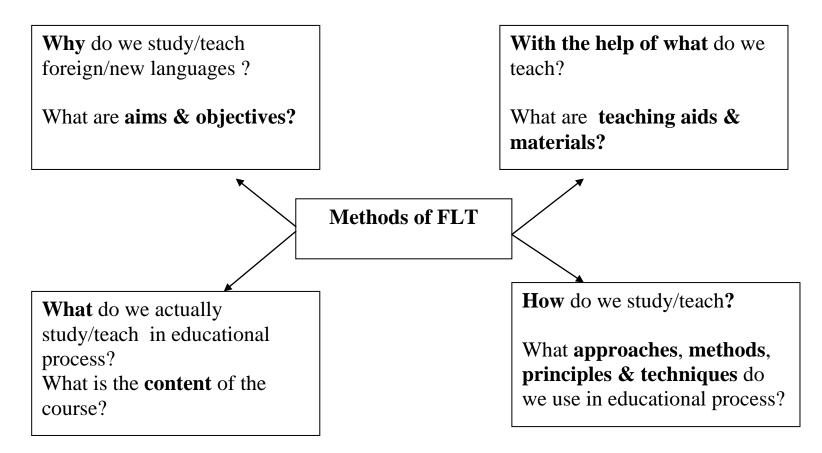


Table 1 (to chapter 1.1)

Aims & Objectives of Teaching English at School

Practical Aim	Educational Aim	Cultural Aim	Developmental Aim
 Acquisition of speech habits and skills on the level available for the target language intercourse; Acquire a foreign language for the same purpose as the native language: to use it as a means of communication, gaining one more code for receiving and conveying information. 	 Deeper insight into the nature and functioning of language as social phenomenon; Development of learner's intellect, memory, imaginative abilities, will power. 	 Promote cultural growth; Educate culture of personal contacts and social intercourse accepted in a modern society; Develop positive attitude to the target language and customs and traditions of the target culture; Upbringing of such valuable traits as kindness, hard-working, tolerance and the like; Develop collaborative skills. 	 Develop: Creative abilities of learners; Critical-thinking skills; Speech facilities (as phonetic and intonation hearing, imitation, logic, linguistic guessing etc.); Provide problem-solving activities.

Table 2 (to chapter 1.1)



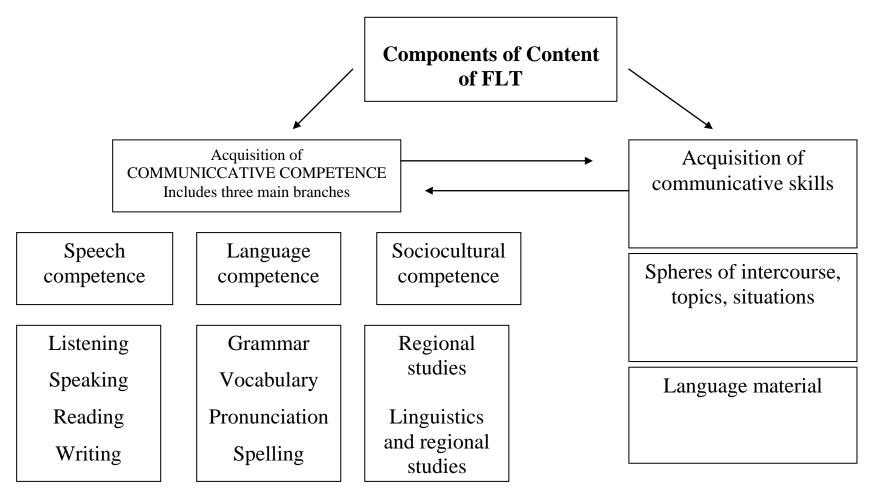
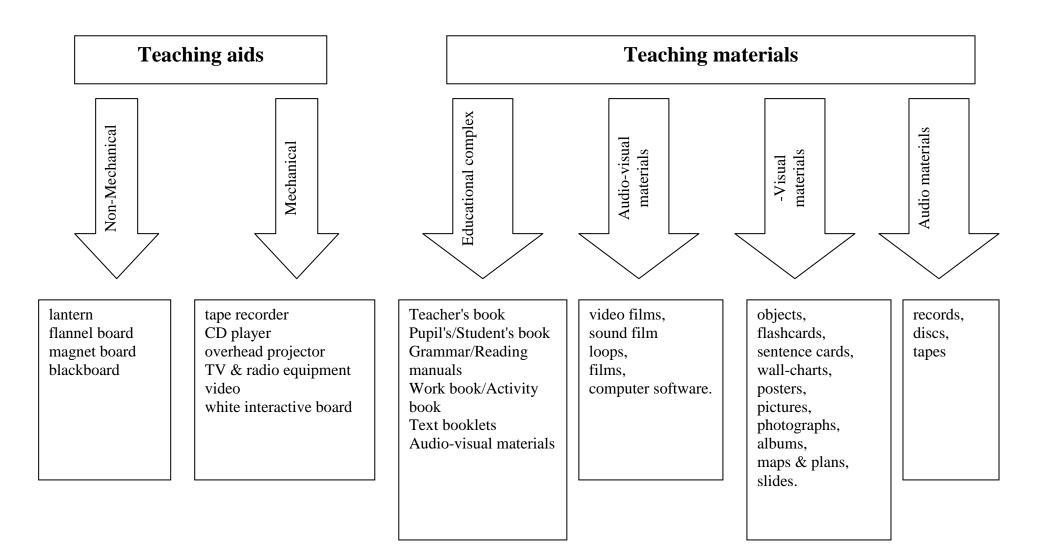


Table 3 (to chapter 1.1)

Teaching aids & materials



Nature of communicative competence

Common European Framework of Reference for Languages	National Educational Standard of Foreign Languages	English Language Programme for 12-year Secondary School (2001)	Foreign Language Programme for 12- year Secondary School (2005)
Linguistic competence	 Language competence; Speech competence. 	Linguistic (speech) competence	Linguistic (speech) competence
Pragmatic competence		Discourse competence;Strategic competence.	Pragmatic competence
Sociolinguistic competence	Sociocultural competence	Sociocultural competence	Sociolinguistic competence;

Table 5 (to chapters 1.2; 2.3)

Communicative language competences of language learners/users

(according to CEF)

Linguistic competences	Sociolinguistic competences	Pragmatic competences
Lexical competence;	Linguistic markers of social	Discourse competences;
Grammatical competence;	relations;	Functional competence.
Semantic competence;	Politeness conventions;	
Phonological competence;	Expressions of folk wisdom;	
Orthographic competence;	Register differences;	
Orthoepic competence.	Dialect and accent.	

Table 6 to chapter 2.3

General competences of language learners/users

(according to CEF)

Attitudes Motivations Values Beliefs	Language and communication awareness General phonetic
Cognitive styles Personality factors	awareness and skills Study skills Heuristic skills
	Personality factors

Table 7 to chapter 2.3

The Common Reference Levels: global scale

Proficient User	C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning.
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns and cohesive devices
User field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of flue makes regular interaction with native speakers quite pos		Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. 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 .
	B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise 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 and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
Basic User	A2 A1	Can 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). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need. Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

Table 8 (to chapters 1.2; 2.3)

The Common Reference Levels. Correlation with the Program of Teaching Foreign Languages in Ukraine

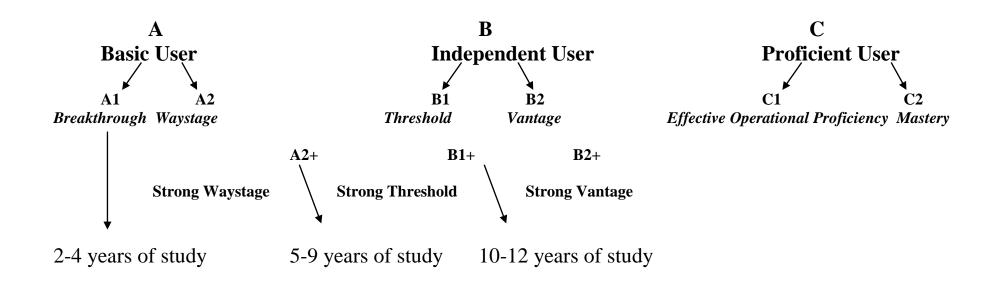
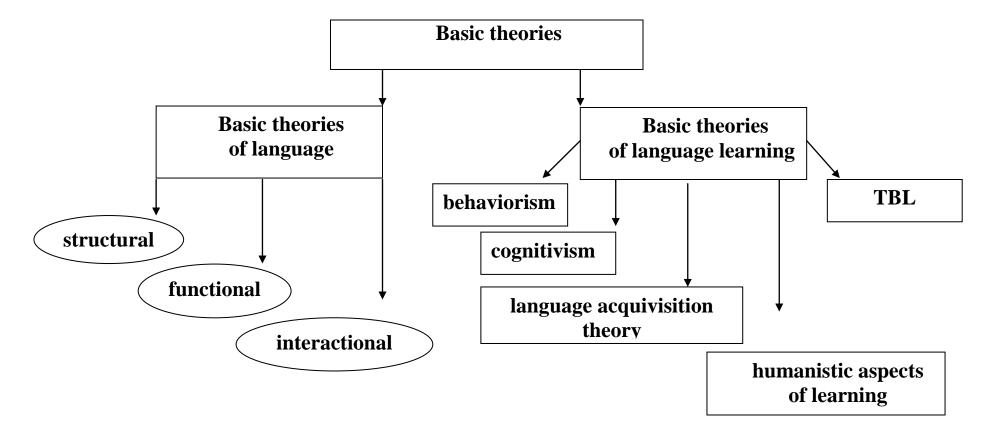


Table 9 (to chapters 1.2; 2.3)



Basic theories of language and language learning

Table 10 (to chapter 1.4)

Functions of language (according to M.A.K. Halliday)

The four functions that help people to satisfy physical, emotional and social needs

Instrumental	Regulatory	Interactional	Personal
This is when the child uses language to express their needs	This is where language is used to tell others what to do	Here language is used to make contact with others and form relationships	This is the use of language to express feelings, opinions and individual identity

The three functions that help to come to terms with the environment

Heuristic

This is when language is used to gain knowledge about the environment

Imaginative

Here language is used to tell stories and jokes, and to create an imaginary environment

Representational

The use of language to convey facts and information

Table 11 (to chapter 1.4)



PPP (Presentation-Practice-Production Framework)

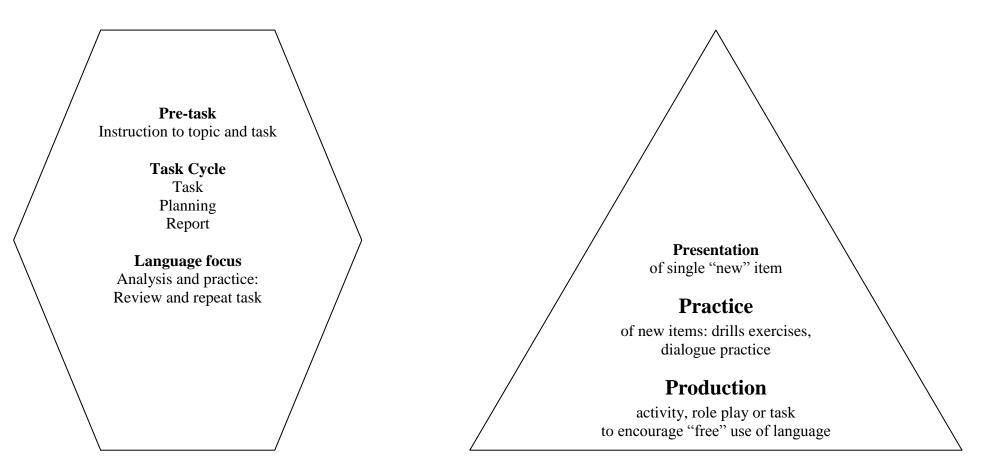


Table 12 (to chapter 1.4)

	Grammar-translation	Direct method	Audio-lingual
Theory of language	Language as a system of rules	No single theory	structuralism
Theory of learning	Deductive; 'jug & mug' theory	Natural, like a child learning L1	Behaviorism, 'stimulus-response', learning through repetition & reinforcement
Goals	Academic knowledge, learning about the language, literature, etc.	Rapid, practical command of a language	To master the whole language, to present students with an accurate model of the language
Main skills focus	Reading, writing, translating	Listening, speaking	Listening, speaking, grammatically correct sentences
Typical exercise types	translation of unconnected sentences, memorizing paradigms	Drills, repetition, imitation	Mechanical drills, substitution tables, imitation, transformation, sound discrimination, memorization of dialogues
Typical forms of interaction	T –St; T -Cl	T –St; T –Cl; St -St	T –St; T –Cl; St –St; Ind(+ tape recorder)
Role of teacher	Dominant, source of information, ultimate authority	Drill-master, highly competent speaker	Prover of stimuli & reinforcement, drill-master, the authority in the classroom
Attitude to error	Negative, must be immediately corrected	Negative, mistakes should be avoided	All attempts to avoid mistakes

Table 13 (to chapter 1.5)

Methods and Approaches 2

COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH		
Theory Of language	Sociological view of language, language as a means of	
	communication, notions and functions	
Theory of learning	Cognitive code theory, learning by doing (using language	
	communicatively)	
Goals	Communicative competence, social appropriacy,	
	acceptability	
Main skills focus	Integrated approach to all the four skills development, focus	
	depends on learner's needs	
Typical exercise types	Information-gap activities, problem-solving tasks, role play,	
	simulations	
Typical forms of interaction	Group work, pair work	
Role of teacher	Facilitator, informant, consultant, manager	
Attitude to use of mother tongue	Occasional use of mother tongue when it is necessary, cost-	
	effective	
Attitude to error	Learners are encouraged to take risks, errors are inevitable,	
	they are learning steps	

Table 14 (to chapters 2.1; 2.2)

Strengths Weaknesses Good academic knowledge about the language; Little, if any experience of speaking; Lack of communicative skills. Accuracy; Development of memory. **Opportunities** Threats Access to literature (classics); Boring, mechanical exercises; Knowledge of history of the country. Meaning not important; Demotivating for learners.

SWOT analysis of Grammar-Translation Approach

(According to One-Month In-Service Training Course for English Language Teachers. Teacher's Guide (Pilot version). Kyiv: The British Council, 1999.- p. 12)

Table 15 (to chapter 1.5)

SWOT analysis of Direct Method

Strengths	Weaknesses
Practical goals;	Underestimated role of reading and writing ;
Immersion into foreign language environment;	Counterproductive prohibition of using mother
Focus on speaking and listening.	tongue.
Opportunities	Threats
Authentic input facilitates language acquisition;	Time and effort consuming;
Activating all channels of perception.	Misinterpretations due to lack of explicit rules.

(According to One-Month In-Service Training Course for English Language Teachers. Teacher's Guide (Pilot version). Kyiv: The British Council, 1999.- p. 12)

Table 16 (to chapter 1.5)

Strengths	Weaknesses
Authentic materials; Language items presented in dialogues, not in isolation; Natural order of skills presentation: listening, speaking, reading, writing.	Meaning is often irrelevant; Lack of flexibility; Overestimated role of drilling.
Opportunities	Threats
Authentic input facilitates language acquisition; Good pronunciation and good ear through some useful types of phonetic exercises; Prediction of learners' difficulties through comparative analysis of structures.	Boredom; No challenge for learners; Misinterpretations due to lack of explicit rules.

SWOT analysis of Audio-Lingual Approach

(According to One-Month In-Service Training Course for English Language Teachers. Teacher's Guide (Pilot version). Kyiv: The British Council, 1999.- p. 12)

Table 17 (to chapter 1.5)

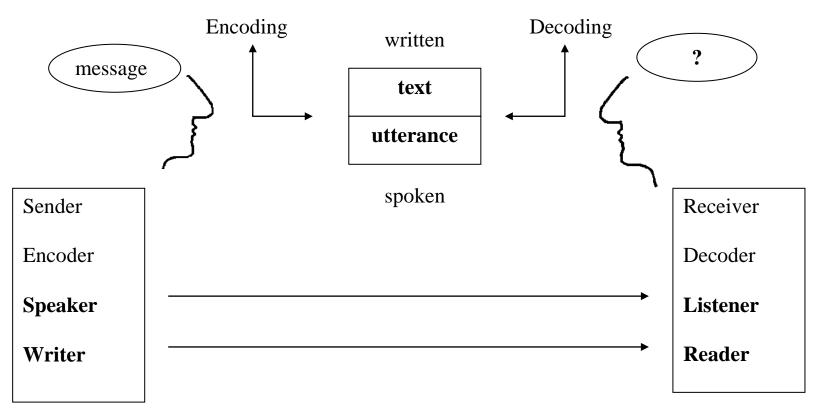
CLT SWOT analysis

Strengths	Weaknesses
Teaching language through using it as a means of communication; Integration of skills; Language items presented and practised in meaningful context; Focus on learners' needs;	Lack of accuracy due to the focus on fluency.
Appropriate use of learners' mother tongue.	
Opportunities	Threats
Cooperative atmosphere in the classroom facilitates communication and learning; Higher motivation to learn; Classroom learning is useful in real life communication; Variety of classroom interaction.	Difficulties in course design because of variety of learners' needs; High demand on teacher's communicative proficiency.

(According to One-Month In-Service Training Course for English Language Teachers. Teacher's Guide (Pilot version). Kyiv: The British Council, 1999.- p. 17)

Table 18 (to chapter 2.2.)





Initiate communication Produce speech React on the message received Receive speech

(According to Ch.Nuttall. Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language.- Oxford: Macmillan Heinemann, 2003. – p.4)

Table 19 (to chapter 2.1.)

Motivation to real-life communication

Receivers Senders listeners/readers speakers/writers -want to say something -have desire to listen to/read instead of keeping silent; something; -have some communicative -are interested in the ideas that speakers/writers are purpose to gain some effects; conveying, which might attain some effects that -select appropriate ,language from their infinite speakers/writers are language store. expecting; -process a variety of language that speakers/writers convey.

(According to Jeremy Harmer______.- Oxford: Macmillan Heinemann, 2003. – p.4

Table 20 (to chapter 2.1.)

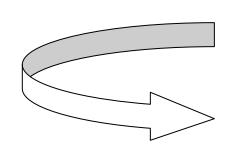
The cooperative principle of communication.

The Gricean maxims

maxim of quality	maxim of relation
BE TRUTHFUL	RELEVANCE
maxim of quantity	maxim of manner
QUANTITY of INFORMATION	BE CLEAR

Table 21 (to chapter 2.1.)

Components of Speech Activity



1. Motive or reason for speech activity

Learner's motive: Why should I listen to sb's speech? Why should I speak? Why should I read the text? Why should I write to sb? **Teacher's motive:** How should I motivate students to initiate communication or receipt sb's message?

2. Subject of speech activity is a thought, idea, message

4. Product of activity In speaking – utterance; In writing – text; In listening and reading – comprehension.

3. Means of realization phonetic, lexical, grammatical/structural

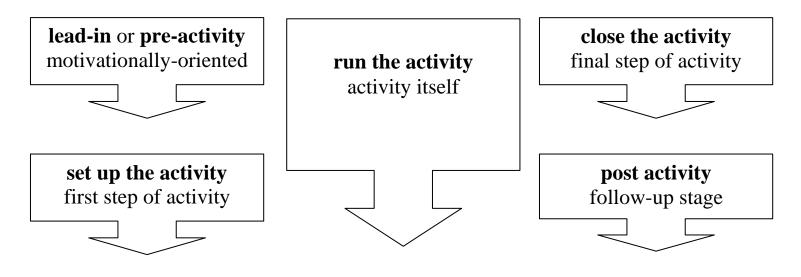
5. Result of activity

may be expressed in the reaction – a reply (answer) of a person.

Table 22 (to chapter 2.1., 2.4)

The theory of activity

Five steps of activity procedure.



(According to Scrivener J. Learning Teaching. – Oxford: Macmillan Heinemann, 1994.–218p.)

Table 23 (to chapter 2.4.)

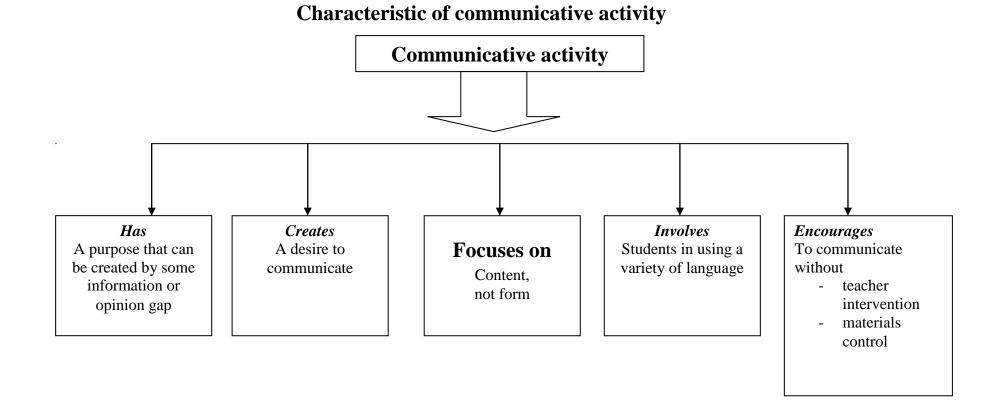


Table 24 (to chapter 2.4.)

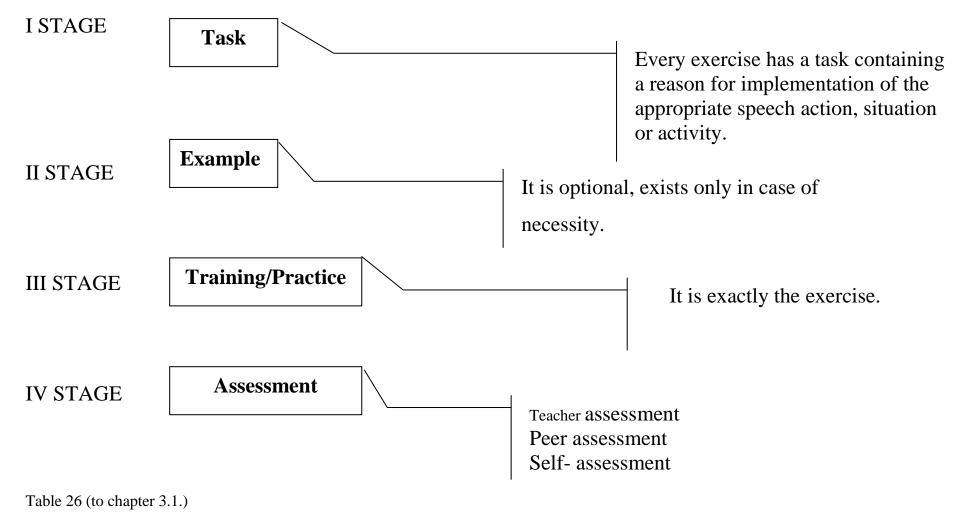
Classification of classroom activities

Controlled activities	Semi-controlled activities	Free activities
Warm-up; Setting; Organisational; Content explanation; Role play demonstration; Dialogue/narrative presentation; Dialogue/narrative reaction; Reading aloud; Checking; Question-answer, display; Drill; Translation; Dictation; Copying; Identification; Recognition; Testing.	Brainstorming; Story-telling; Question-answer, referential; Cued narrative/Dialogue; Information transfer; Information exchange; Wrap-up; Preparation.	Role play; Games; Report; Promlem solving; Drama; Simulation; Discussion; Composition; Debate.

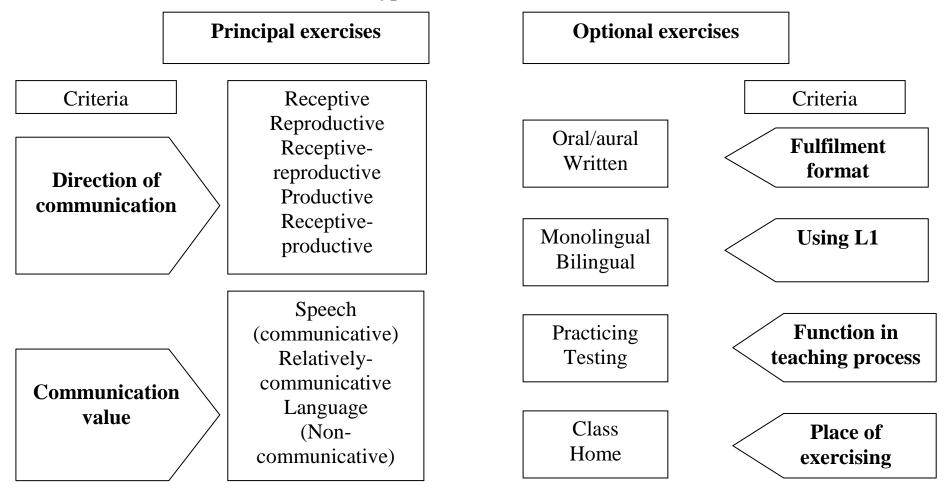
(According to G. Crookes & C. Chaudron. Guidlines to Classroom Language Teaching// .-p.4

Exercises in Language Teaching

Exercise Structure



Types of Exercises in FLT



(According to Методика навчання іноземних мов у середніх навчальних закладах: Підручник. - К.: Ленвіт, 1999.-С.66)

Table 27 (to chapter 3.1.)

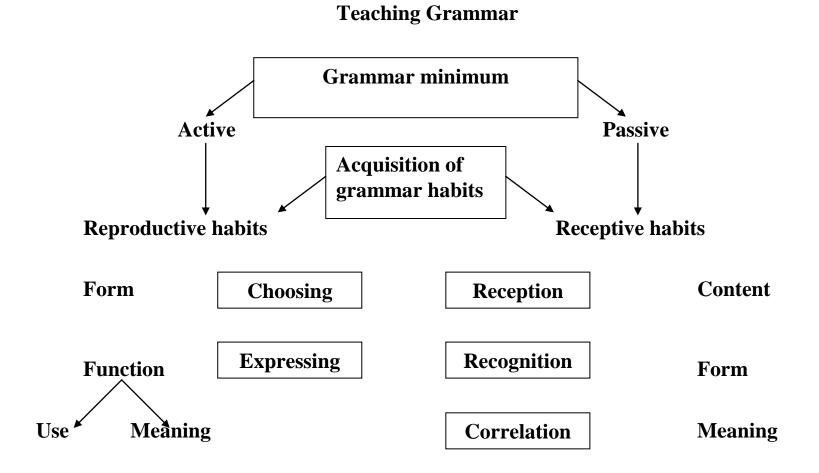


Table 28 (to chapter 3.2.)

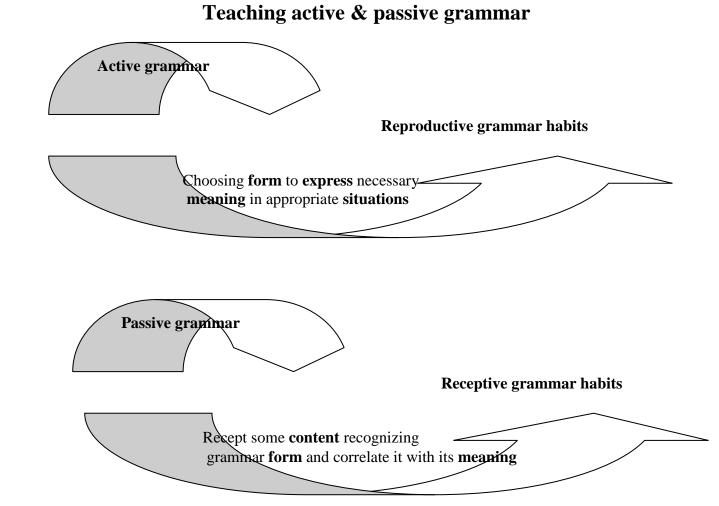
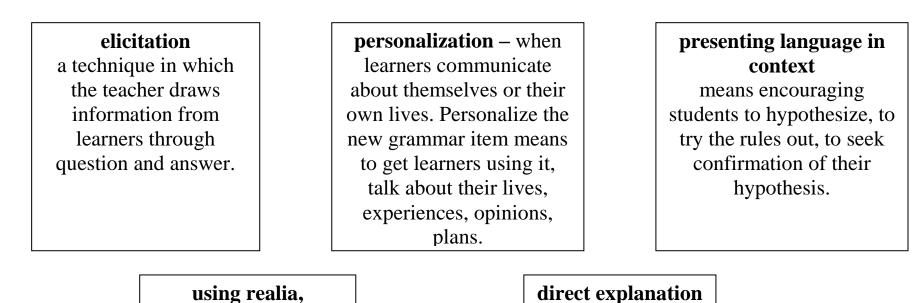


Table 29 (to chapter 3.2.)

Presentation techniques of different grammar items



pictures, time-line, etc. direct explanation

Table 30 (to chapter 3.2.)

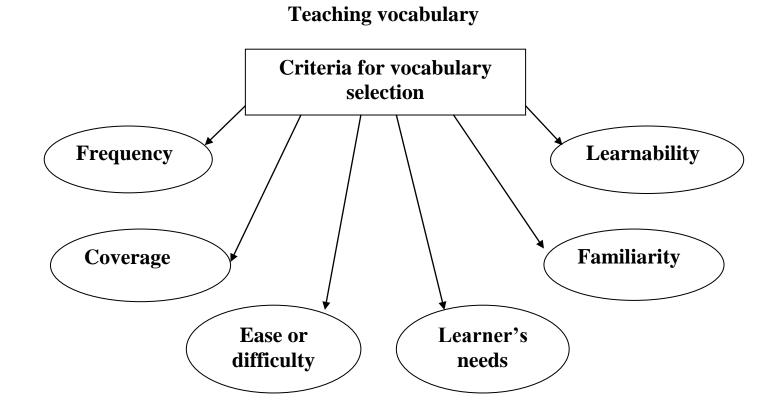


Table 31 (to chapter 3.3.)

Teaching vocabulary

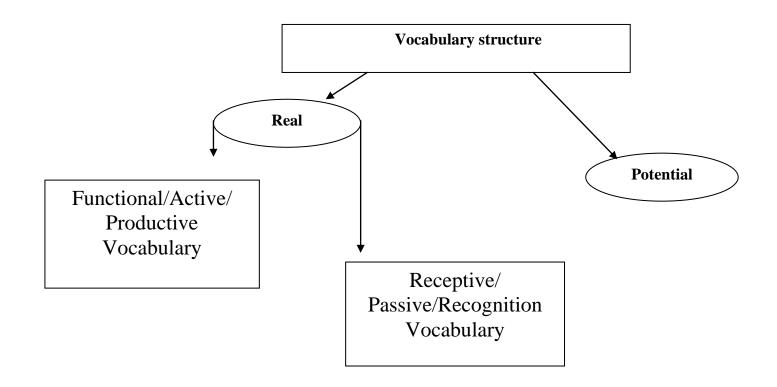


Table 32 (to chapter 3.3.)

Nature of lexical competence

Lexical competence is viewed as acquiring an appropriate quantity of lexical units, in other words, owning vocabulary, words.

> components of owning a word

MEANING Denotation Connotation Polysemy Homonymy Homophones Synonymy Antonymy Hyponymy FORM

phonology - pronounciation

orthography - spelling

morphology_ affixation DISTRIBUTION

Collocation

Register

Style

Table 33 (to chapter 3.3.)

Learner	Teacher
1 PRESENTATION identification of concepts, i.e. learning what the word means	Furnishing explanations, presenting words, getting learners to identify the concept correctly
2 PRACTICE ASSIMILATION Learner's activities for the purpose of retaining the word	Teacher's activities to get learners to recognise and recall the words by means of different exercises
RETENTION Performing different exercises to fix the words in memory	Encouraging learners to review the words using them again & again in various exercises
3 PRODUCTION/APPLICATION Learner's activity in using the words in the process of communication in different situations	To stimulate learners to use the words properly to express their thoughts & ideas

The stages of vocabulary acquisition

Table 34 (to chapter 3.3.)

Ways of Presenting Vocabulary

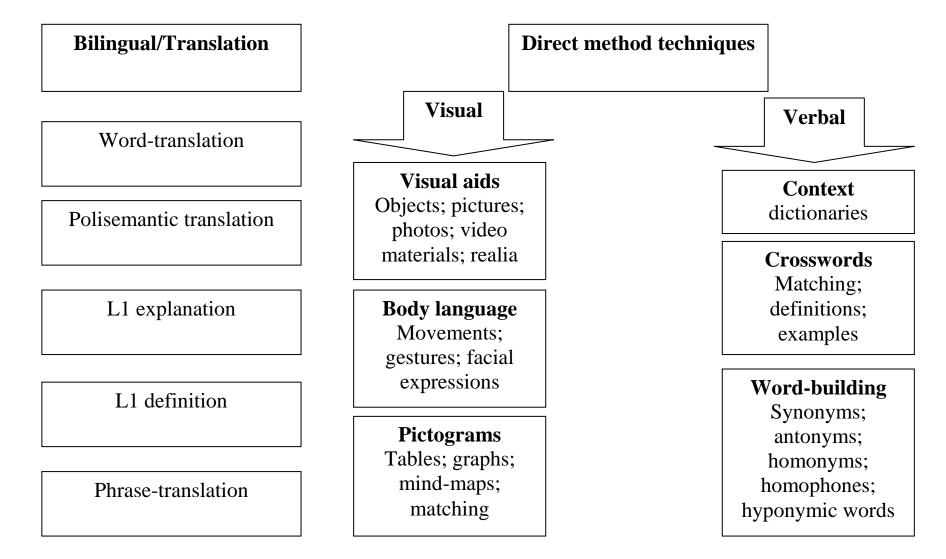


Table 35 (to chapter 3.3.)

Teaching Pronunciation

Three Main Types of Pronunciation Lessons

Integrated lessons, in which pronunciation forms an essential part of the language analysis and the planning process, and the language presentation and practice within the lesson. Remedial or reactive lessons, where a pronunciation difficulty which arises in class is dealt with there and then, in order to facilitate the successful achievement of classroom tasks. **Practice lessons,** where a pronunciation difficulty which arises in class is dealt with there and then, in order to facilitate the successful achievement of classroom tasks.

(According to Kelly G. How to Teach Pronunciation. – Harlow: Longman, 2000)

Table 36 (to chapter 3.4.)

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Learner's Problems in Teaching English Pronunciation

discrimination of sounds	i	intonation of sounds	articulation of sounds
hearing the differences between phonemes which are not distinguished or used in L1 and between falling, rising and level, tones	str	arning to make right resses, pauses and use propriate patterns	learning to make the motor movements adequate to proper production of English sounds

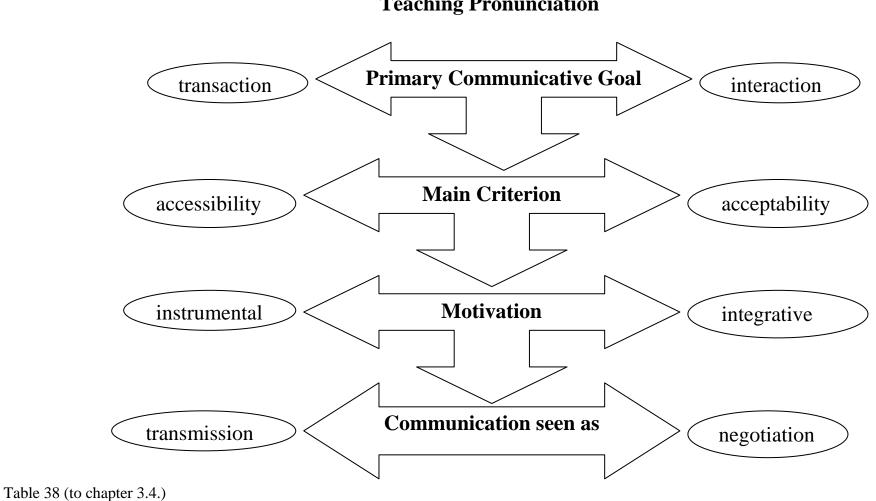
integration of sounds

learning to assemble the phonemes of a connected discourse with the proper allophonic variations

automaticy of sounds

making correct production so habitual that if does not need to be attended to in the process of speaking

Table 37 (to chapter 3.4.)



Teaching Pronunciation

Teaching Listening

A model of how the listening process works

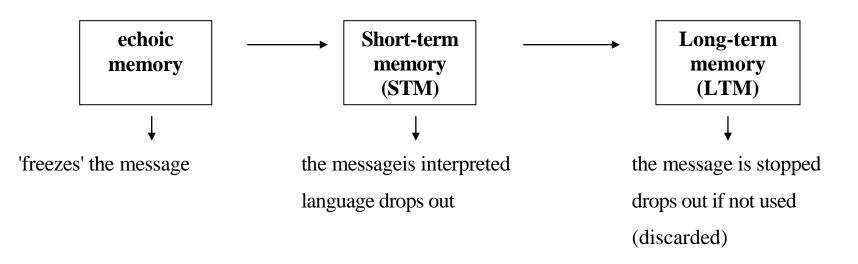
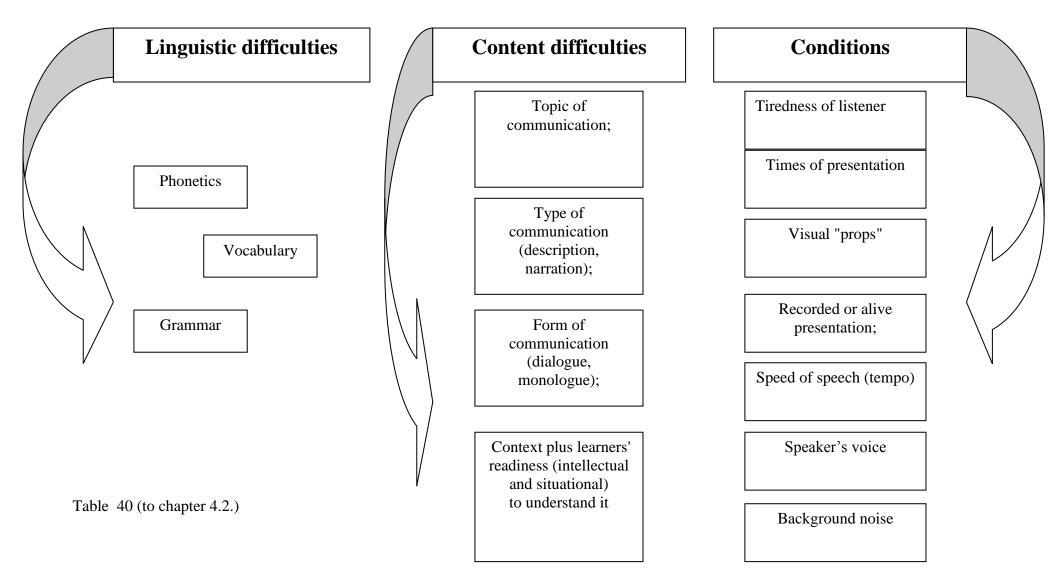


Table 39 (to chapter 4.1.)

Learner's Difficulties in Listening Comprehension



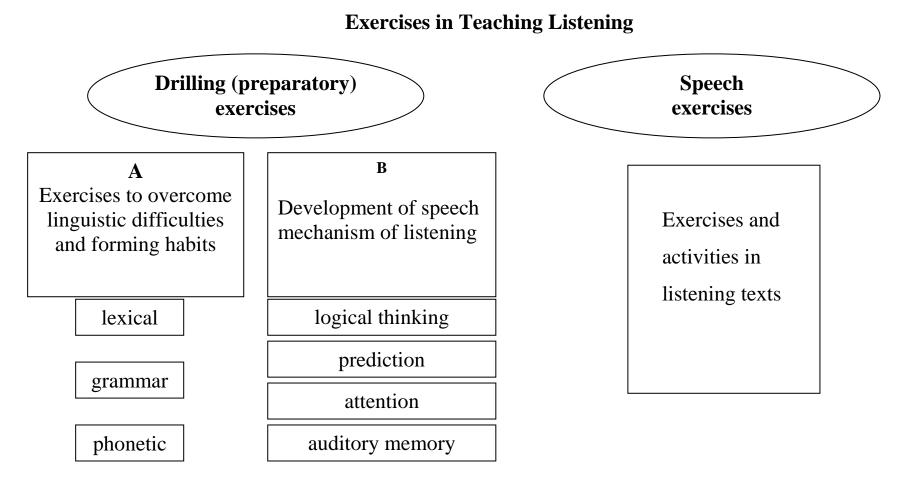


Table 41 (to chapter 4.1.)

Ways of Feedback in Teaching Listening Skills

Non-verbal means	Verbal means		
	receptive	reproductive	
6. performing actions;	1. true/false	1. answering /asking	
7. showing numbers, cards,	statements;	questions;	
etc	2. multiple-choice	2. retelling;	
8. designing schemes, charts,	tests;	3. translation;	
tables;	3. jumbled	4. writing a plan, fill a chart, a	
9. drawing;	paragraphs/plan	table, etc.;	
10. sorting out pictures,	items/sentences	5. discussion	
photos, things, etc.			

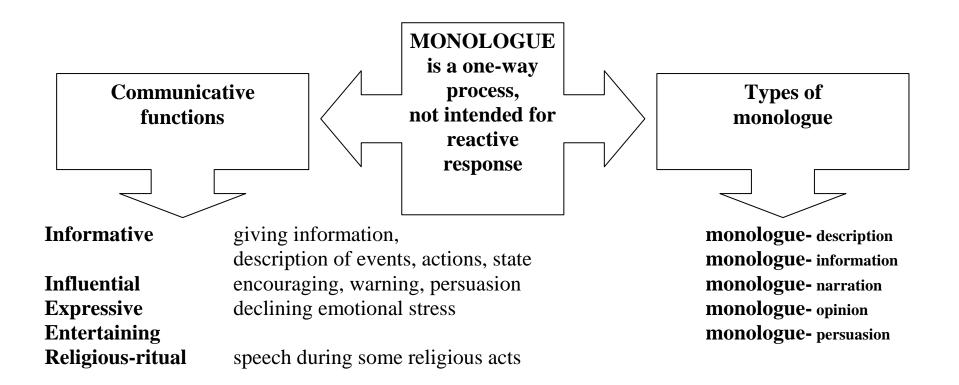
Table 42 (to chapter 4.1.)

Teaching speaking Psychological characteristics of oral language Motivated speaker expresses a desire to inform *listener* of smth interesting, important, or to get information from him Addressed to an Emotionally Speech must be interlocutor coloured Situational for it takes place in a certain situation.

Table 43 (to chapter 4.2.)

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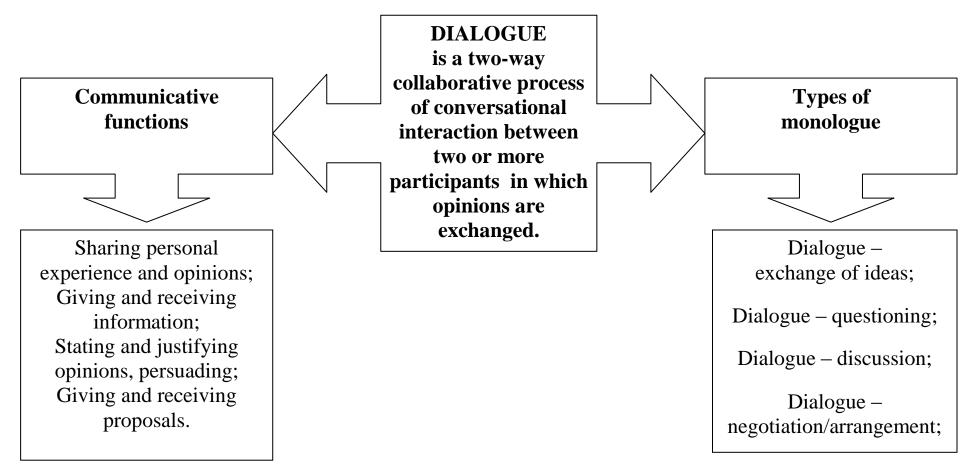
Teaching speaking. Monologue



(According to Методика навчання іноземних мов у середніх навчальних закладах: Підручник. - К.: Ленвіт, 1999.)

Table 44 (to chapter 4.2.)

Teaching speaking. Dialogue



(According to Memoduka навчання іноземних мов у середніх навчальних закладах: Підручник. - К.: Ленвіт, 1999.)

Table 45 (to chapter 4.2.)

Comparison of spoken and written communication

	SPEAKING	WRITING
	Learned	Instructed
	as a child/family without conscious effort, willingly, universal	Instructed at school, etc. a lot of effort/ imposed/not all literate/with
	over a long time	short period of time.
Spontaneity	unplanned, instantaneous; pressure on listener	planned
	immediate	time to prepare
Response	verbal and non-verbal monitoring	no pressure on reader; delayed/none
	mutual support of listener	chance to convey meaning; done alone
	natural for interaction	must sustain contact; rare
Formality	informal, repetitive, redundant, long	formal, compact, sparse, short
Context	has a context, less explicit (точный, ясный)	
Syntax	simple sentences many ands/buts incomplete sentences/hesitations	more explicit
		complex sentences; sets of sub/co-ordinators
Non-Verbal Suppo	pitch/pronunciation/	cohesive
	stress/rhythm/intonation/	special conventions (e.g. abbreviations)
	loudness/pauses	script
	-	punctuation/spelling layout conventions

Table 46 (to chapter 4.2.)

Teaching Reading

Reading styles

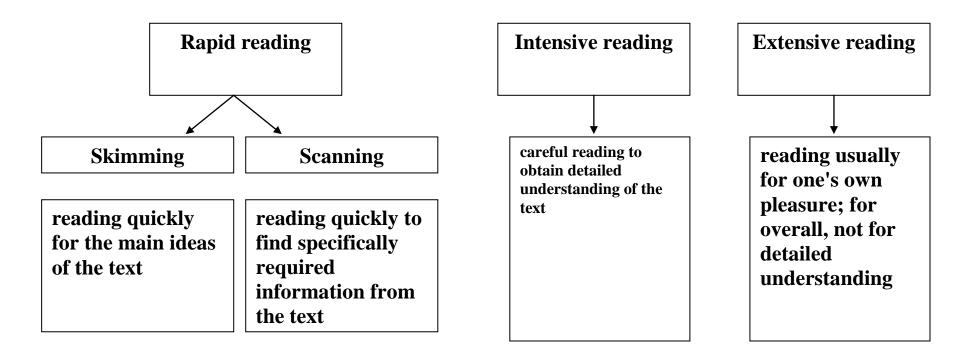


Table 47 (to chapter 4.3.)

Teaching Reading

Successful communication between reader & writer

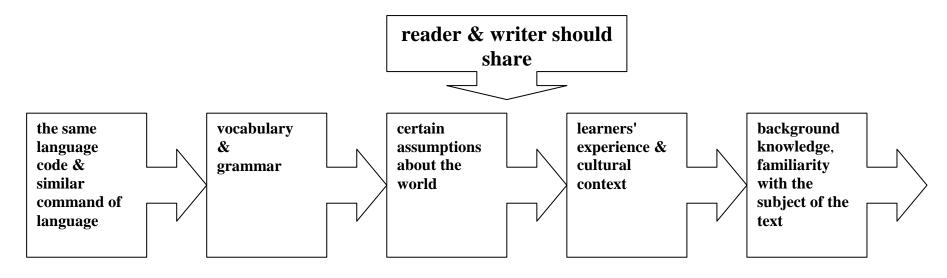


Table 48 (to chapter 4.3.)

Reasons for teaching writing

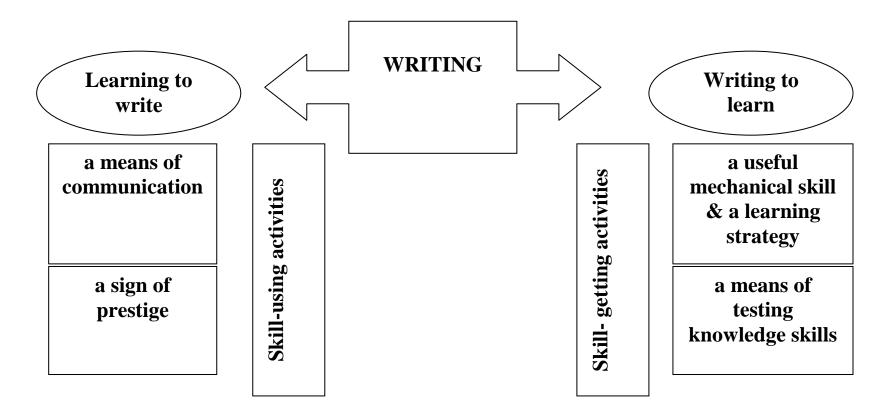


Table 4 9 (to chapter 4.4.)

Characteristics of a good writer

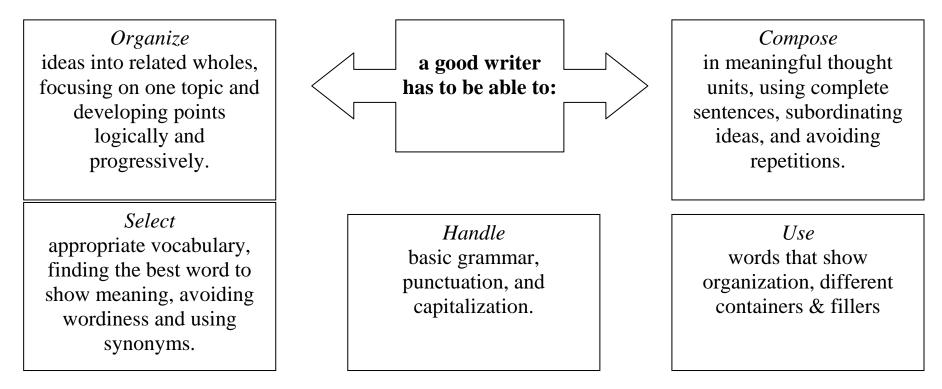


Table 50 (to chapter 4.4.)

Stages of writing acquisition

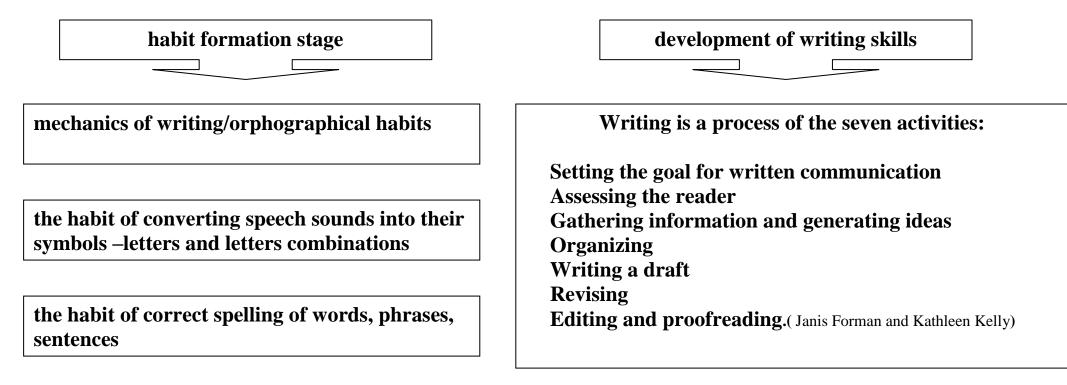


Table 51 (to chapter 4.4.)

Product& Process Approaches to teaching writing

Traditional/Product	Process /Communicative
Whole class work	Pair and group work
Teacher –oriented	Learner –oriented
mode: individual, competitive.	mode: group, co-operative.
Ideas come from teacher	Ideas come from learners
Uniform content, one topic for	Different topics, learner's choice
all –artificial/unrealistic.	-practical/relevant.
Organization	Organization
Product –focused	Process –focused
Teacher composes –learners	Learners compose for specific
сору	ideas/editing & proofreading.
One draft process.	
Limited reading	Challenging reading
Teacher judges "correct"	As input to the letter of response.
product, measures accuracy	Teacher helps, supports the
and form.	process, evaluates.

Functions of lesson plan

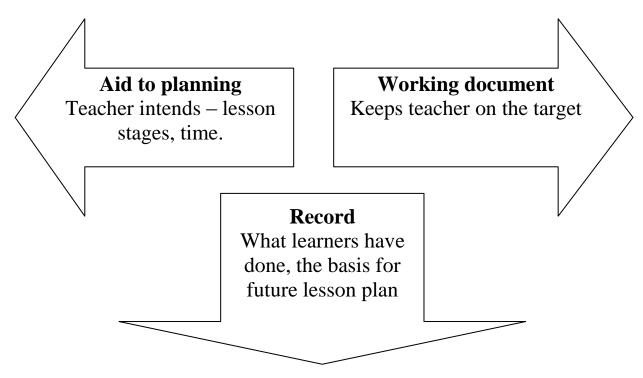


Table 53 to chapter 5.1.

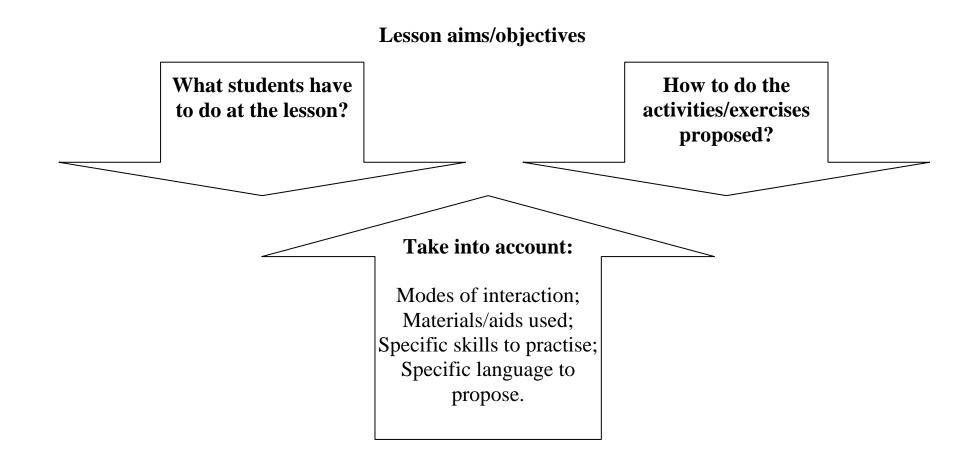


Table 54to chapter 5.1.



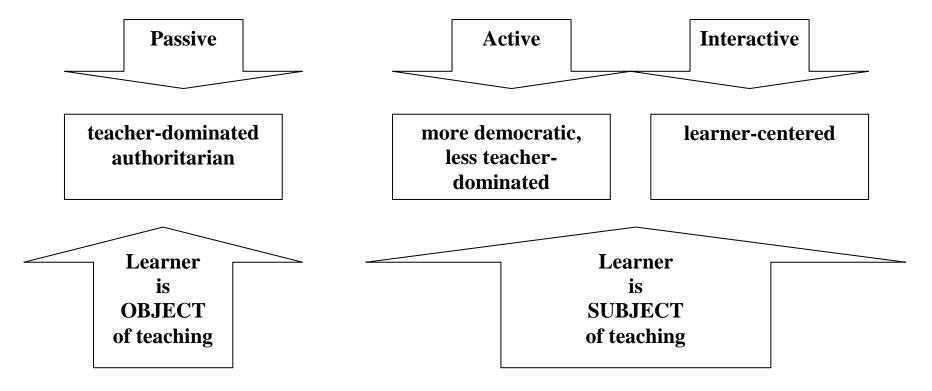


Table 55 to chapter 5.2.

Characteristics of lesson

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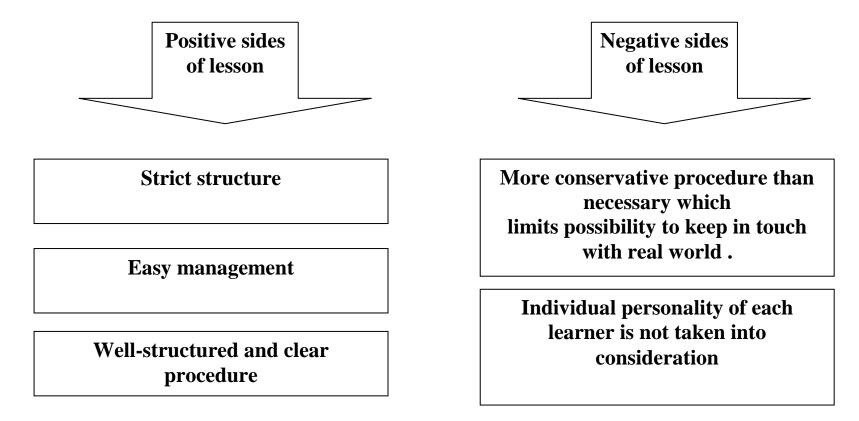


Table 56 to chapter 5.2.

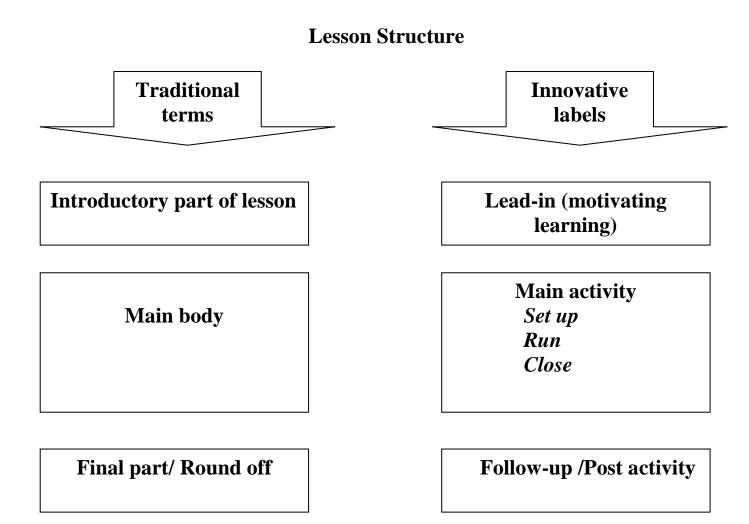


Table 57 to chapter 5.2.

Changeable & Stable Parts of Lesson

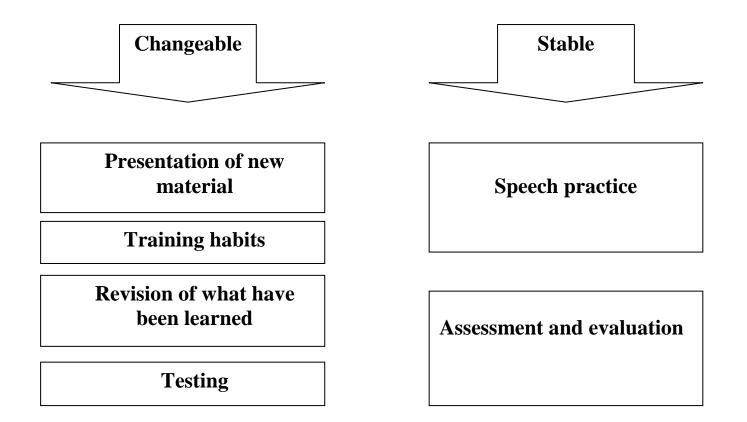


Table 58 to chapter 5.2.

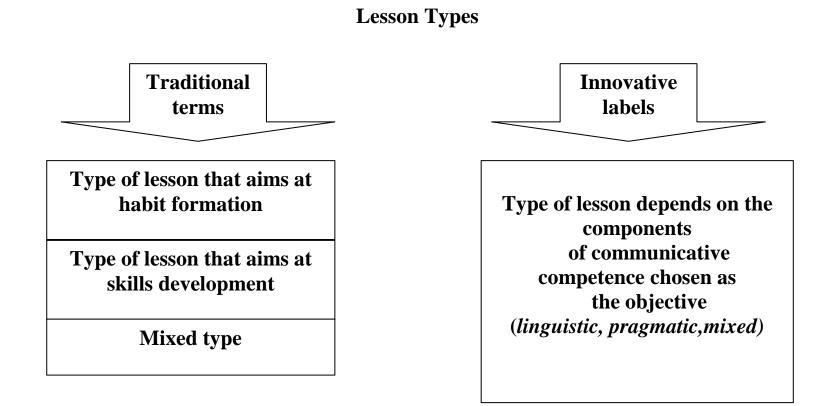
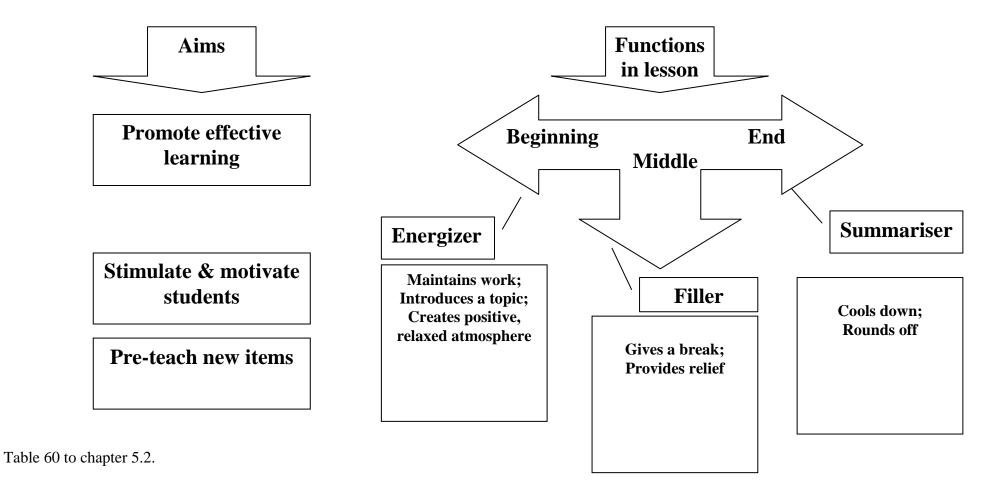


Table 59 to chapter 5.2.

Warmers/Warming-up Activities



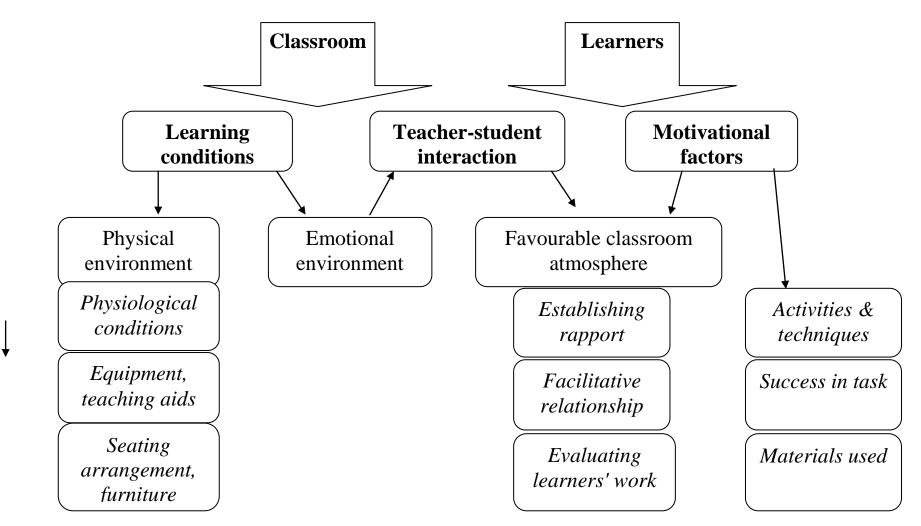
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Requirements to English lesson

Lesson should be communicatively- oriented.		Lesson shou skill-integra	 an ai	ign language as m and a means of teaching.	esson should be earner-centered
		n should have variety		Lesson should l a motivations character	
tasks provide Variety interacti Variety exercise Variet		of modes of on; of materials used; of text types and		Activities, tasks and techniques; Clear sense of achievement; A relaxed, supportive atmosphere; A classroom psycholo environment	

Table 61 to chapter 5.3.





Classroom atmosphere

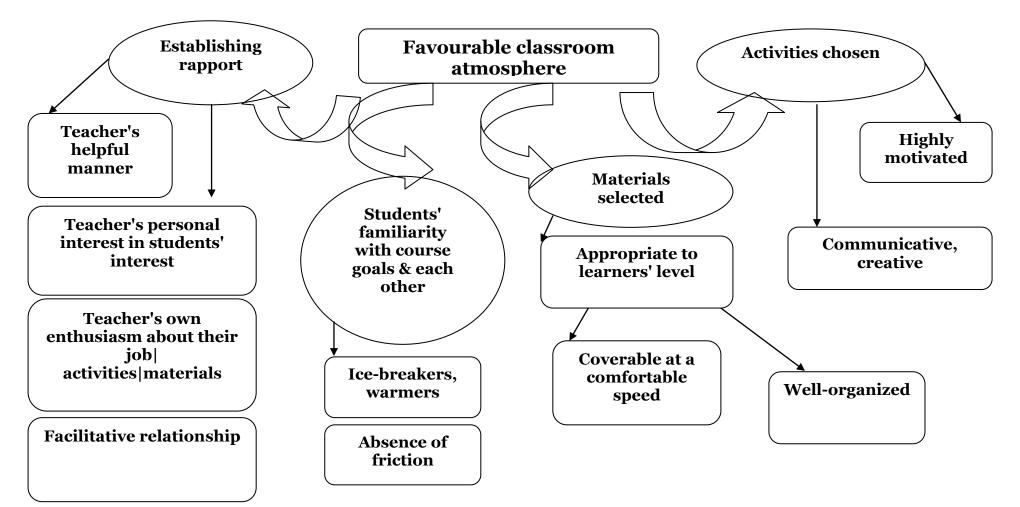
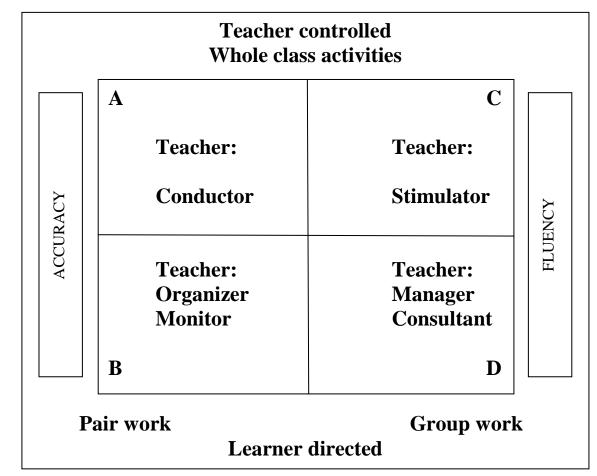


Table 63 to chapter 6.1.

Summary of activities and teacher roles



(According to Byrne Donn. Techniques for Classroom Interaction. - Harlow: Longman, 1992.)

Table 64 to chapter 6.2.

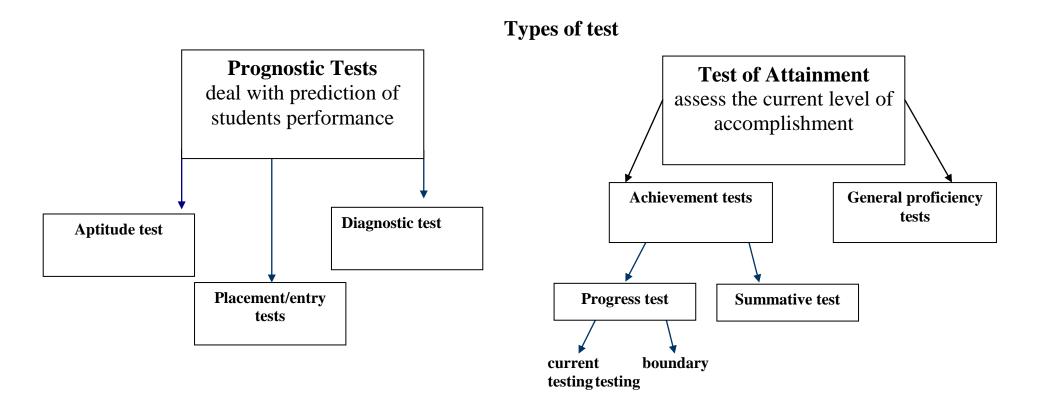


Table 65 to chapter 6.4.

Individual and cooperative activities in language classroom

(1)	Individual forms	(2) Interactive or co-operative forms
Wo	rk in chain (students answer one by one,	Pair work (open/closed pairs);
in c	hain);	Group work (small groups of 3-5 participants);
Indi	vidual students' replies;	Choir work $Cl - Cl$; $P - Cl$;
Sim	ultenious autonomous fulfillment of	Whole class interaction (mingle activity)
som	e language exercises and tasks in	
liste	ening, reading, writing, and also	
spea	aking in the mode of "Pupil-announcer"	
		Two-way process
	One-way process	
L		

Table 66 to chapter 2.4.; 5.3.

Comparison of Teacher- and Learner-Centred School Level Characteristics

Teacher-Centred (Conventional) Focus	Learner-Centred Focus
Relationships are hierarchical, blaming, controlling.	Relationships are caring and promote positive expectations and participation.
Curriculum is fragmented, non-experiential, limited, and exclusive of multiple perspectives.	Curriculum is thematic, experiential, challenging, comprehensive, and inclusive of multiple perspectives.
Instruction focuses on a narrow range of learning styles, builds from perceptions of student deficits, and is authoritarian.	Instruction focuses on a broad range of learning styles; builds from perceptions of student strengths, interests, and experiences; and is participatory and facilitative.
Grouping is tracked by perceptions of ability; promotes individual competition and a sense of alienation.	Grouping is not tracked by perceptions of ability; promotes cooperation, shared responsibility, and a sense of belonging.
Evaluation focuses on a limited range of intelligences, utilizes only standardized tests, and assumes only one correct answer.	Evaluation focuses on multiple intelligences, utilizes authentic assessments, and fosters self-reflection.
(According to http://ten.uoregon.edu/workshops/teach	hertraining/learnercentered/overview/definitions.html)

(According to <u>http://tep.uoregon.edu/workshops/teachertraining/learnercentered/overview/definitions.html</u>)

Table 67 to chapter 6.1.

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