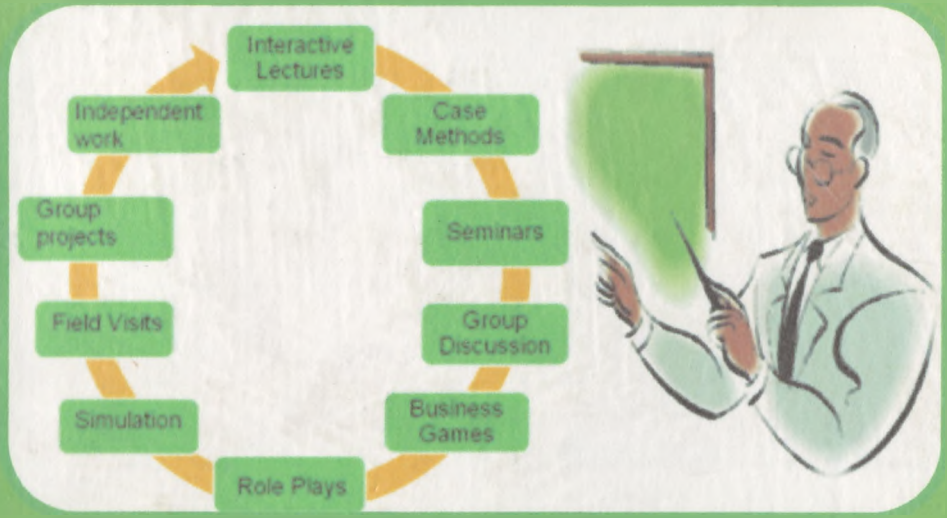
J. DJUMABAEVA

TEACHING METHODS OF SPECIAL SUBJECTS



TASHKENT

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NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF UZBEKISTAN NAMED AFTER MIRZO ULUGBEK

FACULTY OF FOREIGN PHILOLOGY

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH PHILOLOGY

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TEACHING METHODS OF SPECIAL SUBJECTS

Manual for Master Degree Course Students
5A120102 – Linguistics (English)

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The manual «Teaching Methods of Special Subjects» consists of ten chapters, which contain theoretical, practical material and recommendation for language teachers. Each chapter ends with questions and tasks based on interactive methods of teaching, which will enable the students to examine their knowledge and revise the students' theoretical background and practical skills in language teaching methods. The multiple-choice tests for students' self-control and self-development, a glossary containing the explanation of some notions and terms on teaching methods given at the end of the textbook.

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Учебное пособие «Методика преподавания специальных предметов» состоит из десяти глав, посвященных рассмотрению широкого спектра вопросов, включающих теоретический, практический материал, а также рекомендации по методики преподавания языков. Каждая глава содержит вопросы и задания для укрепления материала, чтобы студенты имели возможность проверить полученные теоретические знания и практические навыки по методике преподавания языков. В конце учебного пособия даются тесты для самоконтроля и саморазвития студента, глоссарий основных терминов по методике преподавания языков который содержит полное объяснение и примеры.

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«Maxsus fanlarni o'qitish metodikasi» o'quv qo'llanmasi o'nta bobdan iborat bo'lib, unda tillarni o'qitish metodiksiga oid nazariy, amaliy manbalar batafsil yoritilgan bo'lib, bo'lajak til o'qituvchilari uchun tavsiyalar berilgan. Har bir bobdan keyin mavzuga oid savollar va topshiriqlar berilgan bo'lib, ular talabalarning olgan nazariy bilimlarini mustahkamlashga va amaliy ko'nikmalarni sinovdan o'tkazishga yordam beradi. O'quv qo'llanmaning oxirida talabalar o'z bilimlarini sinab ko'rishlari uchun testlar berilgan bo'lsa, til o'qitish metodikasiga oid terminlar glossariysi o'z ichiga ularning ta'rifi va izohlarini olgan.

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PREFACE

This manual covers the principles of the subject «Methods of teaching special subjects», the essence of innovative technologies and ways of their implementation, methods of research in didactics, teaching of special subjects, such as the modern approaches, methods and technologies, the planning and organization of theoretical and practical classes, and the selection of teaching materials. The knowledge acquired within the framework of this subject is important for masters in the future as a pedagogue in the education system, in particular, to analyze various pedagogical and psychological methods, to develop new ones and to apply them, to design educational work, to solve problematic situations in the educational process.

This manual consists of ten chapters, including recommendations on methodology of English teaching, English scientists' opinions as well as suggestions on how to solve problems that may be encountered by the teacher during the language teaching process. Depending on the function of the subject, this manual is aimed at improving the pedagogical skills of masters in special subjects, introducing modern methods of practical and theoretical training, analyzing teaching materials for special subjects, developing and conducting various training activities, besides teaching students about the modern ways of controlling and evaluating the level of knowledge. After each chapter, questions and assignments on the subject will be given in order to help students to test their theoretical knowledge and practical skills. At the end of the manual, students have tests to examine their knowledge and glossary part of terms in the language teaching technique with their description and commentary.

In conclusion, we would like to express our gratitude to ediorin-chief Professor I.Siddikova (NUUz), reviewers Professor Sh. Safarov (SamSIFL) and Assistant Professor N.Sadullaeva (NUUz) for valuable remarks and suggestion.

CHAPTER I. TEACHING METHODS OF SPECIAL SUBJECTS

1.1. Teaching Specializations

Teaching Specializations: What Do They Mean?

Teaching is one of those careers that can allow for a great deal of specialization. That is an asset when it comes to designing your ideal career, but it can also cause a lot of confusion. What are all the options? We decided to make it a little easier for you by defining what the different teaching specializations mean.

Because of school district and state policies, some teacher job postings may use different names for the same specialization. It can be hard to know exactly what grade or age range a school wants you to teach if they use different terms, so you will find a breakdown of them below.

While there are specializations that refer to subject area, such as English as a Second Language (ESL) or special education, these are usually not restricted by grade level. Should you want to add such specializations, you can always do that once you are already a teacher, or you can add those on as you study once you know where you want to be: early childhood education, elementary education, middle school, secondary education, or higher education.

Keep reading to better understand what teaching specializations actually mean, as well as get an overview of the types of degrees and jobs you can get under each.

The Definition of Early Childhood Education

Early childhood education is where many children begin their education journey, as it covers education from birth to age eight. When children begin both their parents and the state, decide upon their schooling. Children are required to start between ages

five and eight, depending on the age requirement of the state, though some parents may wish to have their young ones start before the required age.

This also means that the grade level at which children start may vary by state. **Infant and toddler education** is a subset of early childhood education, and it covers education for children between birth and age two. Teachers in early childhood education focus on early child development, such as sensory and motor skills.

You might see job postings for **preschool, nursery school, prekindergarten,** or **kindergarten** teachers. All of these fall under the early childhood education branch. Some states require kindergarten attendance, which means children start around ages five or six.

The Definition of Elementary Education

Under **elementary education**, you may teach grades one to four, and sometimes up to grade six, depending on the state and school district. There are also some states and districts that may even place **kindergarten** within elementary education. However, a less common name in the United States, **primary school** is another term used to describe elementary school.

Elementary school teachers are usually generalists, covering a set curriculum decided upon by the district if they are a public school. This means there is little to no expectation that students will choose classes that are different from their peers, unless, for example, a foreign language option is offered.

The Definition of Middle School

Middle school usually refers to grades six through eight. While the majority of schools follow this policy, some may place sixth-grade students in elementary school for a variety of reasons, including the capacity of the facilities available in the district.

You may also hear about **junior high** schools, a designation that usually covers grades seven through nine and is considered separate from middle school and high school. Middle schools may also be known as **intermediate schools (upper primary** or **lower secondary** schooling).

The Definition of Secondary Education

Secondary education is synonymous with **high school**. Many high schools cover grades nine through 12, though they may only cover grades 10 through 12 if there is an accompanying junior high that includes grade nine.

In secondary education, students are able to personalize their education more. High school students are made up of students with vastly different capabilities and interests. While there, they can tailor their education enough to fit their needs and prepare for a secondary education in a certain field.

As a high school teacher, you often have more leeway for how you teach a subject. Schools that offer Advanced Placement (AP) courses, which are college-level, give teachers even more opportunity to engage or challenge students as they see fit.

The Definition of Higher Education

Any education that occurs beyond high school is known as **higher education**. This may include certificates and diplomas or associate's, bachelor's, master's, post-graduate certificates, and doctoral degrees. Institutions of higher education can include community colleges, colleges and universities. Higher education is also commonly known as **post-secondary education**.

It is almost always required that those who teach in higher education have at least a master's degree to prove subject-matter expertise. As a higher education instructor, you're usually given full reign over your curriculum, including textbooks and exams.

Adult education is also placed under higher education, since it covers continuing education past traditional childhood learning. Most adult education programs are accessible through local community colleges and university extensions.

What Can I Teach?

That's a great question. Each teaching specialization is so unique that it really allows for teachers to be experts in their area. If you're curious about some of the most common teaching jobs you can get for each of these specializations, take a look at the chart below. You'll also find what degrees are necessary for each career,

though education and certification requirements vary by state and school.

Teaching Specialization	Recommended Degrees	Career
Early Childhood Education	High school diploma or Associate's in Early Childhood Education	Early childhood aide, childcare worker
	High school diploma and credentials, Associate's or Bachelor's in Early Childhood Education	Preschool teacher
	BA in Early Childhood Education	Kindergarten teacher
Elementary Education	BA in Elementary Education or a BA in a specific field	Elementary school teacher of any grade
Middle School	BA in Education or a BA in a specific field	Middle school teacher of any grade
Secondary Education	BA in Secondary Education or a BA in specific field, though many teachers have Master's in Teaching or a Master of Arts in Education	High school teacher of any grade

Higher Education	Master's degree in your field is accepted at many community colleges, though most universities require a doctorate in your field	College professor, assistant professor or lecturer

Public vs. Private School Teaching Requirements

One thing to note is that public schools and private schools do not necessarily share the same requirements for hiring and for student education. Local school districts and their boards dictate the policies and regulations for public elementary and secondary schools, though school district must follow certain state guidelines.

Private schools have self-appointed boards of trustees and raise their own funding, usually through tuition. Some private schools may be affiliated with a religious institution, which also sets them apart in some European countries. Though public and private schools don't fall under the same regulations, most private schools aim to closely follow the curricula of public schools to ensure that students can easily transfer between them and so secondary students can meet expectations for state graduation.

What Should I Do Next?

If you're just thinking about starting your education for teaching, it's important to spend some time in a classroom to really make sure this field is right for you. Many schools offer volunteer opportunities, so contact your local schools to see what's available.

If you're already in school, be sure to ask about teaching practicums so you can start evaluating what your options are. And if you're curious about what some teachers have to say about entering the teaching field, read some of our teacher interviews. (*see Appendix 1. Interviews*)

1.2. Effective lesson planning, delivery techniques and classroom management suggestions

Good lesson planning is essential to the process of teaching and learning. A teacher who is prepared is well on his/her way to a successful instructional experience. The development of interesting lessons takes a great deal of time and effort. As a new teacher you must be committed to spending the necessary time in this endeavor.

It is also important to realize that the best planned lesson is worthless if interesting delivery procedures, along with good classroom management techniques, are not in evidence. There is a large body of research available pertaining to lesson development and delivery and the significance of classroom management. They are skills that must be researched, structured to your individual style, implemented in a teacher/learning situation, and constantly evaluated and revamped when necessary. Consistency is of the utmost importance in the implementation of a classroom management plan.

All teachers should understand that they are not an island unto themselves. The educational philosophy of the district and the uniqueness of their schools should be the guiding force behind what takes place in the classroom. The school's code of discipline, which should be fair, responsible and meaningful, must be reflected in every teacher's classroom management efforts.

Suggested practices

- Establish a positive classroom environment

✓Make the classroom a pleasant, friendly place

✓Accept individual differences

✓Learning activities should be cooperative and supportive

✓Create a non-threatening learning environment

✓Organize physical space; eliminate situations that may be dangerous or disruptive

✓Establish classroom rules and procedures and consistently reinforce them

- Begin lessons by giving clear instructions
  - ✓ State desired quality of work
  - ✓ Have students paraphrase directions
  - ✓ Ensure that everyone is paying attention
  - ✓ Ensure that all distractions have been removed
  - ✓ Describe expectations, activities and evaluation procedures
  - ✓ Start with a highly motivating activity
  - ✓ Build lesson upon prior student knowledge
- Maintain student attention

✓Use random selection in calling upon students

✓Vary who you call on and how you call on them

✓Ask questions before calling on a student; wait at least five seconds for a response

✓Be animated; show enthusiasm and interest

✓Reinforce student efforts with praise

✓Vary instructional methods

✓Provide work of appropriate difficulty

✓Demonstrate and model the types of responses or tasks you want students to perform

✓Provide guided practice for students; monitor responses and deliver immediate corrective feedback

- Use appropriate pacing

✓Be aware of your teaching tempo

✓Watch for cues that children are becoming confused, bored or restless; sometimes lesson have to be shortened

- Provide suitable seatwork

✓Seatwork should be diagnostic and prescriptive

✓Develop procedures for seeking assistance; have a "help" signal

✓Develop procedures for what to do when finished

✓Move around to monitor seatwork

✓Vary methods of practice

- Evaluate what has taken place in your lesson

✓Summarize the lesson and focus on positive gains made by students; use surprise reinforcers as a direct result of their good behavior

✓Determine if the lesson was successful; were goals accomplished?

- Make a smooth transition into next subject

✓Have materials ready for next lesson

✓Maintain attention of students until you have given clear instructions for the next activity

✓Do not do tasks that can be done by students (i.e. passing out paper or collecting assignments); use monitors

✓Move around and attend to individual needs

✓Provide simple, step-by-step instructions

✓Utilize a freeze and listen signal, when necessary

- Develop positive teacher/student relationships

✓Set a good example; be a positive role model

✓Create an exciting learning environment for all students

✓Reward good behavior; create special activities that children will enjoy doing

✓Correct misbehaviors; have consequences of disruptive behavior; communicate them to children

✓Handling disruptions

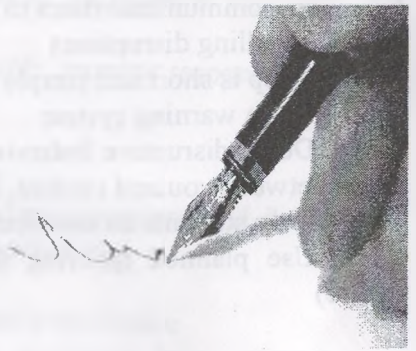
- Keep is short and simple (KISS)
- Use a warning system
- Defer disruptive behavior proactively (eye contact, close space between you and student, use head/hand gestures)
- Help students be successful
- Use planned ignoring (and teach other student to also ignore)

Questions on Chapter I

1. What is teaching? Why do we need methods in teaching?
2. What is primary education (secondary, high and higher education)?
3. What is the difference between public and private school? Can you compare public and private schools in your country?
4. Can you explain relations between good lesson planning, delivery techniques and classroom management? Which one is more important, which one is less important?
5. Choose the most important 3 suggestions from the list out of each part. Why do you think that they are the most important?

Tasks

1. Write about educational system in your country.
2. Write about changes, reforms and new branches in educational system of your country.
3. Make comparative analysis of European countries' educational system and your country's educational system.



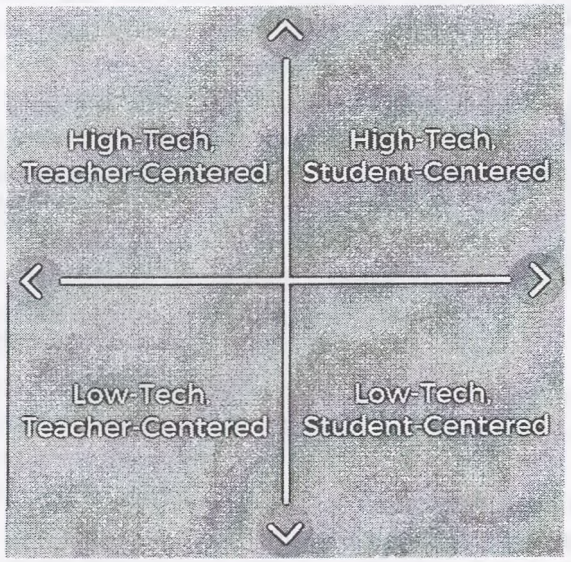
CHAPTER II. COMPARATIVE METHODS

2.1. Types of teaching methods

The term teaching method refers to the general principles, pedagogy and management strategies used for classroom instruction.

Your choice of teaching method depends on what fits you — your educational philosophy, classroom demographic, subject area(s) and school mission statement.

Teaching theories can be organized into four categories based on two major parameters: a teacher-centered approach versus a student-centered approach, and high-tech material use versus low-tech material use.



Teacher-Centered Approach to Learning

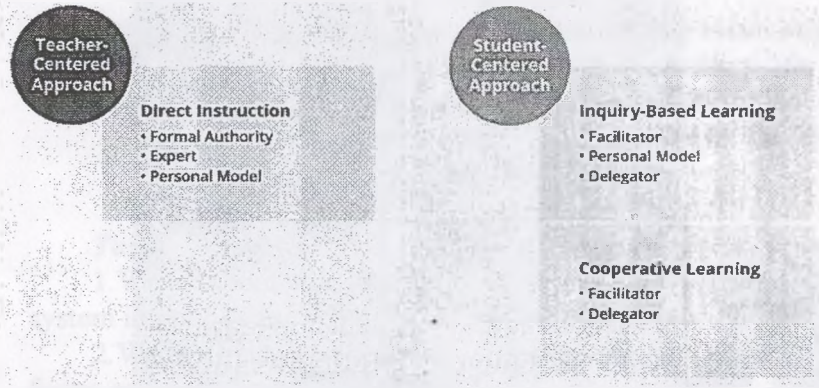
Taken to its most extreme interpretation, teachers are the main authority figure in a teacher-centered instruction model. Students are viewed as "empty vessels" who passively receive knowledge

from their teachers through lectures and direct instruction, with an end goal of positive results from testing and assessment. In this style, teaching and assessment are viewed as two separate entities; student learning is measured through objectively scored tests and assessments.

Student-Centered Approach to Learning

While teachers are still an authority figure in a student-centered teaching model, teachers and students play an equally active role in the learning process.

The teacher's primary role is to coach and facilitate student learning and overall comprehension of material, and to measure student learning through both formal and informal forms of assessment, like group projects, student portfolios, and class participation. In the student-centered classroom, teaching and assessment are connected because student learning is continuously measured during teacher instruction.



High Tech Approach to Learning

Advancements in technology have propelled the education sector in the last few decades. As the name suggests, the high tech approach to learning utilizes different technology to aid students in their classroom learning. Many educators use computers and tablets in the classroom, and others may use the internet to assign homework. The internet is also beneficial in a classroom setting as

it provides unlimited resources. Teachers may also use the internet in order to connect their students with people from around the world.

Below are some tech tools used in classrooms today:

- G Suite (Gmail, Docs, Drive, and Calendar)
- Tablets/laptops
- Gamification software (such as 3DGameLab and Classcraft)
- Education-focused social media platforms
- Technology for accessibility External link for students with disabilities

Low Tech Approach to Learning

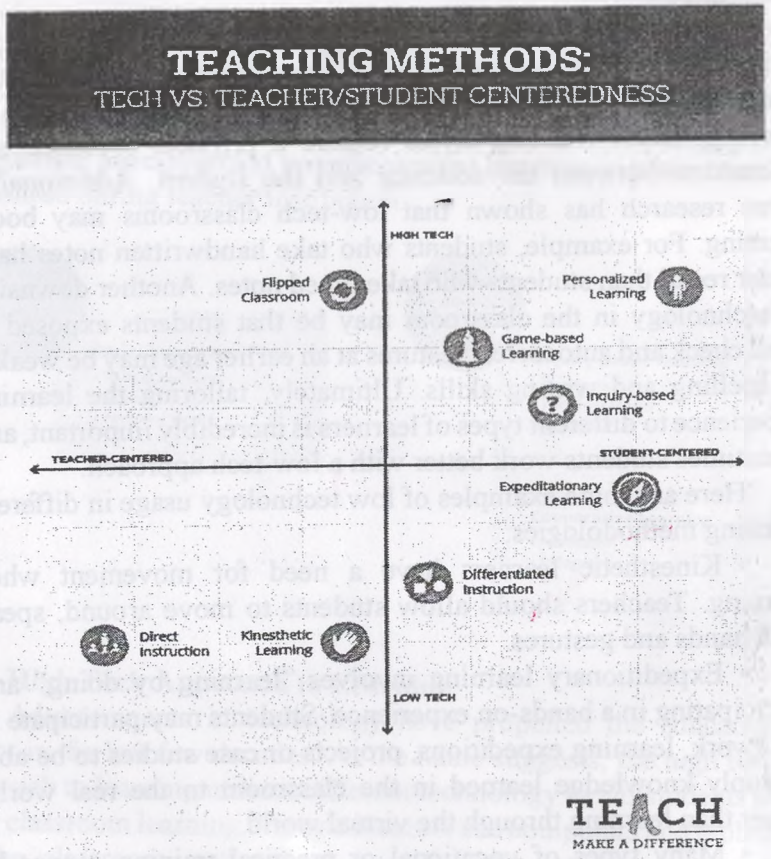
While technology undoubtedly has changed education, many educators opt to use a more traditional, low tech approach to learning. Some learning styles require a physical presence and interaction between the educator and the student. Additionally, some research has shown that low-tech classrooms may boost learning. For example, students who take handwritten notes have better recall than students who take typed notes. Another downside of technology in the classroom may be that students exposed to spell check and autocorrect features at an earlier age may be weaker in spelling and writing skills. Ultimately, tailoring the learning experience to different types of learners is incredibly important, and sometimes students work better with a low-tech approach.

Here are some examples of low technology usage in different teaching methodologies:

- Kinesthetic learners have a need for movement when learning. Teachers should allow students to move around, speak with hands and gestures.
- Expeditionary learning involves "learning by doing" and participating in a hands-on experience. Students may participate in fieldwork, learning expeditions, projects or case studies to be able to apply knowledge learned in the classroom to the real world, rather than learning through the virtual world.
- Many types of vocational or practical training cannot be learned virtually, whether it be a laboratory experiment or woodworking.

2.2. Comparative study of teaching methods

Through these different approaches to teaching, educators can gain a better understanding of how best to govern their classrooms, implement instruction, and connect with their students. Within each category of teacher and student centeredness and tech usage, there are specific teaching roles or "methods" of instructor behavior that feature their own unique mix of learning and assessment practices. Learn more about each one to find the best fit for your classroom.



Teacher-Centered Methods of Instruction

Direct Instruction (Low Tech)

Direct instruction is the general term that refers to the traditional teaching strategy that relies on explicit teaching through lectures and teacher-led demonstrations.

In this method of instruction, the teacher might play one or all of the following roles:

Formal Authority	Expert	Personal Model
Formal Authority teachers are in a position of power and authority because of their exemplary knowledge and status over their students. Classroom management styles are traditional and focus on rules and expectations.	Expert teachers are in possession of all knowledge and expertise within the classroom. Their primary role is to guide and direct learners through the learning process. Student are viewed solely as the receptors of knowledge and information ("empty vessels.")	Teachers who operate under the "Personal Model" style are those who lead by example, demonstrating to students how to access and comprehend information. In this teaching model, students learn through observing and copying the teacher's process.

As the primary teaching strategy under the **teacher-centered approach**, direct instruction utilizes passive learning, or the idea that students can learn what they need to through listening and watching very precise instruction. Teachers and professors act as the sole supplier of knowledge, and under the direct instruction model, teachers often utilize systematic, scripted lesson plans. Direct instruction programs include exactly what the teacher should say, and activities that students should complete, for every minute of the lesson.

Because it does not include student preferences or give them opportunities for hands-on or alternative types of learning, direct instruction is extremely teacher-centered. it's also fairly low-tech, often relying on the use of textbooks and workbooks instead of computers and 1:1 devices.

Flipped Classrooms (High Tech)

The idea of the flipped classroom began in 2007 when two teachers began using software that would let them record their live lectures. By the next school year, they were implementing pre-

recorded lectures and sharing the idea of what became known as the flipped classroom.

Broadly, the flipped classroom label describes the teaching structure that has students watching pre-recorded lessons at home and completing in-class assignments, as opposed to hearing lectures in class and doing homework at home. Teachers who implement the flipped classroom model often film their own instructional videos, but many also use pre-made videos from online sources.

A key benefit of the flipped classroom model is that it allows for students to work at their own pace if that is how the teacher chooses to implement it. In some cases, teachers may assign the same videos to all students, while in others, teachers may choose to allow students to watch new videos as they master topics (taking on a more "differentiated" approach).

But despite this potential for more student-centeredness, flipped classroom models are still mostly based on a teacher's idea of how learning should happen and what information students need, making it chiefly teacher-centered. From a technology perspective, the system hinges on pre recorded lessons and online activities, meaning both students and teachers need a good internet connection and devices that can access it.

Kinesthetic Learning (Low Tech)

Sometimes known as tactile learning or hands-on learning, kinesthetic learning is based on the idea of multiple intelligences, requiring students to do, make, or create. In a kinesthetic learning environment, students perform physical activities rather than listen to lectures or watch demonstrations. Hands-on experiences, drawing, role-play, building, and the use of drama and sports are all examples of kinesthetic classroom activities.

Though a great way to keep students engaged and, at times, simply awake, very few classrooms employ kinesthetic learning activities exclusively. One reason is that, despite the popularity of learning style theories, there is a lack of researched-based evidence that shows that teaching to certain learning styles produces better academic results.

One upside is that kinesthetic learning is rarely based on technology, as the method values movement and creativity over technological skills. That means it's cheap and fairly low-barrier to adopt, as well as a welcome break from students' existing screen time. Kinesthetic learning can be more student-centered than teacher-centered when students are given the choice of how to use movement to learn new information or experience new skills, so it's also adaptable to a teacher's particular classroom preferences.

Student-Centered Methods of Instruction

Differentiated Instruction (Low Tech)

Differentiated instruction is the teaching practice of tailoring instruction to meet individual student needs. It initially grew popular with the 1975 Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), which ensured all children had equal access to public education. The Individualized Education Programs (IEPs) that started under IDEA helped classroom teachers differentiate for students with special needs. Today, differentiated instruction is used to meet the needs of all types of learners.

Teachers can differentiate in a number of ways: how students access content, the types of activities students do to master a concept, what the end product of learning looks like, and how the classroom is set up. Some examples of differentiation include: having students read books at their own reading levels, offering different spelling lists to students, or meeting in small groups to reteach topics.

Though differentiation is focused on individual student needs, it is mostly planned and implemented by the teacher. And technology, though a potential aid, is not a hallmark of the differentiated teaching style, making it a fairly traditional, low-barrier method to adopt.

Inquiry-based Learning (High Tech)

Based on student investigation and hands-on projects, inquiry-based learning is a teaching method that casts a teacher as a supportive figure who provides guidance and support for students throughout their learning process, rather than a sole authority figure.

In this method of instruction, the teacher might play one or all of the following roles:

Facilitator	Personal Model	Delegator
Facilitators place a strong emphasis on the teacher-student relationship. Operating under an open classroom model, there is a de-emphasis on teacher instruction, and both student and educator undergo the learning process together. Student learning loosely guided by the teacher, and is focused on fostering independence, hands-on learning, and exploration	Teachers who operate under the "Personal Model" style are those who lead by example, demonstrating to students how to access and comprehend information. In this teaching model, students learn through observing and copying the teacher's process.	Teachers act as a "resource" to students, answering questions and reviewing their progress as needed. Teachers play a passive role in student's learning; students are active and engaged participants in their learning. The main goal of a Delegator is to foster a sense of autonomy in the learning process.

Teachers encourage students to ask questions and consider what they want to know about the world around them. Students then research their questions, find information and sources that explain key concepts and solve problems they may encounter along the way. Findings might be presented as self-made videos, websites, or formal presentations of research results.

Inquiry-based learning falls under the student-centered approach, in that students play an active and participatory role in their own learning. But teacher facilitation is also extremely key to the process. Usually, during the inquiry cycle, every student is working on a different question or topic. In this environment, teachers ask high-level questions and make research suggestions about the process rather than the content. At the end of the inquiry cycle, students reflect on the experience and what they learned. They also consider how it connects to other topics of interest, as an inquiry on one topic often results in more questions and then an inquiry into new fields.

Inquiry-based learning can make great use of technology through online research sites, social media, and the possibility for global connections with people outside of the community. But depending on the subject at hand, it doesn't necessarily require it.

Expeditionary Learning (High Tech)

Expeditionary learning is based on the ideas of the educator who founded Outward Bound, and is a form of project-based

learning in which students go on expeditions and engage in in-depth study of topics that impact their schools and communities.

The learning in this model includes multiple content areas so that students can see how problem-solving can happen in the real world-ideally, their own worlds. A student in a big city, for example, might study statistics about pollution, read information about its effects, and travel to sites in their city that have been impacted by the problem. When they have a good understanding of the circumstances, students and teachers work to find a solution they can actively implement.

Technology-wise, G Suite (Google Docs, Sheets, and Drive) and internet access can aid student research, presentation, and implementation of projects. But it's the hands-on work and getting out into the community that's the cornerstone of this methodology.

Personalized Learning (High Tech)

Personalized learning is such a new educational model that its definition is still evolving. At the heart of the model, teachers have students follow personalized learning plans that are specific to their interests and skills. Student self-direction and choice in the curriculum are hallmarks of personalized learning.

Assessment is also tailored to the individual: schools and classrooms that implement personalized learning use competency-based progression, so that students can move onto the next standards or topics when they've mastered what they're currently working on. That way, students in personalized learning classrooms can progress to work beyond their grade level as they master topics, while students who need additional help have that time built into their daily schedules as well.

There's also room for an emphasis on college and career readiness in personalized learning environments. Students who don't require remediation or extension work can instead work with teachers to nurture social skills and other or 21st-century skills lessons and receive mentoring.

Personalized learning is extremely student centered, but teachers are required to lessons, look at frequent assessment data, and meet with students to make any necessary changes to their

learning plans. They'll also need to have a certain comfort level with technology: the differentiated and personalized instruction that students receive often come in the form of online lessons and programs, so teachers must be able to navigate virtual platforms with ease.

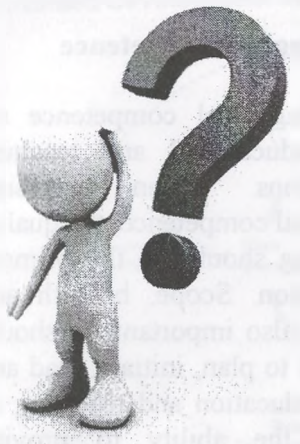
Game-based Learning (High Tech)

Game-based learning comes from the desire to engage students in more active learning in the classroom. Because they require students to be problem solvers and use soft skills that they will need as adults, games are a great way to encourage a "mastery" mindset, rather than a focus on grades.

In a game-based learning environment, students work on quests to accomplish a specific goal (learning objective) by choosing actions and experimenting along the way. As students make certain progress or achievements, they can earn badges and experience points, just like they would in their favorite video games.

Game-based learning requires a lot of time and planning on the teachers' part. Fortunately, there is software that makes this process much easier, like 3DGameLab and Classcraft. Teachers who use this software may be better at differentiating quests for students because of the data the programs provide.

Because teachers play a big role in planning and creating content under this model, game-based learning isn't completely student-centered. But it is still very much focused on the student, who works at their own pace and makes independent choices in a gamified environment.

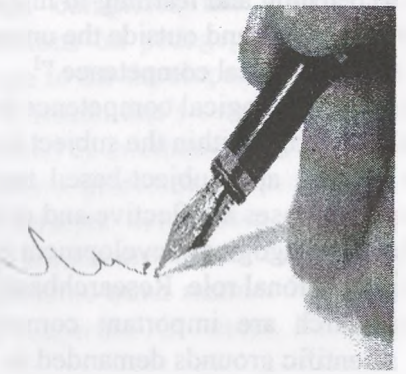


Questions on Chapter II:

1. Speak about the advantages and disadvantages of teacher centered learning.
2. Speak about the advantages and disadvantages of student centered learning.
3. Do you think that Inquiry-based learning is applicable in all levels of education?
4. Do you find Explanatory learning is good for adults or children? Why?
5. Please, explain the main advantages of game-based learning.

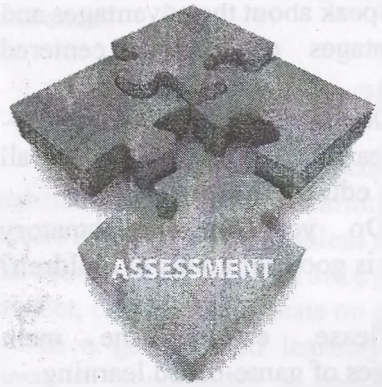
Tasks

1. Write your opinion concerning High tech and Low Tech Approaches to Learning.
2. Find appropriate Education focused social media platform for EFL.
3. Compare teaching methods given at "2.2. Comparative study of teaching methods" on page 16.



CHAPTER III. PEDAGOGICAL COMPETENCE

3.1. Assessment areas for pedagogical competence



"Pedagogical competence refers to educational and teaching qualifications. When assessing pedagogical competence, the quality of teaching should be the primary consideration. Scope, breadth and depth are also important, as should the ability to plan, initiate, lead and develop education and teaching, as well as the ability to provide research-based teaching on the basis of research in the relevant subject, subject didactics and teaching and learning in higher education. The ability to interact on issues related to teaching and learning in higher education with individuals active both within and outside the university is also included in the concept of pedagogical competence."[1]

Pedagogical competence is based on sound, broad and current knowledge within the subject area, as well as knowledge of student learning and subject-based teaching and learning issues. It also presupposes a reflective and critical approach to teaching, learning and pedagogical development over time, as it is tied to one's own professional role. Researchbased teaching and the individual's own research are important components in terms of satisfying the scientific grounds demanded in Chalmers' programmes.

Figure 1 below illustrates the complexity of the concept of pedagogical competence and the activities of a pedagogically skilled teacher[2]. Pedagogical competence is demonstrated by successful teaching and development of teaching as well as by evaluations and student learning. Both general and subject-specific

[1] The definition of pedagogical competence and the assessment criteria are based on theories on Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL), and are found in the Uppsala University's Rules of Procedure.

[2] The model is based on theories on Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL), and is inspired by the report. *A Swedish perspective on Pedagogical competence* (Å Ryegård, K Apelgren & T Olsson 2010:124).

knowledge of how students learn is a prerequisite as well as for continued development of pedagogical competence to be possible.

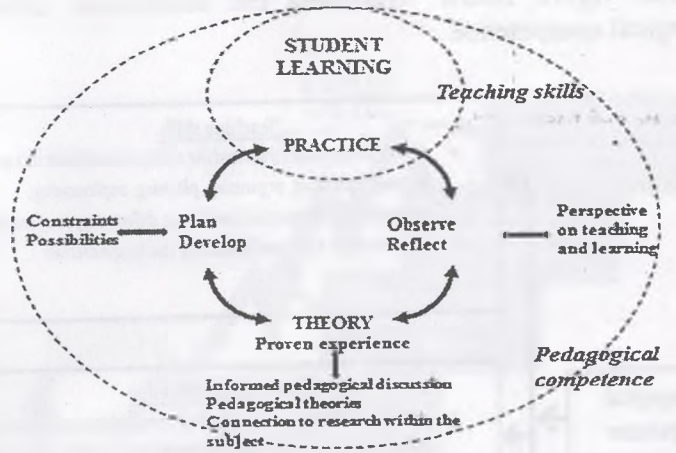


Figure 1. Model of pedagogical competence

Pedagogical competence also comprises the ability and willingness to take part in discussions on pedagogy to achieve personal development and contribute to the development of others. Participation can take many forms; within one's own subject area or on a general level, and on a national or international level. For a position as senior lecturer, associate professor or professor, a candidate must have completed courses comprising 15 higher education credits (10 old higher education credits) in teaching and learning in higher education, or in some other manner be able to demonstrate the corresponding expertise in most European countries.

Pedagogical qualifications must be presented in a pedagogical portfolio.

Assessment areas for pedagogical competence

The following assessment areas are used to assess pedagogical competence:

- Teaching skills
- Theoretical knowledge

• Approach characterized by willingness and the ability to develop

The figure below illustrates the assessment areas for pedagogical competence.

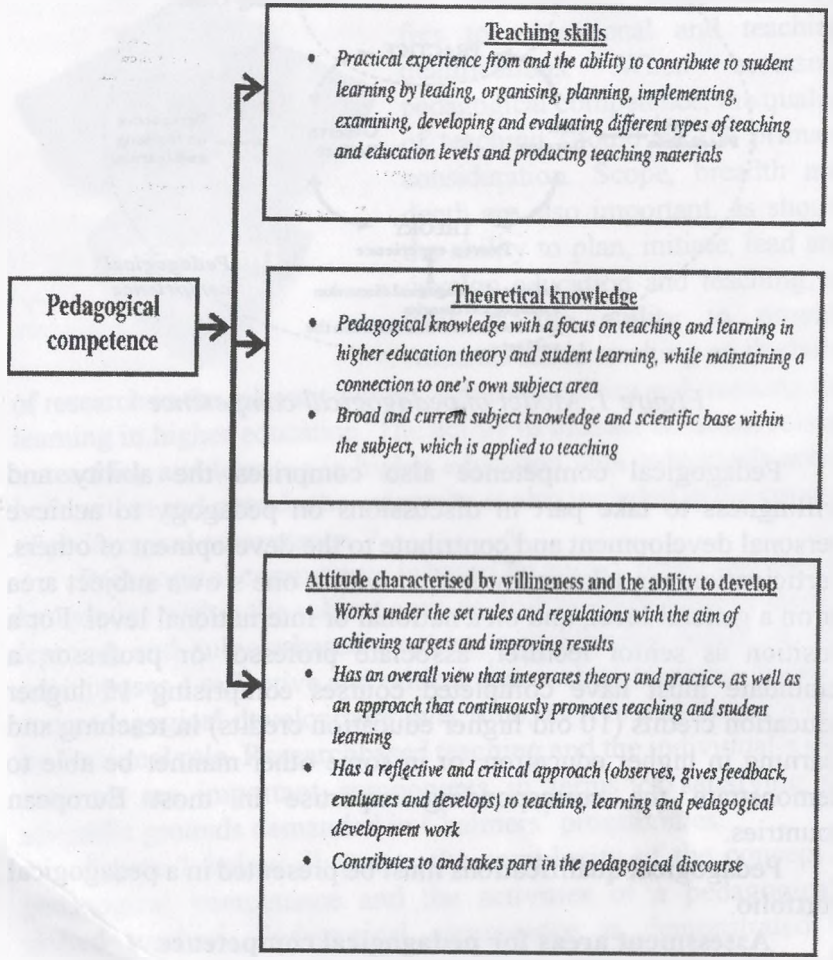
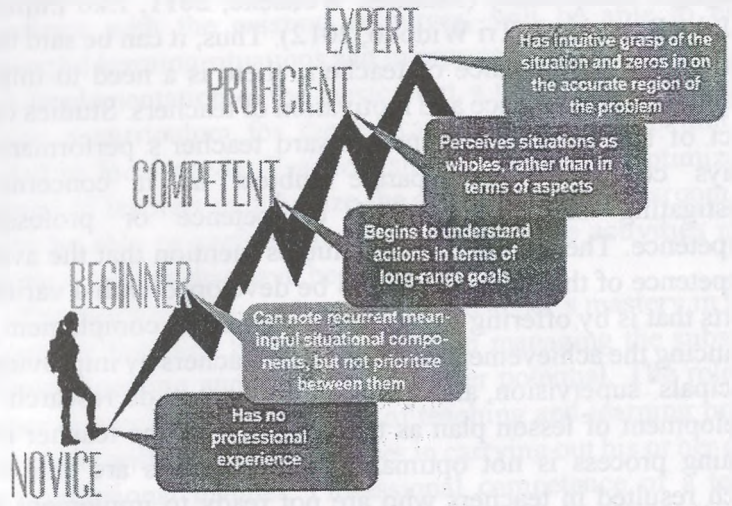


Figure 2. Assessment areas for pedagogical competence.

1.2. Pedagogical Competence and the Performance of Science Teachers



Improving the quality of education in every institution can be done by improving the competence of teachers, which provides scholarships to outstanding teachers to continue their studies in accordance with the needs of the development of quality education in the definite area. This is particularly done to improve the good teacher's competence in developing professional competence and pedagogic competence.

Development of professional and pedagogical competence is done by providing opportunities for teachers improve their knowledge and skills to develop teaching materials and use various methods of learning in the learning process, provides the opportunity for teachers to take the initiative and creativity in working to develop insight knowledge. Achievement motivation of teachers tends to be low due to the facilities and the lack of instructional media. Achievement motivation must be supported by the principal to provide the opportunity for teachers to conduct research and perform a variety of activities aimed at improving

teacher activity (Ridwan, 2008). The study explains that the pedagogical gives effect on performance, so to improve the performance of teachers, teacher needs to improve his or her pedagogic competency (Marthen Wonseke, 2011; Eko Pujiastuti, Tri Joko Raharjo, A. Tri Widodo, 2012). Thus, it can be said that to improve the performance of teachers, there is a need to improve pedagogical competence and motivation of teachers. Studies on the effect of teacher's competence toward teacher's performance is always considered as separate subject as it concerns on investigating only pedagogical competence or professional competence. The results of these studies mention that the average competence of the teachers need to be developed with a variety of efforts that is by offering instructional media that complement and, enhancing the achievement motivation of teachers by improving the principals' supervision, and fostering teachers to do research. The development of lesson plan as the main task of the teacher in the learning process is not optimally done (teachers are still lazy), which resulted in teachers who are not ready to implement good things in the learning process (Nunuh, 2012; payu, 2011; Ayu Ngurah NM, et al, 2011).

Here we simultaneously see the teacher 's ability in mastering the learning material between the substance and methodology of other subjects, as well as the structure, content, and organization of teaching science curriculum. The ability is focused on the ability to design learning, implement learning and the ability to implement the evaluation of student learning outcomes as well as the follow-up of learner assessment. Another difference is that we highlight the use on the use of instrument to obtain research data. The instrument used is a testing of the competency test. This is done so that the teacher does not give subjective answers as in the questionnaire. The problem of pedagogical competence test covers all indicators of pedagogical competence assessment This study expects that a science teacher should have a correct understanding of science teaching materials that can be integrated into the lives of young people, to understand the science curriculum, understand the limits of material science and scientific skills that should be

possessed by learners. Science teacher should have the ability to develop a national curriculum on science learning into the school - based curriculum that is more contextual for learners. The translation of the curriculum into the learning syllabus in accordance with the existing resources, will be able to create meaningful learning situations and interpreted learners. With regard to the implementation of the curriculum, a teacher must be able to develop a curriculum for the education level of each unit and adapted to local needs. Teachers should be able to optimize the potential of learners to actualize the abilities in the classroom, and should be able to perform an assessment of the activities in the learning activities that have been carried out.

Teacher's quality can be seen from teacher's mastery in his or her subject field and his or her ability in managing the substance academic learning and develop his or her potential. The role of a teacher is very strategic in terms of teaching and learning process as he or she will bring consequences in carrying out his or her duties in a professional manner. Professional competence of a teacher determines the quality of education. Teachers who have a science competency are highly required to master the material in depth, in both structure, concepts, and methods of science which are coherent with the teaching materials. They should be able to relate the concept of related subjects, and are able to apply the concepts of science in everyday life, because by mastering what is mentioned it will affect its performance as educators.

Science teacher performance is quite good if the science teacher has the ability to match the characteristics of the science material. Professional Science teacher should have professional competency standards which include the ability to master science content, and the nature of science. Science teacher competence in science content is the ability of teachers to understand the science concepts and then extend that concept systematic concepts that one can connect with other science concepts. While science teacher professional competency standards in terms of understanding the nature of science can be seen from teacher's ability to present science learning in accordance with the nature of students or in

other words it is about how a teacher can put science into learning in daily life as a science is a product of forming attitudes.

Pedagogical competence should absolutely be owned by each teacher in order to carry out the learning tasks so that they can do all the things well. In addition, in the learning implementation a teacher should master teaching materials presented in a way that a teacher must also master a variety of teaching methods so that what is delivered can be well understood by the students. According to Akhmad Sudrajat (2012) pedagogical competence is distinctive competencies, which will differentiate teachers to other professions and will determine the level of success of the process and learning outcomes learners. Teachers who have the pedagogical competence of teachers are those who are able to manage learning, as can be seen from the pedagogical ability to plan learning programs, the ability to implement or manage the interaction of the learning process, and the ability to make an assessment. Sardiman A. M. (2004) said that a competent teacher is a teacher who is able to manage the teaching and learning program. Manage here means pertaining to how a teacher is able to master the basic skills of teaching, such as opening and closing a lesson, explaining, making various media, asking, providing reinforcement , and so on, as well as how teachers implement the strategies, theories of learning and teaching , and implementing conducive learning.

We consider that teachers who have a good pedagogical competence will be able to analyze the learning potential of each learner and identify the development of potential learners through learning programs that support students to actualize their academic potential, personality, and creativity until there is clear evidence that students actualize their potential. Teachers were able to formulate and implement an educational lesson plan which is complete. The teacher is able to carry out learning activities appropriate to the needs of learners. The teacher is able to develop and use a variety of learning materials and learning resources according to the characteristics of learners. If it is relevant, teachers can also utilize information communication technology (ICT) for the sake of learning (Akhmad Sudrajat, 2012). Students seemed

more active and very enthusiastic during the experiment. In the following study, the majority of students interact with both the teachers, the teaching materials and the peers, and students are able to appreciate the experiment. But in the learning process developed, the result showed that the implementation has not been able to spur students to express ideas. Then, there should be alternative measures implemented in the classroom management which serve as solutions that need to be done to increase students' activity both within and among groups. Referring to various studies and the study of learning in designing and implementing learning science, teachers should pay attention to the following matters:

a) consider students prior knowledge,

b) view learning as a process of transformation which led to the conception of conceptual change in students' self,

c) engage students in science through experimental activities for conceptual change or knowledge which is constructed through the active participation of students in hands-on activities and mind -on ,

d) pay attention to social interaction by involving students in the activities of a group or class discussion (Unang Purwana, 2007, Bill, 1993).

Teachers need to understand the learner through learners' characteristics primarily on things related to aspects of intellectual, emotional, moral and background of learners. It is intended to smoothen the process of interaction between learners and teachers so that the learning objectives can be well achieved as expected. In the implementation of learning, teachers identify students' prior knowledge. This activity aims to determine the ability of early learners who have owned both of the material that has been taught and what will be taught which is done by providing preliminary activities such as apperception and motivation (Hasanuddin & Cut Nurmaliah, 2010). According to Azzet (2011) Teachers who are able to build the spirit of student participants are able to explain the purpose of the material to be studied and being studied.

A teacher who is said to meet professional knowledge and pedagogical skills and knowledge are those who master subject

matter in a balanced manner, because the problems that arise in the learning process may not be resolved only with one of these competencies. Professional competence and pedagogical support each other, meaning that teachers will be delivering course material to students which is good and acceptable if the teacher properly designs the learning process according to the needs of students and implement the learning process by using various methods / learning strategies. The ability in mastering the science disciplines for a Science teacher is very important but it will not succeed if the teacher does not have the ability to convey the subject matter.

Professional and pedagogical competence which are not optimal happen because of lack of creative teachers using a variety of sources to support the teaching materials contained in the curriculum. Moreover, the phenomenon is also reflected in the performance of the teacher in the management of learning programs. More teachers prepare learning programs through MGMPs (teachers' forum) rather than developing their own, so it does not develop their creativity. Creativity and innovation in developing teacher learning process that starts from the planning process needs to be done, because the creative teacher will implement a variety of learning process to make the students feel motivated to learn.

The conclusion of this study is First: if the professional competence of teachers is high, it will improve the teachers' performance. Science teachers' performance can be improved by increasing professional competence of science teachers. Some efforts should be made to improve the professional competence of a science teacher in the form of education and training related to the control of science content of junior high school in a regular basis. Besides, it can be done by optimizing the role of MGMPs (teacher's forum) as a communication medium and it is also done by deepening the materials of science by compiling some science textbooks, making technology work related to the science and provides the opportunity for teachers to continue their education. By continuing the effort to optimize the mastery of teaching

materials, the science teacher will have a broad and deep insight so that they can teach their students well.

Second: the pedagogical competence of a teacher will increase the performance of the teacher, because the teacher has the ability, especially the ability to manage the learning material that will be delivered properly to the students by using a variety of techniques, and a teacher should also be able to select appropriate learning media for the material being taught. Science teacher performance can be improved by increasing the pedagogical aspect of a science teacher. Efforts are being made to improve the pedagogical competence among science teachers to optimize the principal's role as a supervisor and as an educator. Besides, training about learning science is carried out and providing the opportunity for teacher to try out various innovative learning strategies, the use of laboratory science training, training media -based learning design IT, carry out action research to address issues that arise in the students and optimizing teaching team learning science in an integrated manner.

3.3. Pedagogical Culture

The school is an organism – as a highly experienced, innovative headmaster has recently told me. This succinct statement may provide the best starting point for the following commentaries. Indeed, those who have already attempted educational innovation know very well the difficulties of changing such an organism. No matter how we try (and manage) to change bits and pieces, it is quite probable that the changes we initiated will relatively quickly fall prey to the retrogressive force of the whole.

To carry the organism-metaphor forward, we may say that a new external element is either fully assimilated into the organism and thus the change planned obviously does not happen, or, quite contrarily, the element is rejected by the immune system of the organism, thereby making our attempt at innovation an even more spectacular failure. Let us have a look at some well-known examples.

One of the typical cases of educational innovation is when a new curriculum is introduced. Implementing this change, however, may fall through due to the lack of teaching materials (course books) and the fact that teachers are not used to these contents or layouts, they may not agree with them and perhaps no-one supervises whether the new curriculum was actually implemented or not. In such a case, the inconsistency between the curriculum and the (external and/or internal) conditions results in a kind of 'double-dip' situation: on the surface, the new curriculum is being implemented, while at a classroom level everything stays the same. A nation-wide example of such an inconsistency is Tamás Varga's 1970s reform in teaching Maths. The extremely promising reform, which was carried out collectively by several experts and produced significant results, did not become successful in Hungary, although the National Curriculum of 1978 made the new approach compulsory. One of the active participants, Julianna Szendrei claims that the reform was a failure primarily because it was made compulsory. "During implementation it turned out that the teaching of several areas was way too formal" she concludes. "It was not the in-depth content but the externals, the markers and manipulating with them that became the centre of school activity. Therefore, the work done did not entail the understanding planned. The topic of sets and logics was like an alien element treading on the realisation of the other areas" (433).

Although the differences are fairly important, we may witness a similar phenomenon in the tryout of the so-called competence-based program packages developed with the help of EU funds. In this case, the necessary teaching materials were more or less available (the program package, and the concept of the pedagogical

system[3] itself meant that the entirety of the tools and means needed for achieving the goals were included); yet, teachers in several schools felt that the programs were unreasonable and impossible to implement, and so did the headmasters, who joined the project trials not for professional reasons but for borrowing and funding. Such an attitude naturally influences the students' opinion as well, thereby creating the general mood of viewing the program as inept and claiming that, as soon as regulations allow it, there should be a return to the good old ways. Consequently, while the introduction of 'new Maths' exemplified the ways the organism assimilates attempts at innovation, the latter case presents the way the immune system works: the organism rejects anything perceived as a foreign body. We may assert that the pedagogue's preparedness and approach is a vital factor here. Yet, as an educator of pedagogues my experience (in line with that of several educators at other institutions) is that even students who have a good approach and who are educated in methodology are likely to quickly turn into advocates – or at least practitioners – of authoritarian frontal teaching at their new workplaces, obviously somehow influenced by the objective circumstances experienced in the school. The efficiency of further education for teachers is similarly dubious: they may learn, for example, the techniques of cooperative learning and become advocates of cooperative learning (in theory) but it is no use if, under the pressure of a vast compulsory curriculum, they do not have time for competence development or if the evaluation system disregards competencies which can and should be improved by group work.

The conclusion is relatively easy to draw: changes should not be initiated in one area but in all areas in unison – the curriculum, the teaching materials, the evaluation and examination system, and further trainings in methodology need to point in the same direction. As I have asserted earlier, it was precisely a comprehensive approach that pedagogical systems (i.e. educational program packages) attempted to put through. Although the

[3] An early initiative to define the concept is provided by Arató et al. (2002). For a more elaborate account see Falus et al. 268.

implementation of competence-based program packages came to a halt and, to my knowledge, analyses of the experience of the trials have not been published, I do believe now that the complexity offered by pedagogical systems is insufficient to ignite permanent change. All this is, in fact, stuck within the sphere of instruction, although a lot happens outside this sphere and this supposition is underlined not only by instances of failure but also by those of success. In examining the operation of successful schools we may not find all the prescribed elements of instruction-centred pedagogical systems, but we always fall upon a pedagogical system the elements of which point far beyond instruction, which are highly unique and difficult to be reproduced in other circumstances.

What is mentality, then, for the historian and the pedagogue? First and foremost, mentality is about the specificities of thinking in a given culture – not an individual's way of thinking but the people's thinking in general. For a certain aspect, then, mentality can be found outside the individual; it may be observed in acts that are everyday and repetitive or recurrent. "The level with which the history of *mentalité* is concerned is that of the quotidian and the automatic, that which eludes the individual subjects of history because it throws a light on the impersonal content of their thought, that which Caesar and the last soldier of his legions, Saint Louis and the peasant on the land, Christopher Columbus and the sailor on his caravels have in common" (Le Goff, "Mentalities: A New Field" 85). Mentality thus means automatisms and ingraindness, ways of thinking which tend to be unspoken and, more importantly, which are not thought over but still – hence – determine our decisions and deeds.

The French borrowed the term *mentalité* from English philosophical terminology, mentality "referring to the collective psychology, the ways of thinking and feeling, which are peculiar to 'a people, a given group of people, etc.'" ("Mentalities: A History of Ambiguities" 171), as Le Goff explains in his brief overview of the history of mentality. He adds that the term entered general usage in French at the turn of the 17th and 18th century with a slightly pejorative connotation. Indeed, the sense of ignominiousness is

present in the Hungarian usage of the term as well, in remarks such as 'You will never amount to much with this mentality.' In this sense, mentality also refers to the delimination of thinking, to the fact that our decisions are often determined by deep-rooted automatisms that are hard to control. From this point on we shall use the expressions *teachers' mentality* and *pedagogical culture* as synonyms. As we have shown above, the basic feature of any concept of culture is the tension between the internal and the external – that is, culture always already has two aspects.

One of these aspects may be called psychological and it inhabits the mind of the carrier of culture: it is the way of thinking, those beliefs, convictions and intentions which the individuals of a given culture have in common. Henceforth we shall refer to this side of culture by the simplified term *beliefs*, including both suppositions that can be rationally substantiated and superstitions that are indefensible from a rational point of view. The second aspect of culture is found in behaviour, in acts (and objects). Henceforward, there is Lucien Febvre's (1942) term and we call these external factors *mental toolbox*. As Czoch explains, Febvre's *outillage mental* basically refers to the totality of the perceptional, conceptual, linguistic and expressive categories, as well as the category of action, of an era or civilisation which determine individual and collective experience (Czoch 483).

The internal aspect is inevitable hidden and we may only infer its presence from external manifestations, which suggests that the internal (thinking and beliefs) is the reason (the independent variable) and the external (acts and objects) is the effect (the dependent variable). This hypothesis, however, is not axiomatical, since culture is the collective possession of a group and its centre lies outside the individual's mind. I shall elaborate this thought later on.

There is a power we cannot overestimate in greetings, addresses and nicknames, in the complicated system of first-naming others, calling them Mr and Ms or even Aunt and Uncle. Does it actually have a special implication whether students call their teachers by their names or neutrally refer to them as Sir or Madam? Does it give something away about 'the teacher's'

representation in the cultural community of his or her school? We may think that this is of no great importance but what if it turns out that the students do not even know the teachers' names? What if the teachers do not have a nickname at all? (Kovácsné Duró 27) The recurring issue of first-naming and 'last-naming' (i.e. addressing someone as, for example, Mr. Smith) is even more undervalued in the school. It is plain to see that the so called *csendőrpertu* or *gendarme pertu* (when the person who is older/ superior/ in a higher position talks to the person who is younger/inferior /in a lower position in an informal way, while the latter speaks to his or her 'superior' in a most polite, formal way) suggests a massive power inequality. Mutual last-naming indicates a formal relationship, a distance. Yet, when faced with such criticism, we are inclined to protest, saying that these habits do not influence our relationship with the students. True it may be but what is in question here is not the relationship between two individuals but the prevalent mentality of a community.

Language use. It is worth paying extra attention to the phenomenon of the teacher's and the student's differing language use. This may be a neutral fact in itself as long as it does not hinder communication. In most cases it does not, or at least not significantly, since there are no dramatic differences between Hungarian dialects. However, the way communication partners relate to these differences is culturally determined. Most typically, the general language norm that teachers use is the dominant form in the school, while the students' language use is in an inferior position. This power relation often manifests in teachers operating in a 'correcting mode,' defining the students' certain lexical and grammatical idiosyncrasies as errors and continually correcting them during daily communication. As for attitudes to dialects, the school's conduct has changed significantly in the past one hundred years.

Rules. What do written, formally recorded rules apply to, and what do unwritten, perhaps even unspoken, rules concern? How do unwritten rules unravel themselves? What happens when rules are broken? Similarly, vital is the question of who may participate in making and altering the rules and how much the participants of

school life are inclined to keep these rules, or, at least, to take them seriously. The mental toolbox of teaching communities that I have briefly outlined above are in part the manifestations of beliefs, but they are also a kind of arsenal that keeps these beliefs alive, verifies and to a certain extent even generates them. When beginning teachers enter a school community they do not yet possess the culture or mentality that characterises the school. They bring their mentality from the university, from youth subculture; this is what they express in their clothing, their manner of speech, their learned routine of connecting with pupils. All these are, however, conflict the prevalent pedagogical culture of the school and in most cases there is no doubt about how the tension will be diffused. The change that beginning teachers go through is dramatic. Adopting the habits defining the social space of the school actually means adopting social representations, thus beginning teachers will soon have the same beliefs (opinion) as the older members of the community. The core of pedagogical culture is not in one's spirit but outside of it, in the social force field. On transforming pedagogical culture Here we need to return to our starting point: the issue of pedagogical innovation. I wish to formulate the statement that some pedagogical innovations require a shift in pedagogical culture, that is, they cannot materialise without a turn or change in the entire culture (mentality). This means that even the smallest changes prove to be futile if intervention does not focus specifically on cultural structures. Which are the most essential dimensions in Hungarian schools that support or hinder pedagogical reformation? Hereinafter I would like to bring three of these possible dimensions to the readers' attention.

Personality – formality. Although several signs indicate that the culture of public education in Hungary has become formal/bureaucratic/reificated, most educational innovation build precisely on personality, thus, in the case of unchanged pedagogical culture, they are bound to fail.

Partnership – hierarchy. The inner world of Hungarian schools is characteristically hierarchic; its functioning is based on the power of teachers' authority. Meanwhile, most pedagogical

innovations build on partnership between teachers and students (as well as among teachers and among students) – a non-hierarchic co-operation.

Acceptance – strangeness. In most schools one of the most decisive elements of thinking is a belief in the superiority of the culture that the school represents, and the concomitant disparagement of mass culture, the culture of poverty and Roma culture, and the treatment of these cultures as alien. On the other hand, these school attempt initiating programs that perceive an accepting attitude to other cultures as a basic condition. If we take the implications above seriously, then we must accept that transforming pedagogical culture is the core issue of any pedagogical reform. In other words, the following techniques of innovation – when applied in themselves – will quite probably be ineffectual in the long run:

- introducing educational programs that are based on approaches substantially divergent from the ones we have been accustomed to,
- shaping the attitude of pedagogues in in-service training courses,
- implementing trainings in personality development, self-recognition and reducing prejudice,
- separate innovations for an isolated group of pedagogues.

We do not intend to say that these approaches are not good or that they are harmful – in fact, they involve both a great power and opportunities. Yet, without deliberate efforts at reforming our pedagogical culture, they may either turn into their own antithesis or assimilate into the 'normal' system of school life or they shall fail and die away. What does a turn in pedagogical culture mean, then?

Promoting collective self-recognition. Since culture is the common property of a given community, facing these issues may only happen collectively. The teaching stuff needs to go through processes whereby they collectively interpret all their mental toolbox and determine the meaning and significance of the toolbox.

Exchanging views with other communities. No-one shall ever believe that there exist other pedagogical cultures differing entirely from their own, until they get a first-hand experience of it. This experience, however, may only be a long process, not just a short visit to another school – that would yet again result in assimilating what was observed into their own culture. Here, the significance of exchanging views, of a conference enabling personal co-operation and revelations of self recognition, must be stressed again.

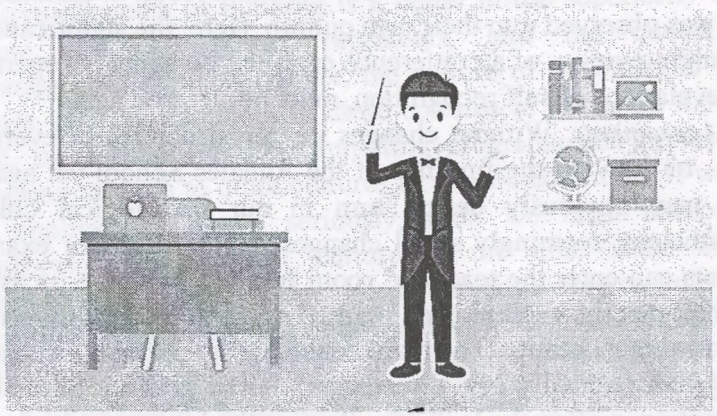
Agreements. Without changes in "the structures of everyday life" – to draw on the findings of the Annales School yet again – there may obviously be no turn in our pedagogical culture. Nevertheless, seemingly small changes in the rules (for example students can enter the teachers' room freely or we give up asking for a report at the beginning of lessons) may trigger a chain reaction in reforming mentality. The main benefit of agreements on changes is that there actually *are* agreements, as the primary obstacle in reformation is often the lack of collective thinking

Introducing innovations alien to the pedagogical culture. That which is presumably doomed to fail in itself can in fact be the chief generator of change if it is part of a comprehensive program to revolutionise pedagogical culture. Project method, for example, may serve as a means of revolutionising pedagogical culture by creating partnership between teachers and students. At first glance it may seem that changing our approach should come first, followed by the transformation of actions. However, inconsistency between actions and approaches may also emerge in a reverse direction – it is partly what we learn about in Festinger's wellknown theory of cognitive dissonance. Sometimes, out of necessity, we change our behaviour, and we may also reduce the emerging dissonance by adapting our beliefs and convictions to our changed behaviour. This phenomenon may not only be the basic process of acculturation but also be of service to a turn in pedagogical culture.

Authority figures as role models. It is crucially important who initiates changes and who is/are first in their realisation. The head of the school is obviously a key figure, but in some cases other important reference persons may also play an important part in this

process. Following the example set by key innovators is probably central to a turn in pedagogical culture[4].

3.4. Tips and Ideas for the First Day of Classes



One of the most important class days is the first. The first day can excite students about the class, calm their fears, and set their expectations for the semester. The first day is an opportunity for the teacher to get to know and begin to evaluate students and to express expectations for the semester.

Be Early

Be early for class, even if only a few minutes, so that you can write on the board what the class is, i.e. Conversation 305, Intensive Level 5. Being early allows you to arrange the room the way you want to and to make sure all the necessary equipment is there. Write your name on the board. Do you want your students first impression of you to be one where you run in like a chicken with your head cut off, or one where you appear organized and in control?

[4] Wesley János Többcélú Intézmény (John Wesley Multipurpose Institution) in Abaújkér and IV. Béla Primary School in Hejőkeresztúr. See Knausz (2011; 2012).

Be Accessible

When your students have arrived (or, frequently, as they are arriving) introduce yourself. If you use a nickname, explain what it means and why you use it. If you have office hours, tell students when they are and where your office is. Giving your students your pager and office or home telephone numbers allows them to call you when they won't be in class or to find out what work they missed, and makes them feel closer to you. You seem more accessible. Give them your e-mail account and tell them they can practice writing by sending you messages.

Nicknames

At this point you can write students names in your roll book. Encourage students to take English nicknames. Not only will this make remembering them easier for you, it allows shy students a false identity to hide behind when they answer questions or do role plays.

Location, Location, Location

Explain the location of rooms and areas in the building. Students need to know where the toilets, smoking areas, and vending machines are.Tell students where the school secretaries and the bursar's offices are. Don't forget to advise the students of procedures in case of emergencies.

Class Rules

Talk about class rules. Students need to know what the absence and homework policies are. If you don't allow cell phones or eating in class, it's easier to deal with it on the first day, rather than address it when it occurs. You may have to address it then, as well, but you laid the ground work on day one.

What's Happening?

Students should be told about school opportunities. Some schools have English clubs, or international student associations. If your school offers TOEFL classes or ESP classes, tell the students.

Advise students of study areas. School breaks and holidays should, also, be addressed.

Asking students what they expect and want from class not only gives you ideas of how to tailor the class to your students needs, but it starts them talking.

Show students the textbooks and tell them where they can buy them. This will ensure they have the right books and reinforce that they are in the correct class. However, if possible, don't jump into the book the first day. There are other introductory activities that can be used to get students talking to each other.

Introduction Games

There are a myriad of introduction games to get to know students and to get them talking. Very simple ones, such as introducing yourself and telling an interest, with the next person repeating the information and adding theirs, works well with lower level learners. A variation of this is to toss a ball, or other small object, back and forth, with the person catching providing the information.

Interview games are sometimes better for students too shy to speak in front of groups. Prepare a list of questions, such as "Who can play piano?", "Who can say 'good morning' in German?", and "Who has one brother?", and have students walk around and interview each other to gather the information. A variation of this is to put the questions on a Bingo board. If students shyly stand waiting to be approached, take them to other students and walk them through an interview. The teacher should also participate. This is a chance for you to get to know you students.

An activity that works well with classes that have been together for several months is Timeline. A timeline is a graph that notes important events, such as birth, school graduations, moving from one town to another, and marriage, and the dates they occurred on. Feel free to include less serious moments such as "my first visit to disco". Students enjoy learning special things about the teacher.

Before class, teachers prepare a timeline of their life. Teachers show their example, explain the idea, give the student paper, and

have them prepare one. Tell students to list at least five or six events and not to put their names on the timelines. Collect them, when the students finish, number them, and tape the time lines up around the room. Students then need to walk around the room and interview each other to determine which timeline belongs to which classmate. Students can ask either open ended information questions (When were you born?) or yes/no questions (Did you go to disco for the first time in 1995?), but can not ask the interviewee's number. After students have determined which timeline belongs to which student, or after a set time, remove the timelines from the walls and ask students who is who.

These introductory tips and exercises work best with a two hour block of time, but can be adjusted for shorter classes. Stretching this into a longer class could become tedious.

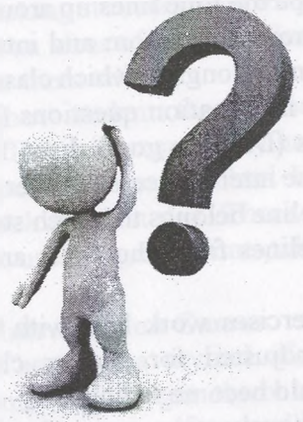
All the time you are doing the exercises, you should be evaluating the students. Who has a good command of grammar? Who spells well? Who is shy, or outgoing? You can use all of this information during the semester.

Thank Students

Finally, thank the student for enrolling in the class. This is a simple thing, but in the first days of class, when a lot is happening, students need to know they are appreciated. This is, certainly, important with private language institutes, but university students need this, too.

Closing Comments

Remember when you were a student starting a new class. You wanted to know who those people next to you were. You wanted to know who the teacher was and what was expected of you. And you wanted to know where the bathroom was. Following this plan, or a similar one, will answer your student's questions and help you to get to know them better and faster.



Questions on Chapter III:

1. What is pedagogical competence?

2. How do you assess your own teaching skills and theoretical competence?

3. What is pedagogical culture?

4. Do you remember your first lesson? Share your impressions.

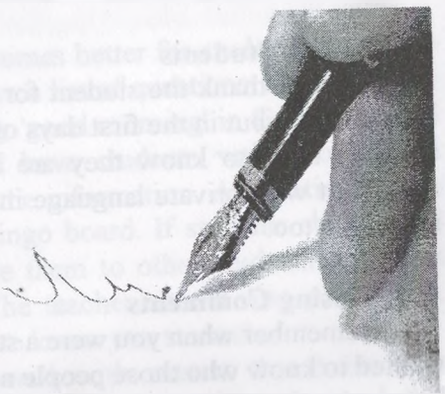
5. Can you add more tips for the First Day of Classes (3.4. Tips and ideas for the First Day of Classes)

Tasks

1. Find tips and ideas on pedagogical portfolio and create your own portfolio.

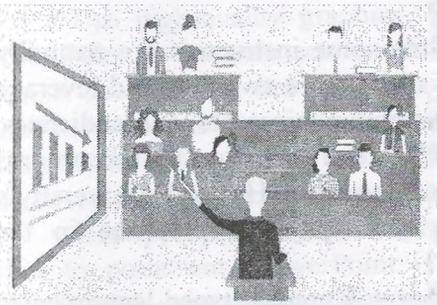
2. Write an article about pedagogical culture and specific features of pedagogical culture in your country.

3. Write about your own suggestions concerning First Day in a lesson.



CHAPTER IV. TEACHING METHODS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

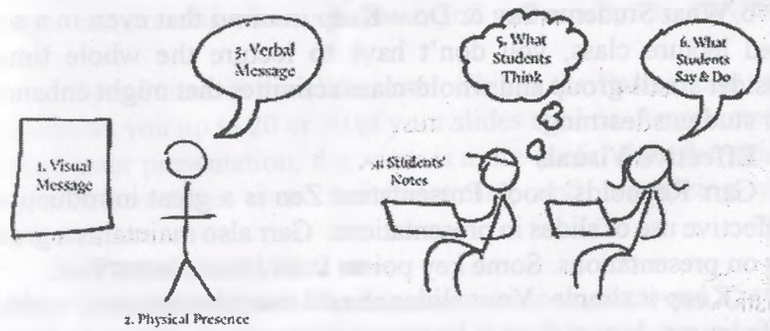
4.1. Lectures, practical lessons in higher education



"Lecturing is not simply a matter of standing in front of a class and reciting what you know. The classroom lecture is a special form of communication in which voice, gesture, movement, facial expression, and eye contact can either complement or detract from the content. No matter what your topic, your delivery and manner of speaking immeasurably influence your students' attentiveness and learning."

The above quote is from "Delivering a Lecture," a chapter in Barbara Gross Davis' classic text Tools for Teaching. That chapter is an excellent resource for learning how to lecture well.

When planning a lecture, keep in mind that you have control or influence over several elements of your classroom:



1. Visual Message – The slides and other visual aids you use can either complement or confuse your verbal message, depending on how you design them. Consider how photos and other images might function as metaphors that make your points more memorable. (For an example, see the "Lecturing Basics" slideshow above.)

2. Physical Presence – While some instructors are naturally gifted public speakers, we can all be more aware of and leverage our physical presence to better communicate to our audiences. (Watch "The Act of Teaching: Theater Techniques for Classrooms and Presentations" for great advice from Harvard University's Nancy Houfek on improving your physical presence in the classroom.)

3. Verbal Message – Whether you prepare typed lecture notes or just improvise in the classroom, the words you say are an integral part of your lecture.

4. Students' Notes – Students can often spend more mental energy taking notes during class than thinking about your content. Consider ways you can make it easier for your students to take notes so they can focus more on engaging with your material.

5. What Students Think – As Angelo and Cross say in their classic book Classroom Assessment Techniques, "teaching without learning is just talking." How can you help your students mentally grapple with your material during class?

6. What Students Say & Do – Keep in mind that even in a so-called lecture class, you don't have to lecture the whole time. Consider small-group and whole-class activities that might enhance your students learning.

Effective Visuals

Garr Reynolds' book Presentation Zen is a great introduction to effective use of slides in presentations. Garr also maintains a great blog on presentations. Some key points from Presentation Zen:

• Keep it simple. Your slides should complement your verbal message, not detract from it by unnecessary visual clutter. In many instances, students should be able to take in your slides in a second or two, then focus on you.

• Limit bullet points and text. Keep in mind that your slides probably shouldn't function as your own personal teleprompter. Your slides are for your students' benefit. If your slides say just about everything that you say, then your students won't know where to pay attention–to you or to your slides.

• Use high-quality graphics. The clip art that comes with PowerPoint is certainly convenient (and more visually-appealing than it used to be), but there are online sources of free, high-resolution images that can have much greater visual impact. For instance, millions of photos are available for free, educational use on the photo-sharing site Flickr under the Creative Commons license.

• Use appropriate charts. As analytical designer Edward Tufte likes to point out, PowerPoint is not a great tool at sharing complicated infographics. If you have a complicated chart or graphic to share with your students, it's often helpful to provide it to them as a handout. Simpler, more elegant charts often work better in PowerPoint. Think carefully about which kind of chart (pie, vertical bar, horizontal bar, line, etc.) will best communicate the idea you want to share with your students.

• Choose your fonts well. Sans-serif fonts are often easier to read on slides than serif fonts. Too many different fonts in a slide or a presentation can be distracted, so try to limit yourself to one or two. Font size matters, too. Be sure that your fonts are large enough to be read at the back of the room. And if you're keeping your slides simple and limiting your use of text, you can usually use very large fonts.

• Spend time in the slide sorter. This is the PowerPoint view that shows you up to 20 or 30 of your slides at once. As you start to design your presentation, this view is more useful than the default one-slide-at-a-time view for structuring and organizing your content.

Interactive Lectures

"Given that students have an attention span of around 15 to 20 minutes and that university classes are scheduled for around 50 or 75 minutes, instructors must do something to control their students'

attention. We recommend building a 'change–up' into your class to restart the attention clock."

The above quote is from "The 'Change-Up' in Lectures," an article by Joan Middendorf and Alan Kalish. The article describes more than 20 practical strategies for breaking up lectures with activities that help keep students engaged and foster active learning. Here are just a few:

• Write a Question – Instead of just saying, "Are there any questions?", ask all of your students to spend a minute or two reflecting on the lecture thus far and writing down one or two questions on paper.

• Think-Pair-Share – After posing a sufficiently difficult question, instead of asking for volunteers to answer the question, have students think about the question silently for a minute. Then have them pair up and discuss the question with their partners. Then ask for students to share their perspectives with the whole class.

• Finding Illustrative Quotations – Ask students to reread the text for the day to find quotations that support particular arguments. You might have all students address the same argument or different students look at different arguments.

• Brainstorming – As a segue to a new topic, have students share any thought, idea, story, etc. that occurs to them in relation to the new topic. Record these ideas at the board without analyzing them. After the ideas have been surfaced, then move on to more critical discussion.

• Practice Homework Problems – After lecturing on a particular type of problem, give students a problem to work at their seats that resembles the kinds of problems they'll see on their homework. After giving students a few minutes to try to work through the problem, discuss the problem with the class.

Here are a few other ideas for more interactive lectures:

• Classroom Response Systems ("Clickers") – These are instructional technologies that allow instructors to collect and analyze student responses to multiple-choice (and sometimes free-response) questions during class.Typically, an instructor poses a question to a group of students, students submit their answers to the

question using wireless handheld devices (often called "clickers") that beam radio frequency signals to a receiver connected to the instructor's computer, software on the instructor's computer displays a bar chart showing the distribution of responses, and the instructor uses these results to make "on the fly" teaching decisions that are responsive to student learning needs.

• Backchannel – The term "backchannel" refers to the student-to-student and student-to-instructor conversations that can occur during lectures and presentations. All lectures involve some form of backchannel, such as an instructor requesting questions from students or back-of-the-room chit chat between students. However, online tools such as Twitter and Google Moderator give instructors useful options for facilitating, directing, and leveraging backchannel conversations.Watch Monica Rankin's "Twitter Experiment" video below for a short introduction to her use of Twitter for backchannel in her history course at the University of Texas-Dallas.

• Just-in-Time Teaching (JiTT) – It's not uncommon to expect students to have "done the reading" in smaller seminar courses, laying the foundation for in-class discussions. This is less common in larger courses, but many faculty members in a variety of disciplines have adopted an approach called Just-in-Time Teaching that accomplishes this. The main idea is to have students read their textbooks before class, hold them accountable for doing so through pre-class or start-of-class quizzes, then design class sessions around "uncovering" and addressing student misconceptions–instead of "covering" the course material.

• Team-Based Learning (TBL) – This well-developed teaching method is similar to JiTT in that it involves leveraging pre-class student assignments. One core idea is that class time is spent having students work through problems or case studies in permanent teams, usually consisting of six students each. Students respond to questions about the problems or case studies individually, then respond to the same questions as a team. Student grades depend on both their individual performance on these quizzes as well as their team performance, providing incentives for students to engage with

the material on their own as well as with their team. Class discussions are fueled by this individual and team work.

For additional ideas, see the following:

• "Tips for Teachers: Twenty Ways to Make Lectures More Participatory," a resource from the Derek Bok Center for Teaching and Learning at Harvard University

• "Delivering Effective Lectures," an article by Rick Sullivan and Noel McIntosh with strategies for asking questions of students and advice specific to lectures in medical education settings

• "The Death of the Lecture," a blog post about why lectures are still so popular by Inside Higher Edblogger, Anamaria Dutceac Segesten

Advantages and Disadvantages of the Lecture Method

The reasons the lecture method is popular are obvious. Right or wrong, people believe that lectures have these advantages:

• Lectures are the cultural norm of adult education.
• Lectures inflate the trainer's ego.
• Lectures do not require extensive preparation.
• Lectures permit efficient coverage of content in a limited time.
• Lectures can reach a large group at the same time.
• Great lecturers inspire their listeners.
• Lecturers can predict exactly what will happen during their speech.
• Lecturers believe they are in control.
• Learners do not feel threatened while listening passively.
• Learners know how to listen and take notes.
• Learners do not waste their time sharing their ignorance with each other.

4.2. Suggested actions on practical lessons

What is a practical class?

There are two important aspects of practical classes:

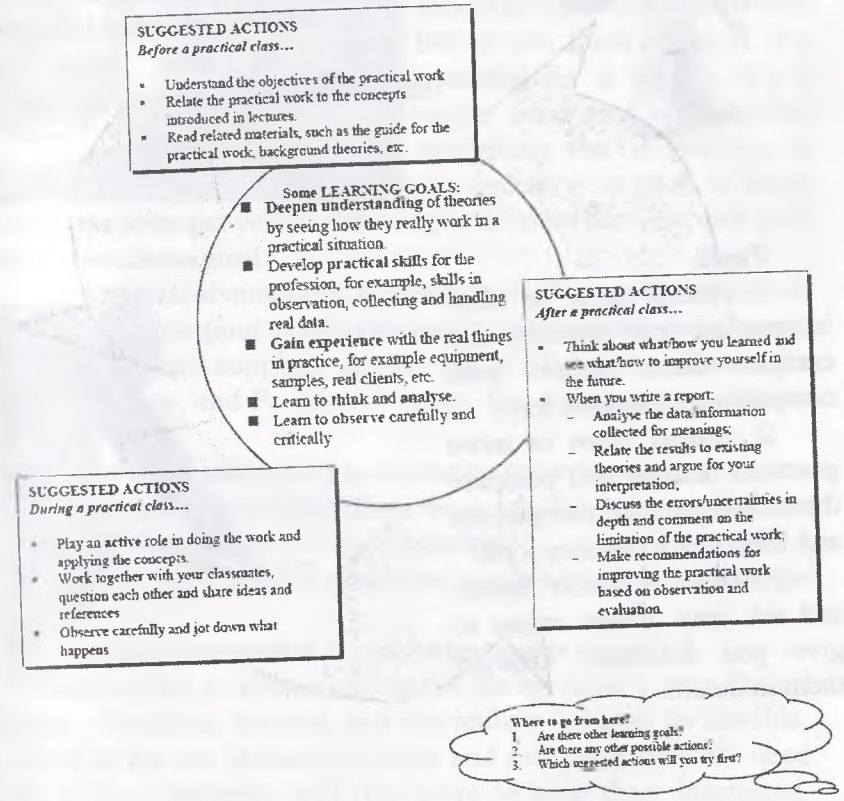
• For many subjects, 'doing' is an important part of the knowledge. You learn about the 'doing' part in practical class.

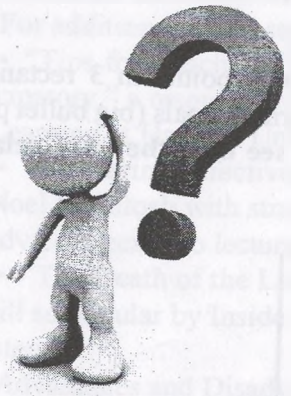
• In practical classes you have to apply the theories in practical situations.

Activity

Have a look at the diagram below…

Each suggested action (small bullet points in 3 rectangular boxes) helps you attain one or more learning goals (big bullet points in the middle big circle) – **Can you see how they are related? Draw a line to link them up!**



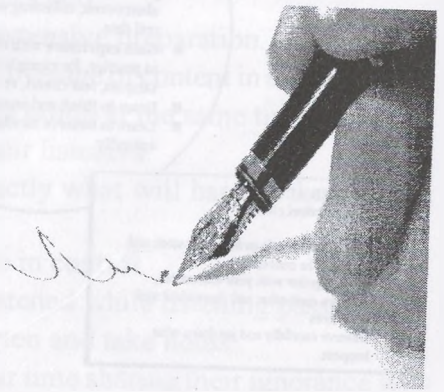


Questions on Chapter IV:

1. .What is lecture?
2. What is the difference between lecture and interactive lecture? Which is more effective?
3. Can you add something more into the list of elements to be controlled when planning a lecture?
4. What is practical lesson?
5. Your new ideas on improvement of practical lessons.

Tasks

1. Attend three or more lectures on your specialty and compare them. Submit your comparison in written form.
2. Attend three or more practical lessons and compare them. Submit your comparison and feedback in written form.
3. Give a demo lesson and ask your course mates to give you feedback. Discuss them in details.



CHAPTER V. INNOVATIONS IN PEDAGOGICAL ACTIVITY

5.1. Innovation in education

Everyone these days is striving to be innovative, is promising innovation, is encouraging others to innovate. But if you think about it, it's overused for a reason. It's a single word that encapsulates everything that is exciting in any industry—a goal to shoot for because it means you're different, your ideas are new, and your work is almost magical.

Concordia University ran a giveaway on their public Facebook page for educators (and in a private group with students and alumni) with new school supplies up for grabs. To enter, Concordia students, alumni, and Facebook visitors had to answer one of two questions:

1. What does innovation in education mean to you?
2. What's the most innovative thing you have done – or have seen another teacher do – in the classroom?

Some of their favorite responses are below. Read on and get inspired.

What does innovation in education mean to you?

"Innovation in education means doing what's best for all students. Teachers, lessons, and curriculum have to be flexible. We have to get our students to think and ask questions. We need to pique their curiosity, and find ways to keep them interested. Innovation means change, so we have to learn that our students need more than the skills needed to pass the state assessments given every spring. We have to give them tools that will make them productive in their future careers." – Kimberly

"Innovation, to me, means finding any way you can to reach all of your students. This means being willing and flexible to adjust what you teach and how you teach. We have to keep our students engaged and excited to learn. We have to create a safe place for them to make mistakes, take risks, and ask questions." – Ashley

"Innovation in education is always seeking knowledge that will support new and unique ideas in instructional techniques that will reach the students in more effective and exciting ways." – Mischelle

"Innovation in education is stepping outside of the box, challenging our methods and strategies in order to support the success of all students as well as ourselves. This transformation may be small or a complete overhaul, but it is done with purpose and supports the whole student." – Whitney

"Innovation in education means allowing imagination to flourish and not be afraid to try new things. Sometimes these new things fail but it's awesome when they are a success. Without the right attitude, innovation would just be a word and the art of education would miss out on some great accomplishments." – Valerie

"Innovation means keeping yourself educated about new trends and technology in education. For example, I incorporated STEM bins into my classroom because their is a huge push for more STEM related activities in education. I think innovation is also being creative with the resources your given. Sometimes your building or district might not provide everything you need for a lesson so you need to be innovative and think on the fly of how you could make something work!" – Nadia

What's the most innovative thing you have done—or have seen another teacher do — in the classroom?

"My team teacher and I used guest teacher certificates as part of our reward system. Kids had 10-15 minutes to teach the class anything they wanted. It was amazing to see them get up in front of their peers and share their passions!" – Marlene

"I set my math & science units for my third graders up like college classes. Students start with picking a particular major and

at the end of the unit, we work on making connections on how each lesson relates to the real world and the job they each choose individually. My students absolutely love the opportunity to be treated like adults and explore future options." – Jade

"We have at times had students begin creating graphic novels in order to have better recall regarding historical information!" – Misty

"My second graders grade their own tests using their tech devices. They get immediate feedback and take the time to understand the answers that are wrong." – Jenifer

"The most innovative thing I've done in my classroom is using a TAP (Teacher Advancement Program) rubric in my whole lesson where there are 19 indicators to follow. Some of the indicators are standards and objectives, activities and materials, feedbacking, questioning, etc. These indicators are true testament that if this TAP rubric is done daily, I can move students daily. Move means students' academic growth. There is nothing more rewarding for a teacher than to see his or her students academic grow, improve, or increase. That's the beauty of the TAP rubric." – Marlyn

5.2. General information about project work

Project work is work which focuses on completing a task. Project work normally involves a lot of resources – time, people and materials – and learners practice a range of skills and language systems.

Example: A group of teenage learners works on a project to develop a series of posters on how to protect the environment.

In the classroom

Project work may provide many opportunities to meet a variety of learning aims but it requires strong classroom management skills. Learners need independence in planning and realizing the work but they also need the teacher to act as a driver in ensuring it is carried out in a way that meets learning aims.

Project work is becoming an increasingly popular feature within the ELT classroom. Common projects are class magazines, group wall displays about students' countries and designs for cities of the future.

A project involves students in deciding together what they want to do to complete a project whilst the teacher plays a more supporting role.

- Some advantages
- Planning the project
- Some possible drawbacks
- Example projects
- References

Some advantages of project work are:

- **Increased motivation** – learners become personally involved in the project.
- **All four skills,** reading, writing, listening and speaking are integrated.
- **Autonomous learning** is promoted as learners become more responsible for their own learning.
- **There are learning outcomes** -learners have an end product.
- **Authentic tasks** and therefore the language input are more authentic.
- **Interpersonal relations** are developed through working as a group.
- **Content and methodology** can be decided between the learners and the teacher and within the group themselves so it is more learner centred.

- **Learners often get help from parents** for project work thus involving the parent more in the child's learning. If the project is also displayed parents can see it at open days or when they pick the child up from the school.
- **A break from routine** and the chance to do something different.
- **A context is established** which balances the need for fluency and accuracy. Haines (1989)

Planning the project

- Opening - To give learners an idea of what projects are and what they should be aiming to produce, it is good to have examples of past projects: a photocopy of a previous group newspaper or a photograph of a wall display.
- Proposing - After explaining the idea behind the project I ask learners to propose a scheme of work:
  - ✓What they want to include in the project
  - ✓What form it will take
  - ✓Who will be responsible for what
  - ✓An idea of the time it will take to produce each part of the project
  - ✓Any material or resources they might need

Sit down with each group for 10 minutes to discuss their proposals (a copy of which both teacher and the learner would keep to refer to as the project develops). At this point the evaluation procedures would also be explained.

- Time – Allocate an agreed amount of time for the project. For a summer 60 hour course of 3 hours a day I would dedicate 5 hours to project work so approx. 6 sessions of 45 minutes each with a round up session at the end. I would also have the sessions on the same day each week – Wednesday, and Friday, for example, so learners know to bring materials to class on that day.
- Space – Show the learners the space they will have for the project, it could be wall space or a corner of the classroom, so they have some idea how much material they should produce and can plan the layout.

• Materials and resources

Provide the learners with materials they might need: card, scissors glue, paper etc. It is fairly common now for learners to want to use the Internet to find information for their projects. Encourage a keen student with Internet to do this at home! If there is time and Internet available in the school make sure the students have informed you of exactly what they're looking for - photos- or that they have prepared a list of information they want to find. Simply giving the learners time on the computers can lead to them aimlessly surfing the net. If the facility is available learners often like to write finished drafts of their work on the computer.

• Presentation

Projects need to be seen, read and admired so schedule the last project session as a presentation. Ask the group to prepare a task for the others in the class to do connected to the project: it could be a quiz with questions for a wall display, a crossword using vocabulary for the project or comprehension questions for a video that learners have made.

• Evaluation

As with any piece of work a project needs to be acknowledged and evaluated. It's not enough to just say 'that's great' after all the work learners have put in. You use a simple project evaluation report, which comments on aspects of the project such as content, design, language work and also evaluates the oral presentation stage of the project.

Some possible drawbacks to project work

• Learners using their own language. If the class are monolingual they may use their L1 a lot (it often happens anyway in YL classes) so you should decide whether the benefits of doing project work outweigh this factor.

• Some learners doing nothing. By giving more freedom to the learners you may also be giving them the freedom to do nothing! If the project is planned carefully and roles decided at the proposal stage this is less likely to happen.

• Groups working at different speeds. One group may have 'finished' the project after a couple of hours and say they have nothing to do. Remind them it is their responsibility to fill the time allocated to project work and discuss ways they could extend the work they have already completed.

Examples of project work:

Susan, USA. She is sharing her experience:

• A project based on readers. At a summer school I worked in learners were encouraged to have a reader during the month course. This is not always a popular requirement so I decided to have the learners use the readers in a way they might find motivating.

• First I chose 4 different readers that had also been made into films - The Full Monty, The Client, Dracula, Mosquito Coast. Each group were given copies of their reader.

• The learners were then given free rein to do whatever they liked as long as it was somehow connected to the reader.

Examples of the work produced were:

✓Summaries of the story.

✓Crosswords / word searches of vocabulary from the story.

✓Reviews of the book.

✓Information found about the history of Dracula.

✓Filmed scene from the book.

Presentation of a clip from the film of the book compared to a scene in the book.

Biographies and photos of actors from the film.

Music Project.

If your class loves songs this could be a motivating project.

✓Make a CD Cover.

✓Invent the band and the names and biographies of the band members.

✓Video an interview with the band.

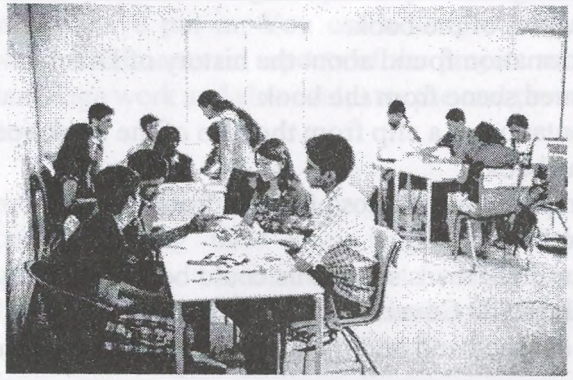
✓Record a song. (Students often borrowed the music and wrote their own lyrics)

✓Write gig reviews.

✓Photo shoot of the band.
✓Design a poster advertising gigs.

- Many newly qualified or inexperienced teachers tend to base their lesson planning on the traditional PPP approach (Presentation, Practice, Production) because it is reliable and it is a valid framework around which to base a series of classroom activities.
- It is also usually the best way of covering all the lexical areas and grammar points in the course book or syllabus. All good and well. The problem is that PPP serves the teacher's needs but it is debatable whether or not it fulfills the needs of the learner.
- The language presented and practiced does not take into account the particular needs of each learner; the language content is almost always dictated by the coursebook and/or syllabus. For this reason, many teachers, having experimented with the PPP approach turn to more learner-centred approaches where the needs of the learner are central to the lesson content. Two such approaches are TBL (Task-Based Learning) and PBL (Project-Based Learning).

5.3. What is TBL?



In task-based learning, the central focus of the lesson is the task itself, not a grammar point or a lexical area, and the objective is not to 'learn the structure' but to 'complete the task'. Of course,

to complete the task successfully students have to use the right language and communicate their ideas. The language, therefore becomes an instrument of communication, whose purpose is to help complete the task successfully. The students can use any language they need to reach their objective. Usually there is no 'correct answer' for a task outcome. Students decide on their own way of completing it, using the language they see fit. Different teachers use TBL in different ways. Some integrate it into the existing syllabus, some use it to replace the syllabus altogether, some use it as an 'extra' to their traditional classroom activities. But generally, teachers using a TBL approach divide their task-based classes into three stages:

Stage 1: The pre-task. The teacher introduces the topic and familiarizes students with situations/lexical areas/texts (reading and listening)). This draws the students into the topic and brings up language that may be useful. The teacher then explains what the task is and sets up the activity.

Stage 2: Students perform the task in pairs or groups. They may then present their findings/conclusions to the rest of the class. In this stage, mistakes are not important; the teacher provides support and monitors. The learners focus on communication, perhaps at the expense of accuracy, but this will be dealt with in the next stage.

Stage 3: The teacher works on specific language points which come up in stage 2. (During the monitoring stage, most teachers make notes of common errors and students' particular learning needs). Students reflect on the language needed to complete the task and how well they did. This is their opportunity to concentrate on accuracy and make sure they resolve any doubts or problems they had.

Tasks can be as simple as putting a list of animals in order from fastest to slowest and then trying to agree with a partner on the correct order. Or it could be something more complicated like a survey to find out which parts of town your classmates live in and how they get to school, ending in visual information presented in the form of pie charts and maps. Or it could be something really

The role of the teacher and the learner in the PBL approach is very similar to the TBL approach. Learners are given freedom to go about solving problems or sharing information in the way they see fit. The teacher's role is monitor and facilitator, setting up frameworks for communication, providing access to information and helping with language where necessary, and giving students opportunities to produce a final product or presentation. As with TBL, the teacher monitors interaction but doesn't interrupt, dealing with language problems at another moment.

The advantages and disadvantages of PBL are similar to those of TBL, but the obvious attraction of project-based learning is the motivating element, especially for younger learners. Projects bring real life into the classroom; instead of learning about how plants grow (and all the language that goes with it), you actually grow the plant and see for yourself. It brings facts to life. The American educational theorist John Dewey wrote "education is not a preparation for life; education is life itself". Project work allows 'life itself' to form part of the classroom and provides hundreds of opportunities for learning. Apart from the fun element, project work involves real life communicative situations, (analyzing, deciding, editing, rejecting, organizing, delegating ...) and often involves multi- disciplinary skills which can be brought from other subjects. All in all, it promotes a higher level of thinking than just learning vocabulary and structures.

Both TBL and PBL focus primarily on the achievement of realistic objectives, and then on the language that is needed to achieve those objectives. They both treat language as an instrument to complete a given objective rather than an isolated grammar point or lexical set to learn and practise. They give plenty of opportunity for communication in authentic contexts and give the learner freedom to use the linguistic resources he/she has, and then reflect on what they learned or need to learn. Finally, as EFL teachers are eclectic by nature, teachers often use a combination of TBL, PBL and traditional techniques such as PPP. Some teachers use TBL and PBL as a small part of a more conventional approach and many teachers on 100% TBL/PBL courses resort to PP type activities

when dealing with grammar or vocabulary problems. As always, the important thing is to use what works best for you and your learners.

There's nothing like a group project to get students talking.

They work well as long as:

- The topic is centred on the learners' interests
- There is not any real need for extensive or time-consuming research
- Students can present their work orally to the rest of the class.

One particularly successful format is based on our love of lists. Students in small groups work towards compiling a top five.

Examples of top five topics are:

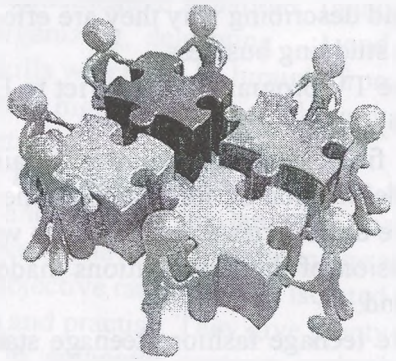
- Our top five favourite English records/music videos (including a final presentation with their number one song or video or lyrics).
- Our top five authors/books/poets (not just English speaking) – students can be encouraged to say why they like the author, give a description of the type of book or read an extract from a poem.
- Our top five adverts (magazine or TV) with a final round up showing the ads and describing why they are effective. This works well with students studying business.
- Our top five TV programmes (restrict to English/American ones if appropriate).
- Our top five designers/painters /paintings/buildings– including an oral description of, for example, one painting.
- Our top five discoveries/scientists/areas worthy of research – including discussion of the contributions made to the scientific field and to mankind.
- Our top five teenage fashions/teenage status symbols (e.g. mobile phone, moped).
- Our top five websites – this can include a description of the site, its users and the reasons why it is so good.
- Our top five things to do at the weekend.

A short project can be presented in one lesson, prepared and researched and completed in the next lesson.

The main advantages are:

- It gives students controlled opportunities to provide their own content in language lessons.
- It can be tailored to their school's curriculum or their own specialisation.
- The oral presentation of each group's findings can take as much time as is appropriate, depending on the enthusiasm and language level of the class.
- The final oral presentation stage gives excellent practice in extended speaking which is useful for higher levels. It can also be appropriate to the oral component of students' exams and gives them extra practice in talking about topics close to their hearts.
- Students often tell you about people and things related to their own culture which can be very informative and is a genuine information gap exercise. The project can be a good round up of a term or a school year.

5.5. Problem-based Learning



Problem-based approaches to learning have a long history. They are one of many instructional approaches that situate learning in a meaningful task, such as case-based instruction and project-based learning. In the traditions of Kilpatrick (1918, 1921) and Dewey (1938), these approaches argue for the importance of

practical experience in learning. Problem-based learning (PBL) is part of this tradition of meaningful, experiential learning. In PBL, students learn by solving problems and reflecting on their experiences (Barrows and Tamblyn, 1980). PBL is well suited to helping students become active learners because it situates learning in real-world problems and makes students responsible for their learning. It has a dual emphasis on helping learners develop strategies and construct knowledge (Cognition and Technology Group at Vanderbilt [CTGV], 1997; Collins et al., 1989; Hmelo and Ferrari, 1997; Kolodner et al., 1996). A review of PBL is timely because issues of flexible thinking and lifelong learning have come to the fore in discussions of classroom reform (Bransford et al., 2000; Greeno et al., 1996). PBL is of increasing interest to K–16 educators as demonstrated by widespread publication of books written about PBL (e.g., Duch et al., 2001; Torp and Sage, 2002). Educators are interested in PBL because of its emphasis on active, transferable learning and its potential for motivating students.

Goals of PBL

Problem-based curricula provide students with guided experience in learning through solving complex, real-world problems. PBL was designed with several important goals (Barrows and Kelson, 1995). It is designed to help students

1) construct an extensive and flexible knowledge base;
2) develop effective problem-solving skills;
3) develop self-directed, lifelong learning skills;
4) become effective collaborators; and
5) become intrinsically motivated to learn.

Constructing extensive and flexible knowledge goes beyond having students learn the facts of a domain. It involves integrating information across multiple domains. Such knowledge is coherently organized around the deep principles in a domain (Chi et al., 1981). It is also flexibly conditionalized to the extent that it can be fluently retrieved and applied under varying and appropriate circumstances (Bransford et al., 1990). Increasingly flexible

knowledge develops as individuals apply their knowledge in a variety of problem situations (CTGV, 1997; Kolodner, 1993).

Common sense suggests that to encourage students to develop flexible knowledge and effective problem-solving skills we must embed learning in contexts that require the use of these skills. Laboratory experiments have demonstrated that this is indeed the case (e.g., Needham and Begg, 1991; Perfetto et al., 1983). Classroom-based research supports these findings as well (Gallagher et al., 1992; Hmelo, 1998; Hmelo et al., 2000; Schwartz and Bransford, 1998). Discussing problems in a PBL group (before beginning to research learning issues) activates relevant prior knowledge and facilitates the processing of new information (Schmidt et al., 1989). Students are better able to construct new knowledge when they can relate it to what they already know (Bransford and McCarrell, 1977).

Achieving the second goal, the development of effective problemsolving skills, includes the ability to apply appropriate metacognitive and reasoning strategies. For example, hypothetical–deductive reasoning is an appropriate strategy for medical problem solving whereas analogical or casebased reasoning may be more appropriate in many design domains such as architecture (Kolodner, 1993; Kolodner et al., 1996). Metacognitive skills refer to the executive control processes of planning one's problem solving, monitoring one's progress, and evaluating whether one's goals have been met (Schoenfeld, 1985).

Metacognitive strategies are also important for the third goal of developing self-directed, lifelong learning skills. These are the skills that enable autonomous learning. There are several subskills involved in SDL (Hmelo and Lin, 2000; Zimmerman, 2002). First, learners must have a metacognitive awareness of what they do and do not understand. Second, they must be able to set learning goals, identifying what they need to learn more about for the task they are engaged in. Third, they must be able to plan their learning and select appropriate learning strategies. In other words, they must decide on a course (or courses) of action to reach these goals.

Finally, as they implement their plan, learners must be able to monitor and evaluate whether or not their goals have been attained. The fourth goal of being a good collaborator means knowing how to function well as part of a team. This encompasses establishing common ground, resolving discrepancies, negotiating the actions that a group is going to take, and coming to an agreement (Barron, 2002). These tasks require an open exchange of ideas and engagement by all members of the group (Cohen, 1994; Wenger, 1998). Explaining one's ideas is important for productive collaboration and also serves to enhance learning (Webb and Palincsar, 1996). The goal of becoming a good collaborator and the process of learning collaboratively are often woven together. The final goal of PBL is to help students become intrinsically motivated. Intrinsic motivation occurs when learners work on a task motivated by their own interests, challenges, or sense of satisfaction. Creating an engaging problem is simple for medical students because they all share the intrinsic goal of becoming physicians. Similarly, gifted high school students tend to be highly motivated and have the cognitive skills that allow them to be confident in tackling some complex task. Determining an appropriate problem for less skilled students requires that the problem designers understand what is developmentally appropriate, interesting to a heterogeneous group of students, and moderately challenging without being overwhelming. Several features of PBL support increased motivation for learning. Students are more motivated when they value what they are learning and when their educational activity is implicated in personally meaningful tasks (Ferrari and Mahalingham, 1998; Leontiev, 1978). Students are also more motivated when they believe that the outcome of learning is under their control (Bandura, 1997; Dweck, 1991).

To be intrinsically motivating, problems should provide students with the proximal and tangible goal of applying their knowledge to solve a concrete problem. This type of goal is more motivating than are more distant, abstract goals that may seem insurmountable (Bandura, 1997). Classroom contexts that reward students for deep understanding, independent thought, and action

are also more motivating than many traditional classroom structures that reward comparative performances (Ames, 1992; Biggs, 1985; Ramsden, 1992). PBL instruction techniques assume that all these goals are achieved as part of the PBL learning cycle.

5.6. Advantages and disadvantages of Problem-based Learning Advantages

1. Development of Long-Term Knowledge Retention

Students who participate in PBL activities can improve their abilities to retain and recall information. This is because, while learning about something, open discussion between peers reinforces understanding of subject matter.

2. Use of Diverse Instruction Types

Grouping students together for PBL allows them to tackle tangible problems and enjoy team-based learning. You can also provide content such as videos, news articles and more.

3. Continuous Engagement

It's not hard to see the potential for engagement, as students collaborate to solve real-world problems that directly affect or heavily interest them.

4. Development of Transferable Skills

Using PBL to present tangible contexts and consequences can allow learning to become more profound and durable, helping students apply skills they develop to other real-world scenarios.

5. Improvement of Teamwork and Interpersonal Skills

Completing a PBL challenge hinges on interaction and communication, meaning students should also build skills related to teamwork and collaboration.

Disadvantages

1. Potentially Poorer Performance on Tests

Because standardized tests typically reward fact-based learning with multiple choice and short answer questions, PBL activities may not effectively prepare students.

1. Student Unpreparedness

Many students may not be prepared to participate in a PBL exercise due to immaturity, unfamiliarity with broad questions and lack of prerequisite knowledge.

2. Teacher Unpreparedness

You may have to adjust some habits, such as overtly correcting students and teaching to promote the fast recall of facts. Instead, give hints and ask questions to encourage independent thought.

3. Time-Consuming Assessment

If you choose to give marks, assessing a student's performance throughout a problem-based learning exercise demands constant monitoring and note-taking.

4. Varying Degrees of Relevancy and Applicability

It can be easy for students to divert from the challenge's objectives, possibly missing pertinent information. Running into

unanticipated obstacles when solving the problem is another possibility.

Steps to Designing PBL Activities

1. Identify an Applicable Real-Life Problem: Find a tangible problem that's relevant to your students, allowing them to easily contextualize it and apply it to future challenges.

2. Determine the Activity's Purpose: Identify which skills you want to help students build by running the activity, helping you complete the subsequent activity design steps.

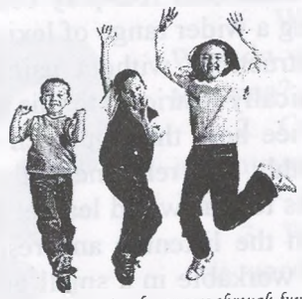
3. Create and Distribute Helpful Material: Provide handouts and other content, such as datasets and news articles, to help students stay focused on the activity's purpose.

4. Set Goals and Expectations for Your Students: Give students a guide or rubric that defines goals and expectations, keeping them on track.

5. Participate: Fill knowledge gaps and ask questions to dig into students' thought processes, helping them think through tough spots.

6. Have Students Present Ideas and Findings: Asking students to present their thoughts and results to the class adds a large-group learning component to the lesson.

5.7. Total Physical Response (TPR)



Learning languages through fun...

Originally developed by James Asher, an American professor of psychology, in the 1960s, Total Physical Response (TPR) is based on the theory that the memory is enhanced through association with physical movement. It is also closely associated with theories of mother tongue language acquisition in very young children, where they respond physically to parental commands, such as "Pick it up" and "Put it down". TPR as an approach to teaching a second language is based, first and foremost, on listening and this is linked to physical actions which are designed to reinforce comprehension of particular basic items.

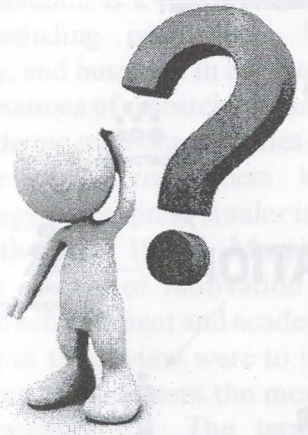
A typical TPR activity might contain instructions such as "Walk to the door", "Open the door", "Sit down" and "Give Maria your dictionary". The students are required to carry out the instructions by physically performing the activities. Given a supportive classroom environment, there is little doubt that such activities can be both motivating and fun, and it is also likely that with even a fairly limited amount of repetition basic instructions such as these could be assimilated by the learners, even if they were unable to reproduce them accurately themselves.

The above examples, however, also illustrate some of the potential weaknesses inherent in the approach. Firstly, from a purely practical point of view, it is highly unlikely that even the most skilled and inventive teacher could sustain a lesson stage involving commands and physical responses for more than a few

minutes before the activity became repetitious for the learners, although the use of situational role-play could provide a range of contexts for practising a wider range of lexis. Secondly, it is fairly difficult to give instructions without using imperatives, so the language input is basically restricted to this single form. Thirdly, it is quite difficult to see how this approach could extend beyond beginner level. Fourthly, the relevance of some of the language used in TPR activities to real-world learner needs is questionable. Finally, moving from the listening and responding stage to oral production might be workable in a small group of learners but it would appear to be problematic when applied to a class of 30 students, for example.

In defence of the approach, however, it should be emphasized that it was never intended by its early proponents that it should extend beyond beginner level. (In theory it might be possible to develop it by making the instructions lexically more complex (for example, "Pick up the toothpaste and unscrew the cap"), but this does seem to be stretching the point somewhat). In addition, a course designed around TPR principles would not be expected to follow a TPR syllabus exclusively, and Asher himself suggested that TPR should be used in association with other methods and techniques. In terms of the theoretical basis of the approach, the idea of listening preceding production and learners only being required to speak when they are ready to do so closely resembles elements of Stephen Krashen's Natural Approach.

Short TPR activities, used judiciously and integrated with other activities can be both highly motivating and linguistically purposeful. Careful choice of useful and communicative language at beginner level can make TPR activities entirely valid. Many learners respond well to kinesthetic activities and they can genuinely serve as a memory aid. A lot of classroom warmers and games are based, consciously or unconsciously, on TPR principles. As with other "fringe" methods, however, wholesale adoption of this approach, to the total exclusion of any other, would probably not be sustainable for very long.

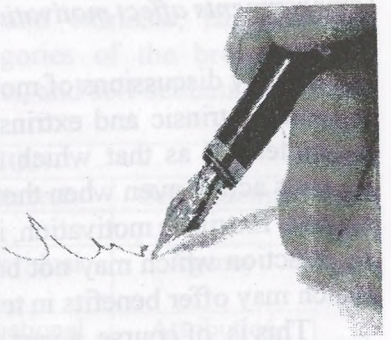


Questions on Chapter V:

1. What is project work? Why do we need it in language teaching?
2. Can you tell about advantages and disadvantages of TBL?
3. Problem-based learning – is good for elementary level learners or advanced learners?
4. Can you identify pros and cons of PBL?
5. What are the advantages of TPR for young learners?

Tasks

1. Write down some tips on organizing lesson, which based on project work.
2. TBL and PBL – similarities, their role in language teaching.
3. Can you describe usage of PBL, TBL for different level students.



CHAPTER VI. MOTIVATION IN EDUCATION

6.1. What is motivation?

What inspires teachers, and what moves learners? How do our learning organizations and systems affect the motivation of groups and individuals? How might future changes in formal learning environments affect motivation?

Many discussions of motivation begin by making a distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is characterized as that which comes from within the individual. It inspires action even when there is no perceived external stimulus or reward. Extrinsic motivation, in contrast, provides incentive to engage in action which may not be inherently pleasing or engaging, but which may offer benefits in terms of perceived potential outcomes.

This is, of course, a vast oversimplification of the way humans are motivated. It is made more complicated by questions about the role of motivations of which one is not consciously aware (are they intrinsic, even when prompted by a desire for fame or wealth?) and the processes by which intrinsic motivation may become extrinsic (and, according to some studies, extinguished) or extrinsic

motivation may be internalized. So, while these terms may be useful for conceptualizing the discussion, they are, at best, a starting point.

Motivation is a topic of interest to researchers in a variety of fields including psychology, human development, education, sociology, and business. In addition, the philosophical underpinnings and orientations of researchers vary, even within the field Motivation in of academic motivation studies. As a result, perspectives vary and, in some cases, researchers have developed constructs and terminology that express similar ideas using different terms.

In the late 1990s, Murphy and Alexander conducted a literature review of motivation terminology used in studies of academic achievement and academic development (3-6). The stated purposes of the review were to identify terms being used in these studies and to document the meanings of the terms as defined by the researchers (3). The terms were then summarized and compared, and some conceptual issues relevant to our discussion were addressed (3, 28-29 37-42).

As a result of their analysis, Murphy and Alexander derived twenty terms related to motivation and academic achievement (8). The first was, naturally, the word motivation itself. Within that category, two more terms, intrinsic and extrinsic, have been described above. Then three subcategories of the broad term motivation were delineated: goal, interest, and self-schema.

MOTIVATION			
Goal		**Interest**	**Self-schema**
Goal Orientation			
Mastery Goal also: Learning Goal	Intrinsic	Individual	Agency
Performance Goal also: Ego Goal	Extrinsic	Situational	Attribution
Work-avoidant Goal			Self-competence
			Self-efficacy
Social Goal			

There are many goal-oriented approaches to the study of motivation in the classroom. Ames discusses two goal constructs that are widely used and that appear in the chart in the terminology section of this paper. They are mastery goals and performance goals. Ames describes these orientations and explains why mastery goals are more likely to result in persistence over time and a focus on the intrinsic value of learning, while performance goals foster a "failure-avoiding pattern of motivation" (Ames, Classrooms: Goals, Structures, and Student Motivation 261-263). Mastery goals focus on individual improvement and the belief that increased effort is related to increased competency. In contrast, competition, rewards, successes and failures which are displayed publicly in the classroom foster a performance goal orientation. Performance goals create a culture of competition and comparison in which ability and self-worth become linked in students' minds. In such a culture, students are less likely to take on challenging tasks and so to avoid the possibility of failure (Ames and Archer 260, 265; Ames 261-263).

The Expectancy-Value Theory of achievement motivation describes a complex interplay of aptitudes, beliefs, previous experiences, goals, self-schema, interest, expectancy, and perceived/subjective assessment of the utility vs. cost of a particular task or domain (Wigfield and Eccles 69).

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) has been developed to try to integrate both the intrinsic and extrinsic factors in human motivation, thus incorporating both the intrapsychological and social-cultural aspects of other research frameworks (About the Theory; Pintrich 670; Ryan and Deci, Self-Determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic Motivation, Social Development, and Well Being 68-69). As a meta-theory, SDT encompasses five mini-theories: Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET), Oganismic Integration Theory (OIT), Causality Orientations Theory (COT), Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT), and Goal Contents Theory (GCT). Although SDT incorporates needs and context, the needs identified by the theory are not identical to those named by Maslow. The conceptual framework on which SDT is based

identifies three basic needs on which psychological health and well-being depend: competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Ryan and Deci 68, About the Theory). The following are brief summaries of these sub-theories as explained on the selfdetermination.org website:

- CET addresses the topic of the impact of social contexts on intrinsic motivation. Competence and autonomy are considered crucial aspects of intrinsic motivation in this theory.
- OIT primarily considers extrinsic motivation and proposes a continuum of internalization through which an individual may develop autonomy with regard to extrinsic conditions.
- GCT also addresses intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The theory contrasts goals with intrinsic value, such as those related to community and personal growth, with goals that are extrinsically oriented, such as those related to wealth and fame. The theory argues that goals that support the three basic needs of autonomy, relatedness, and competency will support psychological well-being, while extrinsically oriented goals will negatively impact well-being.

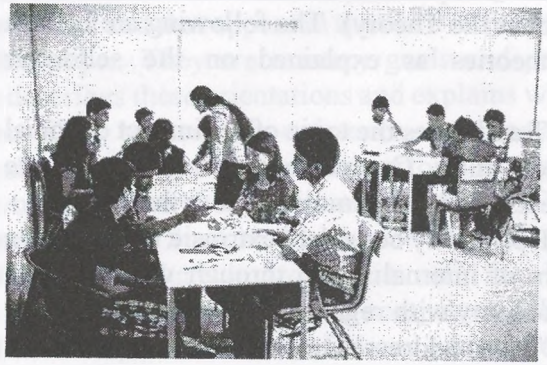
COT is concerned with individual orientations toward environments, identifying three primary types. They are the autonomy orientation, the control orientation, and the impersonal/amotivated orientation.

BPNT proposes the three basic needs outlined above (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) and argues that environments that support these needs promote psychological well-being.

Although the sub-theories address different aspects of SDT, they all rest on the foundational tenet that support of the basic needs for autonomy, competency, and relatedness results in positive motivation and healthy personal development.

Although there are more gradations and variations of these general theories, such as evolutionary approaches (see Bernard, Mills and Swenson), this brief overview will suffice for our discussion.

6.2. More about self-determination theory



There is a large body of research that supports the SDT perspective (Vansteenkiste, Simons and Lens; Gillet, Vallerand and Lafrenière; Wiest, Wong and Cervantes; Noels, Clément and and Pelletier; Hagger and Chatzisarantis; the work of Deci and Ryan, and many more. See the selfdeterminationtheory.org website or the reference section of any of these papers for excellent starting points). Because this body of research is so large and the theory robust, we will do well to examine it further.

While Deci and Ryan began with the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan), over time they began to distinguish different types of extrinsic motivation (Ryan and Deci, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions). They recognized that extrinsic motivation varies in the degree to which it is inclusive of autonomy, that is, extrinsic motivations may be more or less internalized (Ryan and Deci, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions 60-65). Thus, they conceived a continuum of extrinsic motivation with categories of increasing autonomy: amotivation, external regulation, introjection, identification, and integration (Ryan and Deci, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions 61). Hayamizu's work in Japan has supported this model, suggesting that these concepts may not be limited to a particular society or world view. Although

presented as a continuum, the authors explain that the model is not meant to be seen as sequential.

The study of extrinsic motivation and this continuum fall into the sub-category of SDT called Organismic Integration Theory (OIT). In their review of the evolution of SDT, Ryan and Deci explain that external regulation was the only type of extrinsic motivation recognized by Skinner and the behavioralist theorists. SDT's more nuanced approach offers greater possibilities for understanding complex interactions with our academic (and many other) environments.

Studies have shown that the more externally regulated are motivations, the less interest and effort students display and the more students are likely to blame others for negative outcomes (Ryan and Deci, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions 63). So, a greater internalization of extrinsic motivations should lead to benefits in terms of active engagement and persistence by learners, and this has been shown to be the case. If this is accurate, then creating learning environments that foster the internalization of extrinsic factors may be one way to support positive academic outcomes.

There seems to be general agreement regarding the role of autonomy in motivation. With regard to external motivation, SDT argues that the greater the internalization of extrinsic factors, the more autonomy or ownership a student feels toward them. But how can we foster such internalization? Ryan and Deci propose that a feeling of connectedness to the group that values the extrinsically motivated behaviors – a peer group, family, or society – will positively impact the internalization process (Ryan and Deci, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions 64). This feeling of connection they term *relatedness*. The identification with a social or peer group can, however, work against positive academic outcomes when the group perceives itself as not able to achieve academically. Therefore, it is important to create a culture of learning within academic environments in which there is a demonstrated ability to achieve. Thus, the third basic need proposed by SDT, competence, must also be fostered.

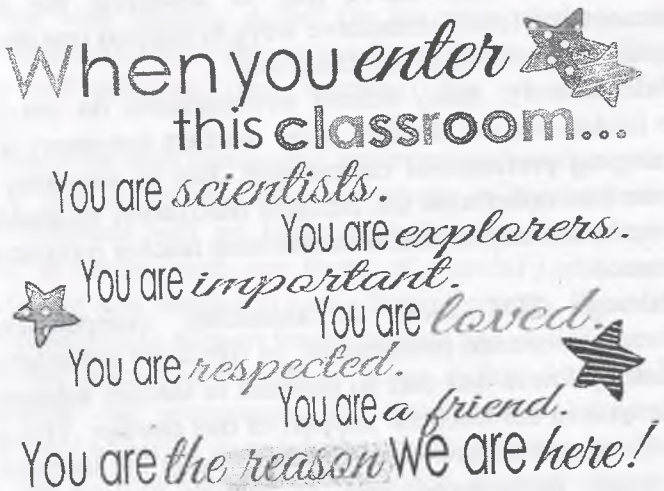
Rewards and Intrinsic Motivation

There is a great deal of discussion among researchers and practitioners about the role of rewards in promoting motivation. A well known experiment conducted by Lepper and his colleagues in 1973 concluded that rewards can produce an undermining effect in intrinsic motivation (Lepper, Greene and Nisbett, Undermining Children's Intrinsic Interest With External Reward: A Test of the "Underming" Hypothesis). In the experiment, a group of children who initially showed interest in a drawing activity demonstrated a decreased interest after they had been presented with an award for participation in the activity. In contrast, the interest displayed by children who were not rewarded remained unchanged. In addition, the drawings of the non-award group were judged (independently, by a blind panel of judges) to be of higher quality than those of the award group. These results contraindicated the unrestrained use of token economies in classrooms, where the behavioralist expectation that rewards would encourage any desired behavior prevailed.

Since the time of Lepper's experiment, many refinements have been made in the study of rewards and their effects on motivation. As Lepper himself points out in his conclusions to the original experiment, his study addressed a situation in which there was initially a high degree of intrinsic motivation to engage in the activity. He cautions that the results might not be applicable in cases in which the intrinsic interest is low and motivation must be encouraged extrinsically (Lepper, Greene and Nisbett, Undermining Children's Intrinsic Interest With External Reward: A Test of the "Underming" Hypothesis 136).

Self-Determination Theory, and in particular, Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) posits that autonomy is integral to instrinsic motivation. The undermining effect of rewards on intrinsic motivation and autonomy has been an active area of research by SDT investigators for decades.

6.3. What inspires teachers?



Teachers presumably have the same needs for support of autonomy, competence, and relatedness as students have. While there has been a lot of research documenting and analyzing student motivation, research on teacher motivation is more scarce. However, providing supportive environments for teachers seems vital to the health of our educational systems. So, let's take a look at what such supportive environments might look like within the framework of SDT.

How can educational environments support teachers' feelings of autonomy? A wonderful example can be found in Deborah Kinney's book *Born to Rise* which documents her experiences in creating the Harlem Village Academies. Kinney admits that in her perfectionism and intense desire to create an environment in which student learners could thrive, she overlooked the importance of supporting autonomy in teacher learning and leadership during the early years of the schools. Interestingly, it was through discussions with business leaders that she came to understand how important the work culture is to supporting and sustaining the well being of teachers. When Kinney began to share leadership of the schools

with the teachers, the school culture began to change and thrive; teachers took a more active role in designing the learning environment and found innovative ways to support one another in developing competence in the classroom.

Unfortunately, many school environments do not support teacher leadership, nor do they allow teachers autonomy in terms of developing professional competence. Just as autocracy in the classroom can undermine the intrinsic motivation of students, so can an autocratic administration undermine teacher motivation and performance.

Although SDT looks at autonomy, competence, and relatedness as separate components, in life these are interrelated. What Kinney found was that an increase in teacher autonomy led to an increase in the teachers' support of one another. This culture of mutual support enhanced relatedness among the teachers. As a result, more experienced and skilled teachers found non-competitive and non-threatening ways to nurture new teachers, supporting competency and improving the working and learning culture of the school.

The Motivation To Educate

At the heart of this question about motivation in education is the deeper question *Why do we educate?* This is a question with a complex array of answers and among the possibilities are many on which we cannot all agree. A related question is *How should education benefit society and the individual?* In societies where education is compulsory and free up to a certain age, perceived benefits must exist to justify such a large expenditure of funds.

One perceived benefit of education to society is economic. It is believed that a well-educated work force will help a nation's economy to prosper, and likewise, will enable individuals to have a standard of living that supports health and well-being. But we might ask ourselves what characteristics and skills are needed by individuals in such a work force, and how our systems of

education do or do not support their cultivation. Do we need individuals with specific skills? Do we need workers who are innovative and flexible? Do we need people who can effectively evaluate and integrate new learning? Do we need lifelong learners?

In countries with democratic governments, another perceived benefit is that individuals who are taught to think clearly and evaluate evidence will be better able to make sound political decisions. In nations with jury forms of criminal justice systems, such skills are also needed to make fair judgments. How can our systems of education support these qualities and skills?

Another perceived benefit by some is that formal learning environments can encourage the development of prosocial behaviors and effective social skills. Again we can ask ourselves whether our current systems of education support this kind of development and, if not, how we can improve in this area.

And finally, some believe that cultivating a deep love of learning can help sustain a high quality of life for individuals and communities. Are we cultivating this in our current educational systems?

Thoughts for Future Directions

According to the tenets of Self-Determination Theory, humans have an intrinsic desire to learn, and this desire is fueled by the basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. If we want to engage individuals at all levels of our educational systems in meaningful growth and learning experiences, we need to design environments and systems that support these needs. We can do that by developing educational policies at the governmental level that support the creation of systems that encourage autonomy and competence rather than imposing rewards and sanctions that undermine intrinsic motivation. At the system level, we need to encourage shared leadership which leads to mutual ownership of the educational culture, supporting autonomy, competence, and relatedness within the academic system and in conjunction with the

communities they serve. At the site level, be it in physical or in digital space, we must support teacher autonomy and create non-threatening environments for enhancing competency. We need to facilitate community-building between and among teachers, learners, and families. The support of those learning communities must create safe places in which learners can take the necessary risks that nurture the intrinsic desire to learn and grow.

This all sounds wonderful, but our own habitual ways of thinking and our current educational climate will typically contravene these efforts. What can we do?

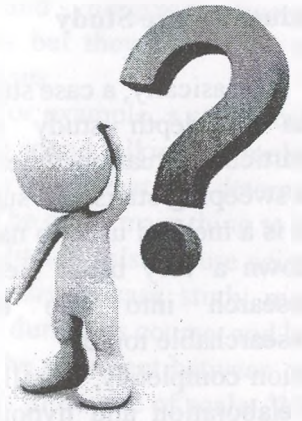
✓ Start in our own communities, creating learning environments based on the tenets of SDT and see what works. SDT is not a prescriptive set of rules, but rather a philosophy that can help guide the creation of a learning culture.

✓ Design and implement meaningful research into teacher motivation, applying the results to support and enhance the well-being of teachers.

✓ Communicate within and beyond our learning communities.

✓ Participate in enhancing the intrinsic motivation in others and in yourself.

✓ Innovate: try new things.

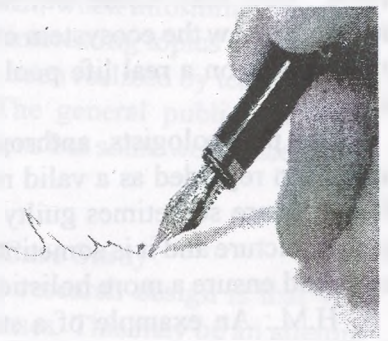


Questions on Chapter VI:

1. What is Self-Determination Theory (SDT)?
2. What is extrinsic motivation?
3. What is Rewards and Intrinsic Motivation?
4. Do we need people who can effectively evaluate and integrate new learning?
5. How can you motivate your students?

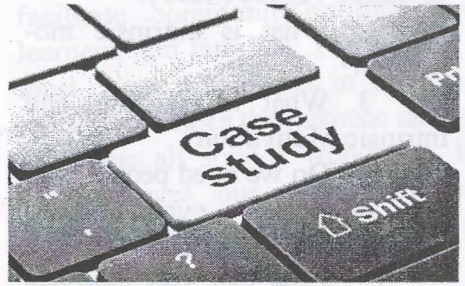
Tasks

1. What can inspire you as a future teacher?
2. Write about the role of rewards in promoting motivation.
3. Write about goal-oriented approaches to the study of motivation in the classroom.



CHAPTER VII. CASE STUDY

7.1. How to Design and Conduct a Case Study



Basically, a case study is an in depth study of a particular situation rather than a sweeping statistical survey. It is a method used to narrow down a very broad field of research into one easily researchable topic.

Whilst it will not answer a question completely, it will give some indications and allow further elaboration and hypothesis creation on a subject.

The case study research design is also useful for testing whether scientific theories and models actually work in the real world. You may come out with a great computer model for describing how the ecosystem of a rock pool works but it is only by trying it out on a real life pool that you can see if it is a realistic simulation.

For psychologists, anthropologists and social scientists they have been regarded as a valid method of research for many years. Scientists are sometimes guilty of becoming bogged down in the general picture and it is sometimes important to understand specific cases and ensure a more holistic approach to research.

H.M.: An example of a study using the case study research design.

The Argument for and Against the Case Study Research Design

Some argue that because a case study is such a narrow field that its results cannot be extrapolated to fit an entire question and that they show only one narrow example. On the other hand, it is argued that a case study provides more realistic responses than a purely statistical survey.

The truth probably lies between the two and it is probably best to try and synergize the two approaches. It is valid to conduct case studies but they should be tied in with more general statistical processes.

For example, a statistical survey might show how much time people spend talking on mobile phones, but it is case studies of a narrow group that will determine why this is so.

The other main thing to remember during case studies is their flexibility. Whilst a pure scientist is trying to prove or disprove a hypothesis, a case study might introduce new and unexpected results during its course, and lead to research taking new directions.

The argument between case study and statistical method also appears to be one of scale. Whilst many 'physical' scientists avoid case studies, for psychology, anthropology and ecology they are an essential tool. It is important to ensure that you realize that a case study cannot be generalized to fit a whole population or ecosystem.

Finally, one peripheral point is that, when informing others of your results, case studies make more interesting topics than purely statistical surveys, something that has been realized by teachers and magazine editors for many years. The general public has little interest in pages of statistical calculations but some well placed case studies can have a strong impact.

How to Design and Conduct a Case Study

The advantage of the case study research design is that you can focus on specific and interesting cases. This may be an attempt to test a theory with a typical case or it can be a specific topic that is of interest. Research should be thorough and note taking should be meticulous and systematic.

The first foundation of the case study is the subject and relevance. In a case study, you are deliberately trying to isolate a small study group, one individual case or one particular population.

For example, statistical analysis may have shown that birthrates in African countries are increasing. A case study on one or two specific countries becomes a powerful and focused tool for determining the social and economic pressures driving this.

In the design of a case study, it is important to plan and design how you are going to address the study and make sure that all collected data is relevant. Unlike a scientific report, there is no strict set of rules so the most important part is making sure that the study is focused and concise; otherwise you will end up having to wade through a lot of irrelevant information.

It is best if you make yourself a short list of 4 or 5 bullet points that you are going to try and address during the study. If you make sure that all research refers back to these then you will not be far wrong.

With a case study, even more than a questionnaire or survey, it is important to be passive in your research. You are much more of an observer than an experimenter and you must remember that, even in a multi-subject case, each case must be treated individually and then cross case conclusions can be drawn.

How to Analyze the Results

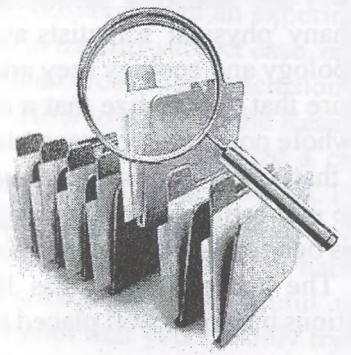
Analyzing results for a case study tends to be more opinion based than statistical methods. The usual idea is to try and collate your data into a manageable form and construct a narrative around it.

Use examples in your narrative whilst keeping things concise and interesting. It is useful to show some numerical data but remember that you are only trying to judge trends and not analyze every last piece of data. Constantly refer back to your bullet points so that you do not lose focus.

It is always a good idea to assume that a person reading your research may not possess a lot of knowledge of the subject so try to write accordingly.

In addition, unlike a scientific study which deals with facts, a case study is based on opinion and is very much designed to provoke reasoned debate. There really is no right or wrong answer in a case study.

7.2. Benefits and limitations of case studies



Developing teacher training modules for the use of case studies in language teaching at secondary and university level

Due to the recent increase in trade, travel and political and social co-operation, language competence has become a key skill in modern Europe. Great efforts have been made to improve language training at all education levels. Whereas in the past language teaching was mainly related to cultural themes with an emphasis on literature, communicative aspects in everyday international contact situations, both for personal and for professional reasons, have become more and more important and language teaching has become interwoven with subject teaching. Case studies have proven to be an excellent means for the integration of subject specific aspects into language teaching. The use of case studies in language teaching encourages task-oriented teaching methods and problem-based learning, as the students are confronted with an authentic problem they have to solve by analyzing material in the target language. The authenticity of the cases and of the material, as well as the integration of current events have an extremely positive impact on the learners' motivation and stimulate language teaching as a whole. At present, there is little or no information available for interested language teachers to refer to when planning to use case studies in their own programmes.

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In addition, unlike a scientific study which deals with facts, a case study is based on opinion and is very much designed to provoke reasoned debate. There really is no right or wrong answer in a case study.

The general aim is to improve language teaching at secondary and university level by introducing a task-oriented approach through the use of case studies in language teaching. This aim will be achieved by the development of teacher training modules including piloted teaching material for the use in class.

Therefore we recommend to take into consideration the following aims:

- to increase the motivation of learners to learn languages by providing and stimulating quality training case study material
- to create and disseminate training modules for language teachers which will contribute to the integration of new teaching methods in the language classes and have a multiplier effect in professional development in the university and secondary school sectors.

Although case studies are used in business studies and law courses, they are still an innovative method in language teaching. The use of case studies in language teaching has a highly positive impact on the development of active and passive language skills, as it follows an integrative concept of language teaching. It also contributes to the development of soft skills such as presentation skills, problem-solving strategies and teamwork.

The case-study method is most widely used in teaching economics, management science, and business abroad. The case-study method is considered to be one of the «advanced» active teaching methods. The case-study method requires readiness of students, availability of their independent work skills; lack of students training, poor motivation may lead to a superficial discussion of the case. The use of the case-study method at the English lessons in a professional environment (Business English, English for managers, English for economists, English for professionals in the field of advertising, for specialists in public relations) pursues two complementary objectives, namely, to further improve the communicative competence (linguistic and socio-cultural) and the formation of professional skills of students. Familiarity with the case (reading of the professionally-oriented authentic texts and their subsequent translation), an independent search for solutions (inner monologues in English), and the process of analysis of the situation at the lesson (monologue and dialogue speech prepared and spontaneous) are the examples of communicative tasks.

The process of preparing the students for solving a case is based on skills and abilities to work with information tools, which allows updating the existing knowledge, stimulates research activities. For example, at the stage of collecting information a variety of sources, based on modern communications such as television, video, computer dictionaries, encyclopedias and databases available through the communication system are used. These sources often provide more comprehensive and more relevant information. The next stage is information processing, i.e. classification and analysis of the facts to represent the overall

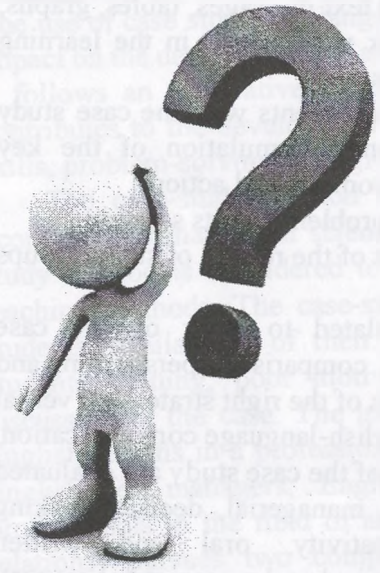
picture of the phenomenon or event. The final phase is representation of the reasoned decision which can be submitted in the form of presentations, illustrated text messages, tables, graphs, charts, etc. The technology of work with a case in the learning process includes the following stages:

✓individual self-study work of students with the case study materials (identification of problems, formulation of the key alternatives, offering solutions or recommended action);

✓work in small groups on the problem and its solutions;

✓presentation and examination of the results of small groups to general discussion.

Classroom communication related to work on the case (discussion, argument, description, comparison, persuasion, and other speech acts) develops the skills of the right strategy of verbal behavior, norms and rules of the English-language communication. Students 'comments on the content of the case study are evaluated on the following skills: analytical, managerial, decision-making skills, interpersonal skills, creativity, oral and written communication skills in English (lexical and grammatical aspect). Therefore, the method provides both cases and a particular type of educational material and special methods for its use in educational practice of the English language. It should be noted that the use of case studies should be methodical, informational, organizational and pedagogically substantiated and secure. Being a complex and effective teaching method, the case method is universal and applies particularly well in conjunction with other methods of teaching foreign languages. Thus, the case-study method facilitates the development of the ability to analyze a situation, evaluate the alternatives, and choose the best option to make a plan for its implementation. If this method is applied repeatedly, students develop stable skills to solve practical problems. Undoubtedly, the function field of cases provides a lot of possibilities and complements the traditional classical methods of teaching English.

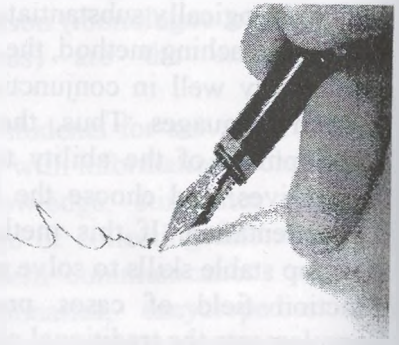


Questions on Chapter VII:

1. Express your opinion concerning this statement: "A case study is such a narrow field that its results cannot be extrapolated to fit an entire question."
2. What about this one: "A case study provides more realistic responses than a purely statistical survey." Do you agree? If yes, why?
3. What is the difference between a scientific study and a case study?
4. Do you think that the use of case studies in language teaching has a highly positive impact? Why?
5. What kind of cases have used in your lessons?

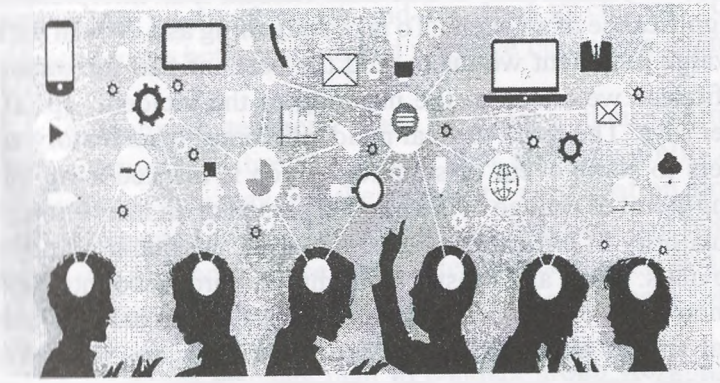
Tasks

1. Find one of the widely used cases in English lessons and analyze it.
2. Write about specific features of using case study in teaching languages.
3. Compare two different opinions concerning the usage of case study in language teaching.



CHAPTER VIII. TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

8.1. Critical Incidents for Teachers' Professional Development



Analysis of critical incidents is one of the approaches of teacher professional development. A critical incident is any unplanned event which takes place during the class. It is something we interpret as a problem or challenge in a particular context, rather than a routine occurrence. The incident is said to be critical because it is valuable and has some meaning. In other words, incidents happen but critical incidents are created because of their importance. Teachers can critically analyze any of their lessons and can make a particular event critical by reflecting on it. The teachers ask not only what happened but also why it happened. They then use the incidents for future reference. This chapter deals with the benefits of critical incidents and the ways to analyze them, which lead to successful teacher professional development.

A critical incident is something which we interpret as a problem or a challenge in a certain context. It is not a routine occurrence, for example, when a student constantly arrives late in the class, when some students make noise while teachers are teaching, etc. A critical incident is often personal to an individual

teacher. A critical incident is defined by different scholars in different ways. Some of them are presented here.

A critical incident is any unplanned and unanticipated event that occurs during class, outside class or during a teacher's career but is "vividly remembered" (Brookfield, 1990, p. 84). Likewise, Tripp (1993) stated that "... a critical incident is an interpretation of the significance of an event. To take something as a critical incident is a value judgment we make, and the basis of that judgment is a significance we attach to the meaning of the incident" (p. 8). He further says: The term 'critical incident' comes from history where it refers to some event or situation which is marked a significant turning-point or change in the life of a person or an institution... The vast majority of critical incidents, however, are not at all dramatic or obvious: they are mostly straight forward accounts of very common place events that occur in professional practice which are critical in the rather different sense that they are indicative of underlying trends, motives and structures. These incidents appear to be 'typical' rather that 'critical' at first sight, but are rendered critical through analysis (pp. 24–25).

Similarly, Richards and Farrell (2010) mention that "a critical incident is an unplanned and unanticipated event that occurs during a lesson and that serves to trigger insights about some aspect of teaching and learning" (p. 13). They say that critical incident analysis refers to the documentation and analysis of teaching incidents in order to learn from them and improve practice. Such incidents compel teachers to ruminate the long-term implications they may have. This process of documentation and reflection provides opportunity for teachers "to learn more about their teaching, their learners and themselves" (ibid, p. 114). These above mentioned definitions and ideas about critical incidents exhibit that a critical incident in teaching refers to a particular occurrence that has taken place during a lesson. Teachers make it critical because they think it important and want to utilize it for future reference. In other words, teachers sometimes face some unexpected situations which make them surprised. They take such situations to be critical because they learn something from them.

When something goes wrong in the classroom or outside classroom, teachers need to ask what happened and what caused it to happen. Researchers say that the incidents can be framed as questions. For example, if students come late to the class, the teachers can begin with the question 'Why do they come late?' If incidents are analyzed in this way, they can become the turning points in the teachers' career and can lead to changes. Critical incidents can be both positive and negative classroom events. For example;

- Sometimes teachers plan to engage their learners in communicative activities to promote their speaking ability. But in the classroom, they may find their students' participation more than they had expected and the better speaking practices and outcomes. Though it is a commonplace event, a teacher can take it as a critical incident because s/he may interpret it to be significant for future reference.
- Sometimes teachers plan to conduct group work activities. They tell their students what they are going to do; divide them into groups; assign tasks, etc. and the students start performing them. The teacher thinks that his students are on the right track. But one of the students may ask "What are we supposed to do?"
- A teacher may check the written responses of his students. S/he only marks "excellent", "well done", "keep it up" etc. regularly on a brilliant student's notebook. S/he thinks that the student has achieved what is expected from his level. But at the end of the session, that student may say "If you had sometimes asked me to work harder, I would have done better."
- A teacher prepares and presents different models of lesson plans to teach different aspects (e.g. grammar, vocabulary) and skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) and also spends a couple of weeks engaging students in practising how to prepare lesson plans for teaching different aspects and skills. They prepare the plans and teach model lessons also. But one of the students may ask "What actually is the format for preparing a lesson plan?"

The above examples are the incidents that happen in classroom as commonplace events. But they are critical incidents in the sense

that they reveal underlying beliefs and motives within the classroom. At the first appearance, these incidents seem to be insignificant but soon they become critical when they are subject to review and analysis since they trigger a sense of weird occurrence in the particular situation. These types of incidents can be called critical incidents because they are unexpected and they prompt the teachers to stop and think about the meaning of such events so that they improve (if negative incident) their teaching in future. All incidents that take place in the classroom may not be critical. A particular event becomes critical incident depending on how it is interpreted. Sometimes teachers themselves come to interpret an incident to be critical. Sometimes they take help of their students.

Analysis of critical incidents helps teachers know more about how they teach. It also helps them to question their own teaching practice which enables them to develop professionally. The main purpose of analyzing a critical incident is to identify good practices of teaching a teacher is adopting. It also aims to identify those practices which are not working well. It serves as a form of reflective inquiry and a sense of professional awareness. Analyzing critical incidents has a number of benefits. It helps the teachers identify and solve problems. According to Richards and Farrell (2010), analyzing critical incidents facilitates teacher professional development in the following ways:

• *It can create a greater level of self-awareness*: When teachers analyze critical incidents they encounter in their classes, they become more aware of what they are doing. As a result, they can notice a gap between what they are doing and what they are supposed to do.

• *It can prompt an evaluation of established routines and procedures*: There may be some techniques or strategies of teaching preferred by a teacher or in an institution which have become the established routines. It means they are the procedures taken for granted. But when a teacher analyzes critical incidents, s/he can evaluate such routinized techniques on the basis of how his/her students are responding to those techniques.

• *It can encourage teachers to pose critical questions about teaching*: Once teachers start analyzing critical incidents occurring in their classes, they develop the habit of looking at everything critically. They become careful about whether something they are going to adopt will really work or not. In other words, they ask themselves questions from each and every aspect.

• *It can help bring beliefs to the level of awareness*: Teachers hold several different types of beliefs about different dimensions of teaching. And the beliefs they hold about learners, learning, teaching, etc. have an influence on the way they teach. When teachers analyze critical incidents, they become aware of their beliefs and can also change them, if necessary.

• *It can create opportunities for action research*: An action research is a classroom research that a teacher conducts to solve some practical and real problems in his/her classes. After analyzing the critical incidents, teachers can focus their attention on some particular problems and can carry out action research to solve those problems.

• *It can help build a community of critical practitioners*: Teachers can share the critical incidents they encounter with their colleagues. As a result, they develop the sense of collegiality. And other teachers who analyze the incidents also begin to see teaching in a critical way.

• *It can provide a resource for teachers*: When teachers keep a record of critical incidents of their classes, this compilation can be used as a resource by both new teachers and experienced teachers and this compilation can be used as a reference for future professional development.

Scholars have given different frameworks to analyze critical incidents. One of the procedures to analyze critical incidents is to examine and understand the critical incident itself. Tripp (1993) has suggested that there are two stages to understanding a critical incident:

• Stage 1: *to describe the incident (i.e. the "what" aspect)*: This is the description phase. In this phase, a specific phenomenon or an issue is observed and documented.

• Stage 2: *to explain its meaning (i.e. the "why" aspect)*: In this phase, the issue is explained by the teacher in terms of its meaning or value. It is also interpreted in terms of the role it plays.

It shows that at first, an incident is described and then, it is decided why it is interpreted as a critical incident. Only those incidents which have significance in a wider context are viewed to be the critical incidents. When teachers report the critical incidents, they should follow certain steps: self-observation, describing what happened, self-awareness, and self-evaluation (Thiel, 1999):

• *Self-observation*: Teachers adopt different ways to observe and record their own teaching such as written narrative, audio videotaping, keeping a teaching journal, etc. The first step in analyzing critical incident is to identify all the significant and relevant events that occur in the classroom through any of the above ways and write them in the note form.

• *Describing what happened*: This is the second step in preparing critical incident report where teachers write a detailed description of what actually happened in their classes. This detailed description should be related to the incident which is interpreted to be critical or significant.

• *Self-awareness*: In this step, the teacher explains the way particular incident occurred. The teacher tries to look at the incident from every possible angle to explain why it happened.

• *Self-evaluation*: This step is said to be the most difficult of all. In this final step, the teacher evaluates what changes were caused due to the incident in his/her practices in teaching.

In the similar way, McCabe (2002) presents the following framework for analyzing the critical incident from the narrative perspective:

• *Orientation*: This part answers the questions like: Who? When? What? and Where?

• *Complication*: This part outlines what happened and the problem that occurred along with any turning point in the story.

• *Evaluation*: This part answers the question: So what?

• *Result:* This part outlines and explains the resolutions to the problem.

In the process of analyzing and preparing a report of critical incidents, teachers often need to reflect on the critical incidents. The following questions can help the teachers reflect on a critical incident: Why was this incident significant to you?; What happened directly before the event?; What happened directly after the event?; How did you react at the time of the event?; What is your interpretation of this event?; What underlying assumptions about your teaching does this critical incident raise for you?; Now that you have reflected on this critical incident, would you react any differently if it happened again? Why or why not? (Richards and Farrell, 2010, p. 120).

Most of the critical incidents occur in the classrooms but some critical events influence the teachers' personal and professional life. For example, a teacher may attend a workshop or a conference where s/he is exposed to several different new practices. S/he may interpret any of them as a valuable, critical incident which influences his/her attitude towards the existing practices. Then, s/he may decide to adopt this new practice in his/her classes. It is said that teachers need to develop their understanding of teaching and of themselves. According to Freeman (1996), it is necessary for teachers to put themselves at the center of telling their life stories. He says that it follows a jazz maxim: "you have to know the story in order to tell the story" (p. 89). Bartlett (1990) presents some questions to be addressed while reflecting on personal critical incidents in teaching career: Why did I become a language teacher?; Do these reasons still exist for me now?; How has my background shaped the way I teach?; What does it mean to be a language teacher?; Is the teacher I am the person I am?; What is my philosophy of language teaching?; Where did this philosophy come from?; How was this philosophy shaped?; What are my beliefs about language learning?; What critical incidents in my training to be teacher shaped me as a teacher?; Do I teach in reaction to these?; What critical incidents in my career shaped me as a teacher?; Do I teach in reaction to these critical incidents?

Brookfield (1990) emphasizes the use of critical incident questionnaire (CIQ) in order to identify the feelings of the students

regarding teaching out of which teachers can identity which incident is critical and which is not from the words of students. This sort of activity can help teachers deal with similar incidents in the future. Brookfield (ibid) stated that CIQ is a quick and revealing way to discover the effects your actions are having on students and to find out the emotional highs and lows of their learning. Administering CIQ, according to him, just takes a short time. The students are asked to write answers to a few questions without putting their name on the form. This is done on a weekly basis. Some examples of the questions used in the CIQ are as follows:

- At what moment in class this weekend did you feel most engaged with what was happening?
- At what moment in class this weekend were you most distanced from what was happening?
- What action that anyone (teacher or student) took this weekend did you find most affirming or helpful?
- What action that anyone took this weekend did you find most puzzling or confusing?
- What about the class this weekend surprised you the most?

For the successful implementation of a critical incident analysis, different aspects should be considered, for example, who the audience for the analysis is, whether we need to write about all the incidents, etc. All incidents are not critical. We interpret a certain incident to be critical depending on the situation and purpose. Another equally important thing to be considered is whether teachers decide any incident to be critical for analyzing it or they collect their students' relevant feeling to choose from and so on. Thus, a critical incident is an unplanned and an unexpected event that occurs during the lesson. The report of a critical incident can be added in a teacher's portfolio to show the evidence of how s/he changes some practices of teaching being used. Teachers learn from their analysis of critical incidents and improve their ways of teaching.

8.2. Five Questions to Tackle When Reflecting on Teaching

"We do not learn from experience...we learn from reflecting on experience".

- John Dewey

One of the most underutilized tools educators use is the ability to reflect. Whether reflection is seen as too time consuming or plainly, a waste of time, many educators are missing the power to change or confirm their practices. Usually, when a teacher's schedule gets busy, the time usually set aside to reflect is tossed out or reduced. When this is done, a teacher might actually be adding more time to fix or repair prior learning experiences. In reality, if the teacher had spent time reviewing properly, many future problems would have been avoided.

All teachers should establish metacognitive processes. The multitude of benefits far outweigh educators skipping or not making sure this process occurs every day. Funny as it may sound, many effective administrators find a secret hiding place, take a walk, or may even take an extended bathroom visit, in order to reflect, gather themselves, and tackle the next problem. Teachers must find time to reflect as well. Master teachers put reflection into their day in several areas.

The following five questions will support your progression in reflection from proficient to exemplary.

1 - What Can Teachers Reflect on Daily? Weekly? Monthly? Yearly?

When told by colleagues, his opponents on the basketball court, Michael Jordan's defense was lacking as compared to his

offensive output, Michael set a goal. He used self-reflection to determine what things he could work on in order to become a better defender. Through hard work and determination, Michael Jordan won the defensive player of the year. In fact, he also won NBA Most Valuable Player of the Year ... a distinction only a few players have ever won in the same year. Michael was not done...he went on to win nine NBA First Team Defensive Awards over his career. Honing his skills by reflecting daily helped Michael achieve his goals.

Metacognition occurs at some level with all humans. Educators can dig deep to understand more about their students as well as reflecting on the teaching approaches used with the students. There is a multitude of areas within an educator's day where reflection can be powerful. Here is a list of 10 areas and 100+ questions that might help in your daily reflection of routines, instruction, and relationships:

1. Procedures, Routines, and Transitions

- AM Arrival - How can I make arrival more effective and efficient? Are students coming from the playground, cars, buses, etc.? What doors do the students enter? How are the students coming into the school? Do students use lockers? What are students doing right away when they enter the classroom?
- Supplies - How can I transfer the management of supplies to students more effectively? What supplies do students need? How can I better support students with supplies?
- Materials - What materials will students need daily? How can I transfer the management of supplies to students more efficiently? How do students turn in their work? How do students support passing out materials?
- Lines - What can I say, model, and do to get students from point A to point B more safely and efficiently? How often should we practice this procedure or routine? How can I transfer the ownership of lining up safely and quickly back to students?
- PM Dismissal - How can I make dismissal more effective and efficient? What students ride the bus, attend after school day

care, parent, walk home, etc.? How can I transfer ownership of dismissal back to the students for safety and efficiency?

2. Before a Lesson Starts

- Materials and Supplies - Do I have all necessary materials and supplies ready to go?
- Engagement - How will I engage students right away and keep them engaged throughout the lesson? What active participation techniques and learning structures will I use in the lesson? What feedback do I want from students in the beginning, middle, and end of the lesson so I know students are mastering the content?
- Objective and Rationale - What do I want students to know or be able to do by the end of the lesson? How will I make sure all students know the objective? How will I make sure all students understand why they are learning this content? What does this content connect to in past learning experiences? What does this content connect to in the real world? Are there professions or jobs that need this skill specifically for success?
- Formative Checks - What formative data will I collect to make sure we are on track during the lesson?
- Summative Checks - How will I know by the end of the lesson that students were proficient or mastered the content I taught?
- Individual Student Checks - What students do I need to be cognizant of during the lesson? Will I need to be ready to support specific students? How will I support these students during the lesson? What has worked in the past with these students? Do I have ideas on how I will differentiate instruction further for individual students?
- Groups of Students Checks - Will I group students? How will I group students? Will the students be grouped flexibly or will they remain the same for the lesson?

3. During the First Part a Lesson (Repeat in the middle of the lesson)

- Effective and Engaging Start - How is the first part of the lesson going so far? Am I meeting the goals of the lesson?

- Objective and Rationale - Did the students understand the objective of the lesson? How do I know? Did the students understand the rationale of the lesson? How do I know?
- Formative Checks, Feedback, and Engagement Level - What feedback are the students giving me? Does the feedback tell me to continue, reteach, or do something different for the remainder of the lesson? What do the formative checks so far tell me about the instruction and engagement? Do I need to add in more, less, or continue with the same engagement strategies and learning structures?
- Relationships - How are students treating each other? How are students reacting to me as a teacher? Do any relationship building strategies need to be changed, reinforced, or continued? How will I communicate this with students?

4.At the End of a Lesson

- Lesson Reflection - Has the formative checks, feedback and engagement level all been successful? Can I go forward with the formative or summative assessment at the end of the lesson? Can I predict what the data will tell me if students take the assessment?
- Assessment – Do I need to change, adapt, or continue with the preplanned assessment? Do I feel students have been engaged at a level where the assessment will give me good data about their comprehension of the content as well as my teaching effectiveness?
- Relationships - Repeat from the middle of the lesson.
- Closure - How will we add closure to this lesson? Will we continue the lesson at another time? Will the lesson content lead into the next lesson or topic of study? What closure techniques will I use? How will I communicate to the students the success of the lesson? How will I praise the current efforts or fix the relationships in the lesson before the next lesson?

5.After a Lesson has Ended

- Relationships - What do we need to work on to better the classroom culture? What specific students, groups of students, or classes do we need to add more relationship building or team building activities?

- Data - What does the formative and summative data tell me about students mastering the content? What does the data tell me about my instructional effectiveness? Was there an educational impact? What do I need to change?

6.Student Relationships with Each Other

- Words - How do students interact with each other with their words? Are there signs of a positive school culture in the words? Do students speak about kindness, tolerance, and empathy?
- Actions - How do students physically interact with each other with their actions? Are there signs of supporting each other with supplies, materials, and possessions? Do students visibly show kindness, tolerance, comfort, and empathy with their actions? Do students do random acts of kindness for other students?

7.Student Relationships With Teacher

- Words - How do students speak to the teacher with their words? Are there signs of respect, trust, kindness, and empathy? What specific words do students use when asking for support from a teacher or adult?
- Actions - How do students physically treat the teacher? Are there visible signs of respect, trust, kindness and empathy with their actions? Do students do random acts of kindness for teachers or staff members?

8.Parent Relationships With Teacher

- Words - How do parents and teachers talk to one another? Are there signs of respect, trust, and kindness in the chosen words? What specific words do parents use when talking with the teacher?
- Actions - How do parents physically treat the teacher? Are there visible signs of respect, trust, and kindness in their actions? Do parents offer to volunteer or support the classroom?

9.Staff Relationships With Other Teachers

- Words - How do teachers talk to each other? Are there signs of respect, trust, kindness, and empathy in the chosen words? What specific words do teachers use with one and another? Is there a common language that teachers use with one another?
- Actions - How do teachers physically act towards one another? Are there visible signs of respect, trust, and empathy in

their actions? Do teachers do random acts of kindness for other teachers or staff members?

10. Teacher Relationships with Administration

- Words - How do administrators talk to the teacher? Are there signs of respect, trust, empathy in the chosen words? What specific words do administrators use with teachers? Is there a common language that is used between administers and teachers?
- Actions - How do administrators physically treat teachers? Are there signs of respect, trust, and empathy by the administrator to the teachers? Do the administrators do random acts of kindness for teachers or staff members?

Reflecting daily, and meta-cognitively breaking it down into smaller chunks, you will begin to tackle these 100 questions repeatedly for better efficiency and effectiveness. You can then reflect on your entire week or month. Most lesson plans are completed weekly, and unit plans can be monthly or bi-monthly. When these conclude, it provides for great reflection on where to go with the students both academically and socio-emotionally. Here is a short list of ideas that exemplary teachers may use in reflection at the end of a week or month:

- Specific Lesson Reflection (Practices, Approaches, Strategies, etc.)
- Pacing of Curriculum (Behind, On Target, Ahead)
- Overall Classroom Culture (All Relationships)
- Summative and Formative Data (Reteach, Continue, Or Extend)
- Engagement Practices (Active Participation and Learning Structures)
- Upcoming Curriculum Connections (Plant Seeds, Direct Connection, etc.)
- Upcoming Special Events or Situations for Class, Grade, or School (Anything the Alters Schedule)
- Proactive Reflection (Preplanning, Getting Ahead, or Prevention)
- Growth Mindset Reflection (Personal and Professional Learning Goals)

The most powerful reflection can come at the end of the school year. Taking time to reflect back on your education approaches, philosophy, academic data, as well as any socio-emotional data is a great way to decide whether you will change, adapt, include, or continue practices that will make both the job more enjoyable as well as increase student achievement. Here is a short list of ideas that exemplary teachers may use to reflect at the end of the school year:

- School, State, and District Assessment Data (Summative Data, Normative Data, etc.)
- Discipline Referral Data (Including Positive and Negative Data Trends)
- Curriculum, Materials, Supplies, Technology Used and Covered
- Instructional Strategies (Stop, Add, or Continue)
- Formative Assessments (Stop, Add, or Continue)
- Behavior and Relationship Strategies (Stop, Add, or Continue)
- Proactive and Growth Mindset Reflection (Increasing Personalized Learning Network)

2 - How Can a Teacher Become More Accurate and Specific in Their Reflection?

The ability to reflect accurately is an abstract concept and driven by perception. Reflecting on the perception of yourself as a teacher may sound foreign to you, but making it evidence-based supports an honest awareness of your abilities. By including and connecting with professionals inside and outside of education, you can help form your own self-perception.

Exemplary teachers are humble, yet confident. They understand that there are always areas of growth for themselves. They know their personal strengths and weaknesses and they are continually working to sharpen their skills. When they reflect, they are sometimes critical of themselves, but understand with perseverance and a growth mindset they can overcome most any challenge. They are able to find evidence in their practices to

determine their success, or to determine areas that they can strengthen.

Exemplary teachers reflect with specificity. They spend time reflecting on things that both went well, and things that went wrong. When reflecting to fix something, they search for specific strategies, approaches, materials, or people that can support them in making positive adjustments. Through this reflection, they can tackle the same problem differently. They put time into being proactive to make sure certain outcomes are more predictable.

As a teacher's toolbox of strategies increases, they are able reflect on a plausible solution more effectively and efficiently. Research, experience, and collaboration support an exemplary teacher's reflection process. Increasing the specificity during reflection can target increasingly difficult problems.

3 - How Can Teachers Connect Best Practice, Current Research, Collegial Collaboration, Deep Questioning, and Prior Learning Experiences to Increase the Effectiveness of Reflective Processes?

The ability to teach successfully may be innate in some individuals, but for most educators we beg, borrow, and steal ideas, strategies, materials, and more from others. Best practices change routinely and emphasis on certain aspects of education are changing with new research. The ability to collaborate with individuals in and out of education is becoming easier and faster. Deep questioning by others on a teacher's educational practices can lead to increased growth for both the teacher and their subsequent students. As a teacher garners more years of experience, they are able to connect successful prior student practices to present students through a reflective process.

Exemplary teachers can cite resources, professionals, and other colleagues for the reasons why they teach what they teach. These educators mix and mash together ideas, strategies, and approaches to form their own philosophy of education. In progressive and effective school districts, educators build common practices together from these resources and

professionals in the field. For example, if your school uses the Daily 5 reading structure, great resources and professionals to follow would be Kelly Gallagher and his book Readacide, Steven Layne and his book Igniting a Passion for Reading, Chris Tovani and her book I Read It, but I Don't Get It, and Donalyn Miller and her book The Book Whisper. Working as a district, school, grade level team, or even individually, a reading philosophy can be created. Specific practices and strategies from each professional can be used and perfected. Collaboration, sharing, and reflection play a significant role in devising a teacher's vision for reading in their classroom.

When a teacher creates a personalized learning network, they surround themselves with individuals that help them dig deeper into their education ideologies and practices. Much like an instructional coach, colleagues and other professionals support by asking difficult, critical, and deep questions. This is when accurate and true self-reflection is most powerful. An exemplary teacher's network includes individuals outside of the education field. These teachers use people in other professions that understand and know specific concepts that relate to the goals of their personal and professional goals. For example, when teaching the concept of accruing taxes to a high school accounting class, engaging in conversations with a certified public accountant (CPA) could be included in the teacher's personalized learning network. The expertise that the CPA can offer might far out way any research the teacher can do on Google.

Years of experience in the profession is the best source of knowledge when reflecting. Exemplary teachers remember successful specific strategies they used with individual students. They try to replicate these positive experiences for other students. They reflect on what worked well, as well as what did not, especially when supporting new students with similar learning difficulties. Experience also helps exemplary teachers develop groups of students with similar needs more effectively and efficiently.

The ability to cite references, whether they are people or resources, when changing, adapting, or adding new teaching practices should be occurring every year. Exemplary teachers understand that as students change, they must change, too.

4 - How Does Having Grit, Perseverance, and a Growth Mindset Play a Role in Effective Reflection?

Grit has become a word that is synonymous with success. It is the number one factor found in all successful education settings. With almost 13,000,000 views, Angela Duckworth describes "grit" as the "power of passion and perseverance" in a 2013 TED Talk. In order for a teacher to take their instructional effectiveness to the next level, they must have this "grit" coupled with a growth mindset.

The exemplary teacher uses "grit" to reflect effectively. When something is successful, they spend an enormous time reflecting on why. They determine the main factors for its success. They then implement the same strategies and approaches to replicate the same factors, which in turn increases the success rate. Passion for not only what you are teaching, but passion for success, play a role when exuding grit.

We can almost say with certainty that reflecting for replicating positive results is not done enough by educators. Unfortunately, most teachers spend an exorbitant amount of time reflecting when something negative occurs. It is powerful to reflect why something goes wrong; the factors associated with failure, as well as what the teacher is going to do the next time. Changing practice and approaches may be hard to do, but why should we ride the proverbial "dead horse." A new saddle, giving it water, or pulling it will not make a dead horse walk! We must be problem solvers.

Denny McLaughlin, in his High Trust Theory, states the sooner a teacher can "go to solution," the healthier the person! Many times educators are stuck diagnosing the problem, never going to solution, and eventually drowning in failure! Denny calls this, "Sniffing the turd." We can admire it, look at it, diagnose it,

but it is still a turd! Again, it takes "grit" to move past sniffing, and move on to finding a solution!

Never giving up is the unrelenting ability that sets master educator's apart from all others. They find a way for all students to learn. Failure is not an option; students continue learning and participating in their own education. These teachers instill this concept of perseverance into their students on a daily basis through their words and actions.

Synchronously, these teachers have a strong sense of perseverance themselves. They model it in the all the work they do, and not just with students. They are meticulous and empathetic in the fact they understand that their words and actions affect other teachers around them, and the subsequent students seated in front of them in the classrooms. They are thoughtful how they treat students, parents, colleagues, and community members. They understand that by putting relationships first, it gives them more time for instruction in the end. They work hard to build and continue strong relationships with all stakeholders. They know that it takes perseverance for effective communication.

Carol Dweck's work with growth mindset is a vital characteristic to an exemplary teacher. As quoted by Dweck on the website, www.mindsetonline.com, she defines a growth mindset as the following:

"In a growth mindset, people believe that their most basic abilities can be developed through dedication and hard work-brains and talent are just the starting point. This view creates a love of learning and a resilience that is essential for great accomplishment. Virtually all great people have had these qualities."

Exemplary teachers are always looking to increase their knowledge, hone their teaching craft, and work on relationships. Having a growth mindset sets these teachers apart from the know-it-alls, and the teachers who believe they are already master teachers. Teachers must have the mindset that there is a lot to learn and it is my job, through perseverance and grit, that I am going to garner information, as much as possible, to support the students and staff in my school.

For example, a new student comes into your classroom in the middle of the year. The student has not only a learning disability (LD), but also is diagnosed with reactive attachment disorder (RAD). You have never dealt with a student that has both LD and RAD. A gear kicks in your body and mind, and you believe - I must learn more! You research strategies, talk to previous teachers in another school district, talk to colleagues and other professionals, as well as experiment with new strategies and approaches to support the new student. The exemplary teacher is always reflecting on their success, as well as their new student's success!

In comparison, a developing teacher, who may even be labeled as an unsatisfactory teacher, would only put reactive and punitive actions in motion. They would not take time to learn more about the issues or form a relationship with the new student. The teacher places blame on the student, the parent, and the administration for placing the student in "their" classroom. Never once do they reflect on their own practices!

An exemplary teacher that radiates grit, perseverance, and a growth mindset tackles new problems in order to find solutions. They do not shy away from challenges and they understand how reflection will support their growth, as well as the students they serve!

5 - How Does Establishing a PLN (Personalized Learning Network) Support Effective Reflective Practices?

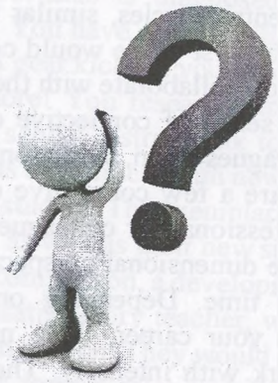
What Charlotte Danielson touches on in Domain 4 Component A, Reflection on Teaching, can be described as powerful, but minimal compared to other components where she gives a myriad of descriptors and examples. Reflection can be the most powerful tool a teacher can use to improve instruction. A new fad in the past decade, but not a new concept, is the ability to find people and resources to support your personal and professional educational growth. In the past five-seven years, Personalized Learning Networks (PLN) are being discussed, created, and even celebrated in many professions. More specifically, in education, teachers are creating PLN's to become

more connected. This is leading them to be more successful, efficient, effective, and reflective.

PLN's can be described as concentric circles, similar to the multiple circles in a Venn diagram. The first circle would contain the colleagues and professionals that you collaborate with the most on multiple topics. Next, there are a series of connective circles where you communicate with the colleagues often, but for only one or two main purposes. Lastly, there are a few connective circles where you communicate with the professionals or colleagues only once or twice. Then, adding in a three dimensional perspective to the Venn diagram is the aspect of time. Depending on your personalized learning at the time in your career, there may be colleagues and professionals you work with intensely. Then that communication fades over time.

Much like teachers differentiating instruction for students, a PLN is devised around the specific needs of each person. In a school, teachers PLNs may overlap in some areas, especially if there is a focus or vision from the district, school, or grade level. For example, a sixth grade team is researching strategies to work with students on the positive and negative implications of social media on learning. Their goal is to educate six graders on their impact of social media on their relationships with each other, as well as ideas on how they can positively communicate with each other. Together the sixth grade team finds professionals and colleagues that can support them in reaching their goal. They find people online that have great ideas and are willing to share their ideas. The sixth grade team's PLN is increased.

PLNs can be a powerful tool for reflection. With advent of social media, information from millions of educators is at teacher's fingertips. Exemplary teachers have a well-established PLN, that is both online and in-person, that drives their learning. At any moment, they can ask for advice from professionals and colleagues in order to grow personally and professionally.

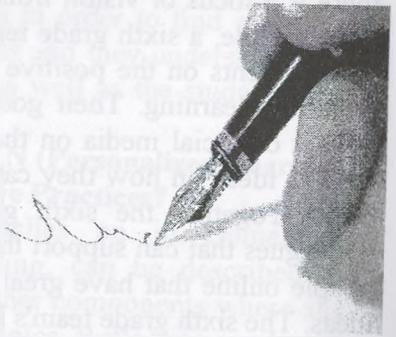


Questions on Chapter VIII:

1. What is critical incident?
2. What is the difference between classroom incident and critical incident?
3. What is reflection?
4. Which one is more effective for English teachers: daily, weekly or monthly reflection?
5. What do you understand by self-reflection?

Tasks

1. Discuss one or two classroom incident; write your solution or recommendation.
2. Give some examples for critical incident in English lesson.
3. Try to write answers for these questions which are given in this chapter on reflection (P. 97-98.)



CHAPTER IX. ASSESSMENT

9.1. Types of assessment

Where do we want students to be at the end of a course or a program? And how will we know if they get there? Those two questions are at the heart of assessment. Although there is a lot of buzz about assessment these days, assessment itself is nothing new. If you've ever given an exam, led a discussion, or assigned a project – and used what you discovered about student learning to refine your teaching – you've engaged in assessment. Assessment is simply the process of collecting information about student learning and performance to improve education. At Carnegie Mellon, we believe that for assessment to be meaningful (not bean-counting or teaching to the test!) it must be done thoughtfully and systematically. We also believe it should be driven by faculty so that the information gathered:

- Reflects the goals and values of particular disciplines
- Helps instructors refine their teaching practices and grow as educators
- Helps departments and programs refine their curriculum to prepare students for an evolving workplace

Many people assume that 'assessment' means taking a test, but assessment is broader than that. There are two main types of assessment: **summative** assessment and **formative** assessment. These are sometimes referred to as assessment **of** learning and assessment **for** learning, respectively. At some level, both happen

in almost all classrooms. The key to good assessment practice is to understand what each type contributes and to build your practice to maximise the effectiveness of each.

Summative assessment

Summative assessment sums up what a pupil has achieved at the end of a period of time, relative to the learning aims and the relevant national standards. The period of time may vary, depending on what the teacher wants to find out. There may be an assessment at the end of a topic, at the end of a term or half-term, at the end of a year or, as in the case of the national curriculum tests, at the end of a key stage.

A summative assessment may be a written test, an observation, a conversation or a task. It may be recorded through writing, through photographs or other visual media, or through an audio recording. Whichever medium is used, the assessment will show what has been achieved. It will summarise attainment at a particular point in time and may provide individual and cohort data that will be useful for tracking progress and for informing stakeholders (e.g. parents, governors, etc.).

Formative assessment

Formative assessment takes place on a day-to-day basis during teaching and learning, allowing teachers and pupils to assess attainment and progress more frequently. It begins with diagnostic assessment, indicating what is already known and what gaps may exist in skills or knowledge. If a teacher and pupil understand what has been achieved to date, it is easier to plan the next steps. As the learning continues, further formative assessments indicate whether teaching plans need to be amended to reinforce or extend learning.

Formative assessments may be questions, tasks, quizzes or more formal assessments. Often formative assessments may not be recorded at all, except perhaps in the lesson plans drawn up to address the next steps indicated.

It is possible for a summative assessment to be complemented with materials that help teachers to analyse the results to inform

teaching and learning (therefore also having formative benefits). For example, the NFER spring teacher guides include 'diagnostic guidance' with analysis of common errors and teaching points.

1.How can I ensure formative assessment doesn't eat up teaching time?

An alternative question might be, 'Do I have time to teach in a way that doesn't generate learning?' Or perhaps, 'Will it eat up teaching time if I needlessly re-teach content that my children already understand?' The point of formative assessment is to monitor pupils' learning so that teaching can be optimally adapted to their actual understanding. It should help you teach more efficiently, not less.

Formative assessment doesn't always have to be a formalised, separate part of a lesson – 'Right, now we need to stop and do five minutes of formative assessment.' Formative assessment can be a few well-chosen questions at the end of an explanation, or a glance over a pupil's shoulder during written work.

2.Can summative assessments be used formatively?

Of course. It can be unhelpful to think of some assessments as summative and others as formative. The difference lies in what you do with the information gathered from an assessment. Imagine you administer a standardised spelling test. You could draw summative conclusions ('this pupil's spelling is above average for her age') or formative ones ('this pupil's knowledge of common exception words needs reinforcing'). A single assessment can be used in both ways.

3.How can results from formal testing be used in a formative way?

When using formal testing (generally an assessment delivered under "test conditions"), different subjects and age groups will require different approaches. But here are two general principles.

Firstly, don't always leave it until the end of teaching period. You might be teaching a four or eight-week module on electricity. It feels natural to teach the topic, test the pupils, and then move on. But a formative approach to testing uses assessment as a way-marker, not as a final destination. Try giving the test after five or

six weeks. It will make clear (to you and to the pupil) what to work on in the remaining two or three weeks.

Secondly, avoid focusing on marks or performance; the focus should be on how to improve. There may be times when pupils do not even need to know their level, score or grade. This relates back to the issue of test timing. Putting a test at the end of a module says, "This is a test of what you have learnt." Putting it partway through a module says, "This is a test of what you need to learn."

9.2. Twenty two Simple Assessment Strategies & Tips You Can Use Every Day

1. An open-ended question that gets them writing/talking

Avoid yes/no questions and phrases like "Does this make sense?" In response to these questions, students usually answer 'yes.' So, of course, it's surprising when several students later admit that they're lost.

To help students grasp ideas in class, ask open-ended questions that require students that get students writing/talking. They will undoubtedly reveal more than you would've thought to ask directly.

2. Ask students to reflect

During the last five minutes of class ask students to reflect on the lesson and write down what they've learned. Then, ask them to consider how they would apply this concept or skill in a practical setting.

3. Use quizzes

Give a short quiz at the end of class to **check for comprehension**.

4. Ask students to summarize

Have students summarize or paraphrase important concepts and lessons. This can be done orally, visually, or otherwise.

5. Hand signals

Hand signals can be used to rate or indicate students' understanding of content. Students can show anywhere from five fingers to signal maximum understanding to one finger to signal minimal understanding. This strategy requires engagement by all students and allows the teacher to **check for understanding** within a large group.

6. Response cards

Index cards, signs, whiteboards, magnetic boards, or other items are simultaneously held up by all students in class to indicate their response to a question or problem presented by the teacher. Using response devices, the teacher can easily note the responses of individual students while teaching the whole group.

7. Four corners

A quick and easy snapshot of student understanding, Four Corners provides an opportunity for student movement while permitting the teacher to monitor and assess understanding.

The teacher poses a question or makes a statement. Students then move to the appropriate corner of the classroom to indicate their response to the prompt. For example, the corner choices might include "I strongly agree," "I strongly disagree," "I agree somewhat," and "I'm not sure."

8. Think-pair-share

Students take a few minutes to think about the question or prompt. Next, they pair with a designated partner to compare thoughts before sharing with the whole class.

9. Choral reading

Students mark text to identify a particular concept and chime in, reading the marked text aloud in unison with the teacher. This strategy helps students develop fluency; differentiate between the

reading of statements and questions; and practice phrasing, pacing, and reading dialogue.

10. One question quiz

Ask a single focused question with a specific goal that can be answered within a minute or two. You can quickly scan the written responses to assess student understanding.

11. Socratic seminar

Students ask questions of one another about an essential question, topic, or selected text. The questions initiate a conversation that continues with a series of responses and additional questions. Students learn to formulate questions that address issues to facilitate their own discussion and arrive at a new understanding.

12. 3-2-1

Students consider what they have learned by responding to the following prompt at the end of the lesson: 3) things they learned from your lesson; 2) things they want to know more about; and 1) questions they have. The prompt **stimulates student reflection** on the lesson and helps to process the learning.

13. Ticket out the door

Students write in response to a specific prompt for a short period of time. Teachers collect their responses as a "ticket out the door" to check for students' understanding of a concept taught. This exercise quickly generates multiple ideas that could be turned into longer pieces of writing at a later time.

14. Journal reflections

Students write their reflections on a lesson, such as what they learned, what caused them difficulty, strategies they found helpful, or other lesson-related topics. Students can reflect on and process lessons. By reading student work–especially —types of learning journals that help students think–teachers can identify class and individual misconceptions and successes. (See also

15. Formative pencil–paper assessment

Students respond individually to short, pencil–paper formative assessments of skills and knowledge taught in the lesson. Teachers may elect to have students self-correct. The teacher collects

assessment results to monitor individual student progress and to inform future instruction.

Both student and teacher can quickly assess whether the student acquired the intended knowledge and skills. This is a formative assessment, so a grade is not the intended purpose.

16. Misconception check

Present students with common or predictable misconceptions about a concept you're covering. Ask them whether they agree or disagree and to explain why.

17. Analogy prompt

Teaching with analogies can be powerful. Periodically, present students with an analogy prompt: "the concept being covered is like ____ because ____."

18. Practice frequency

Check for understanding at least three times a lesson, minimum.

19. Use variety

Teachers should use enough different individual and whole group techniques to check understanding that they accurately know what all students know. More than likely, this means during a single class the same technique should not be repeated.

20. Make it useful

The true test is whether or not you can adjust your course or continue as planned based on the information received in each check. Do you need to stop and start over? Pull a few students aside for three minutes to re-teach? Or move on?

21. Peer instruction

Perhaps the most accurate way to check for understanding is to have one student try to teach another student what she's learned. If she can do that successfully, it's clear she understood your lesson.

22. "Separate what you do and don't understand"

Whether making a t-chart, drawing a concept map, or using some other means, have the students not simply list what they think they know, but what they don't know as well. This won't be as simple as it sounds–we're usually not aware of what we don't know.

They'll also often know more or less than they can identify themselves, which makes this strategy a bit crude. But that's okay– the goal isn't for them to be precise and complete in their self-evaluation the goal is for you to gain insight as to what they do and don't know.

And seeing what they can even begin to articulate on their own is an excellent starting point here.

9.3. How to Assess Your Students: Top 10 Ways

1. Oral Interview

You can do a one on one interview with each of your students to get a good idea of their listening and speaking abilities. You can schedule these types of interviews during class (perhaps take each student into the hall to have a private discussion while the rest of the class does seat work) or schedule with students individually. Asking questions that use grammatical structures and vocabulary that your class has studied will help you know exactly what each student has grasped. Do not penalize a student for not knowing content if he or she can compose grammatically and situationally correct statements or questions in response to your questions.

2.Class Presentation

A presentation in class assesses a different aspect of spoken language. When you ask a student to speak in front of the class, he

is able to prepare and practice what he wants to say. He can also research information on his topic. In this case, the grade you give your student should be based on both content and presentation.

3.Role Play

Another way to assess your students' speaking abilities is by having them perform role-plays in front of the class. By giving them a situation and roles to play, you can see how creatively your students are able to use language with one another. Be listening for content and grammar as with any oral assessment, but you can also be attuned to how your students are making creative use of their language to communicate with one another. Even if they show grammatical imperfection, are your students able to understand each other? Are they able to use the language skills they possess to get their point across to their partner? These are important skills and ones you should foster in your students.

4.Cloze Exam

A cloze exam is an atypical way to test the understanding your students have of grammar. To write a cloze exam, write an original paragraph or take one that your students have used in their studies. Then replace every fifth or sixth word with a blank. Ask your students to fill in the blanks with words they think would be most logical and grammatical. You will see a variety of answers among your students, but as long as the answers are grammatically and logically correct, the student should receive full credit.

5.Fill in the Blank

A fill in the blank test may seem similar to a cloze exam, but this type of test is used to test a specific grammatical structure or set of vocabulary. You can write individual sentences or an entire paragraph for your students, but it is probably best to provide a word bank in either case. You may choose to supply more words than will be necessary to fill in the blanks to make the test more

challenging. This will force your students to choose the best answers rather than matching ten words with ten blanks.

6.Writing Sample

Having your students give you a writing sample is another good way to assess their proficiency with grammar. If you have them write something for homework, you run the risk that someone other than your student will do the writing. Often friends or native speakers will correct a nonnative speaker's writing with the intention of helping, but this will not give you an accurate picture of your student's writing. To avoid this, have your students do a periodic in class writing. Give them an adequate amount of time to write about a subject that you assign. You will then get an accurate look at their grammatical and writing proficiency. Follow up your assessment with some mini-lessons on common grammatical pitfalls that the class exhibited.

7.Portfolio

To expand the material you base your students' grades on, why not assign each person to assemble a portfolio. A portfolio is a collection of work samples that cover several aspects of the assignments your students have completed. This is an especially effective way to assess your students if you have the same class for reading, writing, listening, speaking and grammar. Ask each student to compile a collection of ten works for you to grade. You can include specific assignments on the list, but you can also give a category and ask your students to present their best work. Ask for a grammar homework assignment, a writing sample and a vocabulary exercise, for example. Your students can then choose the work that they are most proud of. They may feel more encouraged to be graded on their strengths rather than their weaknesses.

8.Online Quiz

You do not have to spend as much of your class time assessing your students as was often necessary in the past. With the extensive

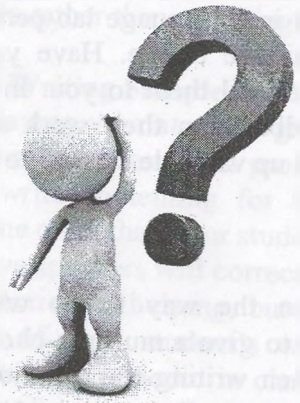
collection of online resources for ESL students, you can require your students to spend time at home or in a language lab period working on exercises and quizzes available online. Have your students print out their final scores or e-mail them to you. In so doing, your students will still get feedback on their work and knowledge, but you will not have to give up valuable class time for it to happen.

9.Multiple Choice Exam

Sometimes the classics are often the way to go when assessing your students. If you choose to give a multiple-choice exam, keep these pointers in mind when writing the questions. Make sure all the answers are grammatically correct. Your students should not be able to eliminate an answer based on grammar alone (unless, of course, that is what you are trying to test). Also, try to keep all the answer choices around the same length. If you choose to include the options "all of the above" or "none of the above", make sure they are options for additional questions. If you keep these tips in mind when you write your multiple-choice quiz, you will get better results from your students.

10. True/False Quiz

The true/false quiz is also a classic that is used by most teachers. When you use this type of test, do not give trick questions that focus on minor details. Even more important, have your students correct the questions that they say are false. If they are making the corrections rather than just identifying the mistakes, you will make sure they are answering from what they know rather than making lucky guesses. You can assign one point to each answer and another point to each correction on the test.

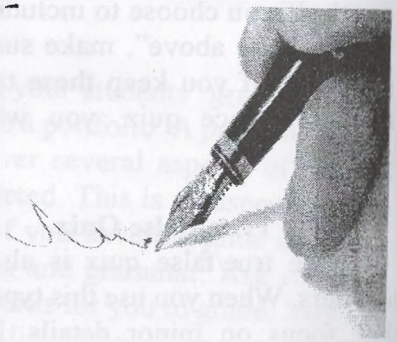


Questions on Chapter IX:

1. What kind of process is assessment?
2. What is formative assessment?
3. What is summative assessment?
4. Which one is the most important and less important among 22 simple assessment strategies?
5. Can you add something more to 10 ways of assessing students?

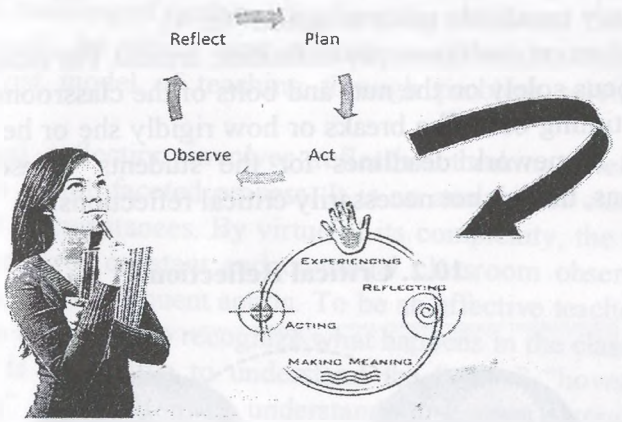
Tasks

1. Write about specific features of formative assessment.
2. Discuss with your group mates or colleagues the importance of summative assessment.
3. Write about advantages and disadvantages of "Peer instruction".



CHAPTER X. THE ROLE OF CRITICAL REFLECTION IN TEACHER EDUCATION

10.1. Reflective Teaching



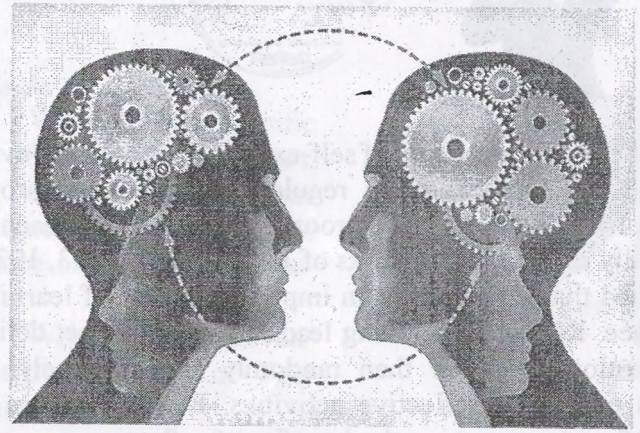
Reflection is a process of self-examination and self-evaluation in which effective educators regularly engage to improve their professional practices. The roots of reflective teaching are historically evident in the works of John Dewey (1933, 1938), who maintained that reflection is an important aspect of learning from experience. Reflective thinking leads educators to act deliberately and intentionally rather than randomly and reactively. Not all teachers engage in reflective activities. For example, a teacher might refuse to recognize the benefits of reflection or a teacher's reflection might be informal – a combination of emoting about how she or he felt and thinking about what happened, without learning or progressing from that retrospective point.

When a teacher is involved in active and deliberate reflection and analysis regarding those events that may lead to formulating new strategies for changing behavior in the classroom (Reagan et al., 2000), he or she is using reflection for professional growth. Brookfield (2004) argued that without reflection, teachers run the continual risk of making poor decisions and bad judgments.

Without reflection, teachers unquestioningly believe that students can accurately interpret their actions as intended; furthermore, teachers may continue to plan and teach on the basis of unexamined assumptions. They then fall into the habit of justifying what they do as "common sense." "Yet unexamined common sense is a notoriously unreliable guide to action" (p. 4).

Reflection itself is not, by definition, critical. For example, one might focus solely on the nuts and bolts of the classroom process, such as timing of coffee breaks or how rigidly she or he wants to stick to homework deadlines for the students. These can be reflections, though not necessarily critical reflections.

10.2. Critical Reflection



After our class discussion, students write reflective journals on each reading assignment. In their reflections, they must show what new knowledge they learned, and they must discuss how they will apply their understandings in their field placement. Before these structured experiences with critical reflection, almost every student thinks that reflection is something he or she does. However, by the end of our first discussion, many students have clearly changed their minds and begin to refer to what they have been doing as perhaps merely "reporting" what transpired during the day,

realizing that simply sitting back and thinking about what transpired during the day does not make them reflective teacher candidates that there is power in the practice of reflective thinking. At the same time, I can sense that they are beginning a paradigm shift in the teaching of mathematics from the traditional "show and tell" approach, by which most of them were taught, toward the constructivist model of teaching through problem solving and inquiry.

Critical reflection involves reflective thinking. Reflective thinking is a multifaceted process. It is an analysis of classroom events and circumstances. By virtue of its complexity, the task of teaching requires constant and continual classroom observation, evaluation, and subsequent action. To be an effective teacher, it is not enough to be able to recognize what happens in the classroom. Rather, it is imperative to understand the "whys" "hows," and "what if's" as well. This understanding comes through the consistent practice of reflective thinking. (McKnight, 2002, p. 1) What makes reflection critical? Is it a deeper, more intense probing form of reflection? Not necessarily. Critical reflection on experience certainly does tend to lead to the uncovering of paradigmatic, structuring assumptions, but the depth of a reflective effort does not, in and of itself, make it critical (Brookfield, 2004).

Reflection becomes critical when it has two distinctive purposes. The first is to understand how considerations of power undergird, frame and distort so many educational processes and interactions. The second is to question assumptions and practices that seem to make our teaching lives easier, but that actually end up working against our best long term interests – in other words, those that are hegemonic. (p. 5) For example, consider the teacher who assembles her class into a circle to facilitate discussion and promote an atmosphere of equality. Although some students might interpret this as the teacher's intending to promote student equity, others might find it intrusive or a sign of the teacher's way of exposing the shy students. Others might not want to get involved in the discussion, because they might be afraid of being wrong and suffering ridicule from other students. So beneath the circle's

democratic veneer, there may exist a much more troubling and ambivalent reality.

Kettle and Sellars (1996) found that reflective peer groups encourage student teachers to challenge existing theories and their own preconceived views of teaching, through the social construction of meaning, while giving them experience in the collaborative style of professional development, which is useful throughout a teaching career. Researchers have shown that critical reflection continues to be an effective technique for professional development (Brookfield, 1995; Merrifield, 1993). The implication is that effective teacher professional development should involve activities such as study teams and peer coaching where teachers are expected to examine their assumptions and practices continuously. When teacher candidates articulate the benefits of reflective teaching and critical reflection, they can begin to practice it in earnest:

When I began to read Brookfield's "The Getting of Wisdom . . ." I had some idea about what critical reflection was, but still a little unsure of how to use it properly. I asked myself, how does it benefit me as a teacher? Why should I take time out of my day to reflect critically? There was one section in particular that I found to be very interesting and helpful. This section was entitled "The Teacher Is a Fly on the Wall." In this section Brookfield discussed reflecting on myself based on how my students see me. I guess I never thought of this type of reflection. I continuously reflect on how I think I am doing as a teacher. I have never thought to reflect on how the students view me as a teacher. This way of critical reflection could be very beneficial. Brookfield mentioned in the article how when the teacher walks around the room from group to group the students will do what they are supposed to be doing until the teacher leaves. If I were to reflect on this point I would reflect on why the students may do this and what is a different way I could observe my students without being so intrusive. How could I observe them acting naturally and still on task? I found Brookfield's article to be very interesting as well as extremely informative. It truly gave me more insight on critical

reflection and why it should be used on a daily basis. It can be [a] very effective tool for a teacher if it is used correctly. When I get my own classroom I would like to keep some type of a critical reflective journal. Even when the days are hectic I will try to always to remember to take a few minutes to reflect critically to allow myself to become the best teacher I can be. (student voice, spring 2006) It is important for teacher candidates to consider and discuss things that reflective teachers do. This usually results in a summary of questions that a reflective teacher asks (Ryan & Cooper, 2006):

- *What am I doing and why?*
- *How can I better meet my students' needs?*
- *What options are available?*
- *How can I encourage more involvement or learning on the part of the students?*
- *Have I considered my own values as a professional and my comfort level in acting on those values?*
- *What conscious choice can I make to make a difference?*

At this point, I give selected reading assignments to the class to inform its process of critical reflection.

Selected reading assignments. Contextualized reflection requires that students work on reflective practices within the pedagogies of focus – in this case, mathematics and science. In math, for example, most of the selected readings come from the journal Teaching Children Mathematics.

Two articles are on my permanent reading list: "'I Did It My Way': Providing Opportunities for Students to Create, Explain, and Analyze Computation Procedures" (Scharton, 2004) and "Learning Through Problems: A Powerful Approach to Teaching Mathematics" (Trafton & Midgett, 2001). Trafton and Midgett (2001) agree with the National Council for Teachers of Mathematics (2000), who say that "problem solving is natural to children because the world is new to them and they exhibit curiosity, intelligence, and flexibility as they face new situations" (p. 532). The challenge for teachers is to build on children's innate

problem-solving inclinations and preserve and encourage their disposition that values problem solving. In both articles, teachers related how they allowed children to do math "their way." I dedicate significant class time to a discussion of how the teachers in these articles provided opportunities for students to create, explain, and analyze their procedures. Following this exercise, teacher candidates conduct a literature search for an article that involves reflective teaching and critical reflection; then, they present the article's major ideas to their peers. Following these presentations, cooperative learning groups present major ideas from a selected chapter of the required class text to their peers.

In most semesters, the class uses Elementary and Middle School Mathematics (Van de Walle, Karp, & Bay-Williams, 2004) as a major resource. Finally, teacher candidates share their findings at the collegewide Student Research and Creativity Celebration. In 2008, the teacher candidates wrote of their experience:

In the weeks leading to our field participation, we examined literature that discussed [the] problem based classroom. Van De Walle states that "we now know that . . . children learn mathematics in ways that make sense to them; they must be actively engaged in making sense of mathematics." Our class used critical reflection to identify our feelings pertaining to math and how we will approach the subject in our classroom. Two students worked together . . . and presented the "big ideas" and provided examples of activities that might engage elementary school students. Each team became experts in an area. . . . We entered our participation with more knowledge than we could have gained alone. (EDU 312 poster for 2008 Student Research and Creativity Celebration)

The contextual approach. It is one thing to say that teachers should be reflective practitioners; it is quite another to design meaningful projects that enable teacher candidates to practice reflective teaching in field-based experiences. To help teacher candidates make critical reflection a habit of mind, I design curricular projects that require critical reflection as a necessary form of formative self-analysis. This contextual approach focuses on reflective practice without sacrificing the important content of

teaching pedagogy to be learned in this class. As mentioned earlier, critical reflection takes place through the following projects:

- goal setting for identified weaknesses and strengths,
- reflective journaling,
- reflections for implemented or observed lessons,
- coaching and conferencing process,
- creating a growth portfolio, and
- reflective summary of the whole course.

10.3. Reflections for Implemented or Observed Lessons

Reflective practice involves what the teacher does before entering the classroom, while in the classroom, and retrospectively after leaving the classroom. Teacher candidates are therefore required to distinguish among reflection for practice, reflection in practice, and reflection on practice. The first is a sort of anticipatory reflection on future experiences, made by stepping back from or out of the situation to consider the various alternatives and their possible consequences. Reflection in practice – thinking on one's feet, acting in a flash, reflecting in the moment of acting – is the most difficult of the three for teacher candidates. Many teacher candidates believe this to be something they will improve with experience. Finally, reflection on practice is the most traditional

form of retrospective consideration of the past experience. To guide them in their reflections, I give teacher candidates a number of questions:

• Did the material you chose help to teach the specific skill or strategy effectively, Why or why not?

• How did the children respond to visuals you prepared? Did your cooperating teacher intervene? If so, how?

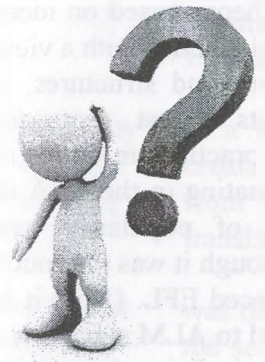
• Did you have any feedback from your cooperating teacher? If so, what was it?

• Did the students learn or extend their knowledge of the skill or strategy through your activity? What makes you think so?

• What might you do differently if you taught this lesson again? How has this lesson expanded your knowledge about teaching?

Critical reflection enables teacher candidates – who in my case happen to be White middleclass females—to benefit in the following areas: first, deeply understanding the ways in which their teaching styles enhance their ability to challenge the traditional mode of practice; second, defining how they will grow toward greater effectiveness as teachers.

As a result of their engagement in reflecting on their practice or prior experiences, teacher candidates examined everything they routinely observed and performed in their classrooms. This finding agrees with Brookfield (1995), Dewey (1933, 1938), Schön (1996), and Van Manen (1995), who laid the groundwork for teachers to differentiate between reflective versus routine action. Another important observation – if not the most important, in my view – is that through continual reflection on what and whom they teach, my teacher candidates' ability to relate to their primarily African American students significantly improved. Howard (2006) has argued that we cannot teach what we do not know. At an individual level, critical reflection does bring about an awareness of the need for change.

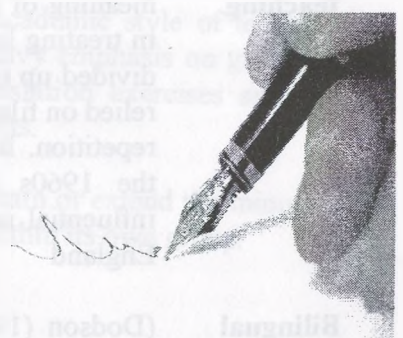


Questions on Chapter X:

1. What is critical reflection?
2. What is reflective thinking?
3. Do you think that reflection may lead to formulating new strategies for changing teaching methods?
4. Do observe lessons often? Why?
5. Do you think reflection is the only way to improve teaching skills?

Tasks

1. Observe a lesson and give a reflection.
2. Ask your friend to observe your lesson and ask her/him to analyze your lesson and give feedback.
3. Compare two different self-reflections (your own and your friend's).



GLOSSARY OF TEACHING METHODS

Audiolingual teaching combined a learning theory based on ideas of habit-formation, and practice with a view of language as patterns and structures; it chiefly made students repeat sentences recorded on tape and practice structures in repetitive drills. Originating in the USA in the 1940s, its peak of popularity was probably the 1960s, though it was not much used in British-influenced EFL. (Note it is not usually abbreviated to ALM since these initials belong to a particular trade-marked method).

Audiovisual teaching presented visual images to show the meaning of spoken dialogues and believed in treating language as a whole rather than divided up into different aspects. Teaching relied on film-strips and taped dialogues for repetition. It emerged chiefly in France in the 1960s and 1970s and was highly influential in modern language teaching in England

Bilingual Method (Dodson (1967): this little-known method used in Wales depended on both languages being present in the classroom, in that meaning was conveyed by translation, not word by word but by gist.

Communicative teaching based language teaching on the functions that the second language had for the student and on the meanings they wanted to express, leading to teaching exercises that made the students communicate with each other in

various ways. From the mid-1970s onwards this became the most influential way of teaching around the globe, not just for English.

Community Language Learning (CLL) is a teaching method in which students create conversations in the second language from the outset, using the teacher as a translation resource.

The Direct Method was the name for any method that relies on the second language throughout. I.e. it can be applied to almost all the language teaching methods recommended since the 1880s.

Grammar-translation method: this traditional academic style of teaching which placed heavy emphasis on grammar explanation, translation exercises and the use of literary texts.

Language maintenance and bilingual language teaching: teaching to maintain or extend the minority local language within its own group.

New Concurrent Method (Jacobson and Faltis, 1990): this required teachers to switch languages between L1 and L2 at carefully planned key points chosen by topic, function, etc.

Problem-based learning (PBL) is part of this tradition of meaningful, experiential learning. In PBL, students learn by solving problems and reflecting on their experiences. PBL is well suited to helping

students become active learners because it situates learning in real-world problems and makes students responsible for their learning. It has a dual emphasis on helping learners develop strategies and construct knowledge. A review of PBL is timely because issues of flexible thinking and lifelong learning have come to the fore in discussions of classroom reform. PBL is of increasing interest to K–16 educators as demonstrated by widespread publication of books written about PBL. Educators are interested in PBL because of its emphasis on active, transferable learning and its potential for motivating students.

Project-Based Learning (PBL) The PBL approach takes learner-centredness to a higher level. It shares many aspects with TBL, but if anything, it is even more ambitious. Whereas TBL makes a task the central focus of a lesson, PBL often makes a task the focus of a whole term or academic year.

Reciprocal language teaching is a teaching method in which pairs of students alternately teach each other their languages 'language of the day', to teach each other their own language.

Submersion teaching: sink-or-swim form of teaching in which minority language children are put in majority language classes.

Suggestopedia (Lozanov, 1978) is a teaching method aimed at avoiding the students' block about language learning through means such as listening to music.

Task-based learning is an approach that sees learning as arising from particular tasks the students do in the classroom and has been increasingly seen as a logical development from communicative language teaching.

GLOSSARY OF LANGUAGE EDUCATION TERMS

Accuracy Producing language with few errors.

Achievement test A test to measure what students have learned or achieved from a program of study; should be part of every language program and be specific to the goals and objectives of a specific language course. These tests must be flexible to respond to the particular goals and needs of the students in a language program.

Activate The phase in a lesson where students have the opportunity to practice language forms. See "controlled practice", "guided practice", and "free practice".

Active listening A technique whereby the listener repeats (often in other words) what the speaker has said to demonstrate his or her understanding. Active listening is an especially useful alternative to directly correcting a student error. Compare active listening.

Active vocabulary Vocabulary that students actually use in speaking and writing.

Active Related to student engagement and participation. For example, listening is perceived to be a passive skill, but is actually active because it involves students in decoding meaning.

Alphabet A complete standardized set of letters – basic written symbols – each of which

roughly represents a phoneme of a spoken language, either as it exists now or as it may have been in the past. English uses the Roman or Latin alphabet, which consists of vowels and consonants.

Vowel A sound in spoken language characterized by an open configuration of the voice tract so that there is no build-up of air pressure above the vocal cords. The Roman vowels include the letters "a", "e", "i", "o", "u" and sometimes "y". In all languages, vowels form the nucleus of a syllable. A vowel also completes a syllable.

Semivowel A sound that is much like the vowel, but is not the key (nuclear) sound in a syllable. Examples: the opening sounds in the words "yet" and "wet".

Consonant An alphabetic character which represents a sound created by a constriction or closure at one or more points along the vocal tract. Consonants form the onset or end of a syllable, or both.

Aptitude The rate at which a student can learn a language, based on raw talent. Aptitude does not seem to be related to attitude; a gifted student can have a poor attitude.

Attitude A complex mental state involving beliefs, feelings, values and dispositions to act in certain ways. Attitude affects a

student's ability to learn, but is unrelated to aptitude.

Audiolingualism — A form of language learning based on behaviourist psychology. It stresses the following: listening and speaking before reading and writing; activities such as dialogues and drills, formation of good habits and automatic language use through much repetition; use of target language only in the classroom.

Audio-visual aids — Teaching aids such as audio, video, overhead projection, posters,pictures and graphics.

Aural — Related to listening.

Authentic text — Natural or real teaching material; often this material is taken from newspapers, magazines, radio, TV or podcasts.

Automaticity — A learner's ability to recover a word automatically, without straining to fetch it from memory.

Behavioural psychology — Also called behaviourism, the belief that learning should be based on psychological study of observable and measurable psychology only; psychological theory based on stimulus-response influenced audiolingualism.

Bottom-up information processing — Students learn partially through bottom-up information processing, or processing based on information present in the

language presented. For example, in reading bottom-up processing involves understanding letters, words, and sentence structure rather than making use of the students' previous knowledge.

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.

Chomsky, Noam — The ideas of the American linguistic theorist Noam Chomsky can be very abstract, in contrast to the very practical process of communicative language teaching. Chomsky's theories of knowledge of language and language acquisition relate as much to the study of human nature as to language teaching. As Steven Pinker explains, Chomsky's claim that...all humans speak a single language is based on the hypothesis that the same symbol-manipulating machinery, without exception, underlies the world's languages. Linguists have long known that the basic design features of language are found everywhere... A common grammatical code, neutral between production and comprehension, allows speakers to produce any linguistic message they can understand, and vice versa. Words have stable meanings, linked to them by

arbitrary convention....Languages can convey meanings that are abstract and remote in time or space from the speaker, (and) linguistic forms are infinite in number.

Chorus Speaking together as a group; used in choral speaking and jazz chants.

Classroom climate Environment created in the classroom by factors such as the physical environment and also the interrelationship between the teacher and the students, and among the students.

Classroom management The management of classroom processes such as how the teacher sets up the classroom and organizes teaching and learning to facilitate instruction. Includes classroom procedures, groupings, how instructions for activities are given, and management of student behaviour.

Cloze A type of gap fill where the gaps are regular, e.g. every 7th or 9th word. The technique can used to assess students' reading comprehension or as a practice activity.

Collocation The way words are often used together. For example, "do the dishes" and "do homework", but "make the bed" and "make noise".

Colloquialism A word or phrase used in conversation – usually in small regions of the English-

speaking world – but not in formal speech or writing: "Like, this dude came onto her real bad."

Communicative Competence The role of language learning is to achieve communicative competence. Communicative competence has four parts, which we call language competencies.

- **Grammatical competence** is how well a person has learned that features and rules of the language. This includes vocabulary, pronunciation, and sentence formation. The main question is: How well does a person understand English grammar?
- **Sociolinguistic competence** is how well a person speaks and is understood in various social contexts. This depends on factors such as status of those speaking to each other, the purpose of the interaction, and the expectations of the interaction. The main question is: how socially acceptable is the person's use of English in different settings?
- **Discourse competence** is how well a person can combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve different types (genres) of speaking or writing. The main question is: How well does one properly combine all the languages elements to speak or write in English?
- **Strategic competence** is how well the person uses both verbal forms and

non-verbal communication to compensate for lack of knowledge in the other three competencies. The main question is: Can a person find ways to communicate when he or she is lacking some knowledge of English?

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is an approach to foreign or second language learning which emphasizes that the goal of language learning is communicative competence. The communicative approach has been developed particularly by British applied linguists as a reaction away from grammar-based approaches such as the aural-oral (audio-lingual) approach. Teaching materials used with a communicative approach teach the language needed to express and understand different kinds of functions, such as requesting, describing, expressing likes and dislikes, etc. Also, they emphasize the processes of communication, such as using language appropriately in different types of situations; using language to perform different kinds of tasks, e.g. to solve puzzles, to get information, etc.; using language for social interaction with other people.

Competence learning model Especially when we take specialized courses, learning seems to take place in four stages. We begin with unconscious incompetence: we do not know how much we do not know. Once we begin

our course of studies, we become consciously incompetent: we know how much we do not know. From there we proceed to conscious competence: we have functional knowledge and can perform competently, but we have to think about what we are doing. Finally, after we have had enough experience, we become unconsciously competent: we know it and we can do it, and we do not much have to think about it. This model applies to a great deal of language learning, to TEFL training and to many other areas of study.

Comprehensible input Language that is understandable to learners.

Content words Words that carry meaning; usually nouns, verbs and sometimes adjectives and adverbs.

Context clues Clues used when guessing word meanings; clues that provide students with meaning or comprehension based on the environment in which a word is found.

Contrastive analysis Comparing two languages to predict where learning will be facilitated and hindered

Controlled practice Language practise where the students are restricted in their choice of language, usually to a single answer, for example a

gap fill. (see "Free practise" and "Guided practise")

Creative construction hypothesis Hypothesis in language acquisition which states that learners gradually develop their own rule systems for language.

Culture The sum of the beliefs, attitudes, behaviours, habits and customs of a group of people.

Deductive teaching Also known as deduction, from the verb "to deduce"; a teaching technique in which the teacher presents language rules and the students then practice those rules in activities. Deductive teaching is usually based on grammar-based methodology and proceeds from generalizations about the language to specifics. (See "Inductive teaching".)

Delayed copying The teacher writes a short familiar sentence on the board, gives students time to look at it, erases it, and then they see if they can write it.

Descriptive grammar Grammar that is described in terms of what people actually say or write, rather than what grammar books say the grammar of the language should be. See "prescriptive grammar".

Diagnostic test A test to diagnose or discover what language students know and what they need to develop to improve their language abilities; may be used before a

course of study and combined with placement test.

Dictation A technique in which the teacher reads a short passage out loud and students write down what the teacher reads; the teacher reads phrases slowly, giving students time to write what they hear; the technique is used for practice as well as testing.

Discourse See "communicative competence".

Facilitator A concept related to a teacher's approach to interaction with students. Particularly in communicative classrooms, teachers tend to work in partnership with students to develop their language skills. A teacher who is a facilitator tends to be more student-centred and less dominant in the classroom than in other approaches. The facilitator may also take the role of mentor or coach rather than director.

Feedback Reporting back or giving information back, usually to the teacher; feedback can be verbal, written or nonverbal in the form of facial expressions, gestures, behaviours; teachers can use feedback to discover whether a student understands, is learning, and likes an activity.

Fluency Natural, normal, native-like speech characterized by appropriate pauses,

intonation, stress, register, word choice, interjections and interruptions.

Form-focused instruction The teaching of specific language content (lexis, structure, phonology). See "language content".

Free practice Practice-activities that involve more language choice by the learner. The students focus on the content rather than the language. Used for fluency practice. (see "Controlled practice" and "Guided practice")

Function words Also known as form words, empty words, structure or structural words and grammar words; these words connect content words grammatically; function words have little or no meaning by themselves. Examples include articles, prepositions and conjunctions.

Functional syllabus Syllabus based on communicative acts such as making introductions, making requests, expressing opinions, requesting information, refusing, apologising, giving advice, persuading; this type of syllabus is often used in communicative language teaching.

Gesture A facial or body movement that communicates meaning; examples include a smile, a frown, a shrug, a shake or nod of the head. Gestures often accompany verbal communication.

Grammar See "descriptive grammar" and "prescriptive grammar". Also, see "communicative competence".

Graded reader Reading material that has been simplified for language students. The readers are usually graded according to difficulty of grammar, vocabulary, or amount of information presented.

Grammar translation A method of language teaching characterized by translation and the study of grammar rules. Involves presentation of grammatical rules, vocabulary lists, and translation. Emphasizes knowledge and use of language rules rather than communicative competence.

Grammatical syllabus A syllabus based on the grammar or structure of a language; often part of the grammar translation method.

Guided practice An intermediate stage in language practice - between "controlled practice" (q.v.) and "free practice" (q.v.) activities; this stage features allows for some creativity from the students.

Idiom A group of words whose meaning is different from the meanings of the individual words: "She let the cat out of the bag" or "He was caught red-handed."

Inductive teaching Also known as induction, from the verb "to induce"; a facilitative, student-

centred teaching technique where the students discover language rules through extensive use of the language and exposure to many examples. This is the preferred technique in communicative language teaching. (See "Deductive teaching").

Input hypothesis Hypothesis that states that learners learn language through exposure to language that is just beyond their level of comprehension. See "Krashen, Stephen".

Interference A phenomenon in language learning where the first language interferes with learning the target or foreign language.

Interlanguage The language a learner uses before mastering the foreign language; it may contain features of the first language and the target language as well as non-standard features.

Interlocutor In a conversation, this refers to the person you are speaking to.

Intonation How we change the pitch and sound of our voice when speaking. See "language content".

Krashen, Stephen Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition is a highly practical theory for communicative language learning. This notion of second language acquisition consists of five main

hypotheses: the Acquisition-Learning hypothesis; the Monitor hypothesis; the Natural Order hypothesis; the Input hypothesis; and the Affective Filter hypothesis. These hypotheses represent practical interpretations of what happens in language acquisition, and they form the basis of a system of language teaching called "The Natural Method."

Language content Language has three components, which are commonly taught as language items.

1. **Structural items** are grammatical points about the language. CL teachers frequently introduce these as examples or model sentences, and they are often called "patterns".
2. **Phonological items** are features of the sound system of the language, including intonation, word stress, rhythm and register. A common way to teach phonology is simply to have students repeat vocabulary using proper stress and pronunciation.

A lexical item is a new bit of vocabulary. It is sometimes difficult to decide whether an item is structural or lexical. For example, the teacher could teach phrasal verbs like "chop down" and "stand up" as lexis or structure.

Language experience approach An approach based on teaching first language reading to young children, but adapted for use with adults. Students use vocabulary and concepts already learned to tell a story or describe an event. The

teacher writes down the information they provide, and then uses the account to teach language, especially to develop reading skills.

Language learning requirements To learn language, students have four needs: They must be exposed to the language. They must understand its meaning and structure. And they must practice it. Teachers should hold their students as able. They should not over-explain or make things too easy. Learning comes through discovery.

Language skills In language teaching, this refers to the mode or manner in which language is used. Listening, speaking, reading and writing are generally called the four language skills. Speaking and writing are the productive skills, while reading and listening are the receptive skills. Often the skills are divided into sub-skills, such as discriminating sounds in connected speech, or understanding relationships within a sentence.

Learning burden These are the features of the word that the teacher actually needs to be taught, and can differ dramatically from word to word. Especially in lexis, the teacher needs to reduce learning burden by, for example, reducing the number of definitions and uses presented.

Learning factors For EFL teachers, four factors outside aptitude and attitude affect the rate at

which a student learns a second language. These are (1) the student's motivation, including whether it is instrumental or integrative; (2) the amount of time the student spends in class and practicing the language outside class; (3) the teacher's approach to teaching; and (4) the teacher's effectiveness and teaching style. The most important of these motivators are the first two, which are also the two the teacher has least control over. See also "aptitude", "attitude" and "TEFL vs. TEFL".

Lesson plan An outline or plan that guides teaching of a lesson; includes the following: pre-assessment of class; aims and objectives; warm-up and review; engagement, study, activation of language (controlled, guided and free practice); and assessment of lesson. A good lesson plan describes procedures for student motivation and practice activities, and includes alternative ideas in case the lesson is not long enough or is too difficult. It also notes materials needed.

Lexis See "language content", and "vocabulary".

Listening See "language skills".

Look and say Also called the whole-word method, a method to teach reading to children, usually in their first language; has been adapted for second-language reading;

words are taught in association with visuals or objects; students must always say the word so the teacher can monitor and correct pronunciation.

Metalanguage Language used to describe, analyse or explain another language. Metalanguage includes, for example, grammatical terms and the rules of syntax. The term is sometimes used to mean the language used in class to give instructions, explain things, etc. – in essence, to refer to all teacher talk that does not specifically include the "target language".

Model/modelling To teach by example; for example, a teacher who wants students to do an activity may first demonstrate the activity, often with a student volunteer.

Motivation In language instruction, the desire to learn. See "TEFL vs. TESL".

Motivation paradox Students' main motivators are factors the teacher has little control over (integrated versus instrumental motivation, which heavily influence time on task), yet motivation is critical to learning.

Native speakers Those who speak the language in question as their mother tongue.

Needs assessment Measurement of what students need in order to learn language and achieve their language learning goals; also may

include consideration of the school syllabus.

Non-native speakers Those who speak the language in question as an additional language. The language in question is not their mother tongue.

Objectives Also called lesson objectives or aims; statements of student learning outcomes based on student needs; objectives state specifically what the students will be able to do in a specified time period; objectives are measurable and therefore involve specific and discrete language skills.

Oral Related to speaking.

Over-correction Correcting so much that students become reluctant to try out what they have learned.

Paradox of language acquisition The limited amount of comprehensible input that children receive is mathematically insufficient for them to determine grammatical principles, yet somehow they are still able to do so.

Passive vocabulary Vocabulary that students have heard and can understand, but do not necessarily use when they speak or write.

Passive Opposite of active; the false assumption that the language skills of reading and listening do not involve students in

doing anything but receiving information.

Peer correction Also known as peer review, peer editing, or peer feedback; in writing, an activity whereby students help each other with the editing of a composition by giving each other feedback, making comments or suggestions; can be done in pairs or small groups.

Phonemic awareness Awareness of the sounds of English and their correspondence to written forms.

Phonology See "language content".

Placement tests Tests used to place students in a specific language program; such tests should reflect program levels and expectations for students at each proficiency level offered by the language program.

Prescriptive grammar Grammar that is described in terms of grammar rules of what is considered the best usage, often by grammarians; prescriptive grammar may not agree with what people actually say or write.

Proficiency level Describes how well a student can use the language (often categorized as beginner, intermediate or advanced).

Proficiency tests General tests that provide overall information on a student's language proficiency level or ability; can be used to determine entry and exit levels of a

language program or to adjust the curriculum according to the abilities of the students.

Rapport Relationship, usually a harmonious one, established within a classroom between teacher and students and among students.

Realia Real or actual objects used as teaching aids to make learning more natural; can include forms, pictures, tickets, schedules, souvenirs, advertisements and articles from English magazines or newspapers, and so on.

Recycling or spiralling Sometimes called the cyclical approach; the purpose is to repeat language items throughout the syllabus; each time a language item is encountered more detail about it is added; this allows students to build on prior knowledge.

Register Level of formality in speech with others; register depends on the situation, location, topic discussed, and other factors.

Scan To read quickly for specific information; a reading stratagem.

Skim To read quickly for main idea or general information; a reading stratagem.

Social context The environment in which meanings are exchanged; can be analysed in terms of the field of discourse, which refers to

what is happening, including what is being talked about; the tenor of discourse, which refers to the participants taking part in the exchange of meaning, including who they are and their relationships with each other (for example, teacher and students); and the mode of discourse, which refers to what part the language is playing in the particular situation and what "channel" (writing, speaking or a combination of the two) is being used.

Sociolinguistics Aspects of culture that affect communication with others; examples: social class, education level, age, gender, ethnicity. Also, see "communicative competence".

Strategic competence See "communicative competence".

Student and teacher Teachers have eight roles in the classroom. They are authorities and sources of knowledge; entertainers; caregivers; role models; counsellors and sometimes friends; classroom disciplinarians; directors and managers; facilitators, coaches and guides. The most important person in the classroom is the student. The teacher's primary focus must be on effective ways to have the student practice using his or her language. Classes should be planned so they enable the student to use just a little more language than they are comfortable with. This is known as "i+1" – an idea

popularized by Stephen Krashen. This formula is short for "comprehensible input plus one." Comprehensible input is language the students can understand.

Student feedback Information solicited from students by the teacher to assess the effectiveness of the teaching-learning process.

Student-centred Also called learner-centred, a way of teaching that centres on the goals, needs, interests and existing knowledge of the students. Students actively participate in such classrooms and may even be involved in setting learning outcomes. Teachers in student-centred classrooms ask students for input on their goals, needs and interests and on what they know before providing them with study topics or answers to questions (for example, grammar rules). They may also ask students to generate (help produce) materials. The teacher is seen more as a facilitator or helper than the dominant figure in the classroom.

Structure See "language content".

Student-generated material Teaching material to which the students have made a major contribution; the language experience approach, for example, uses student-generated material.

Survey To quickly read the headlines, subheads, opening and closing paragraphs, photo

captions, pull quotes and other key materials in an article to get a sense of meaning; a reading stratagem.

Syllabus *or* curriculum The longer-term teaching plan; includes topics that will be covered and the order in which they will be covered in a course or program of studies.

Syntax Sometimes called word order; how words combine to form sentences and the rules governing sentence formation.

Tape script A written text which accompanies listening material; may be used to make cloze passages or for student review.

Task-based syllabus A syllabus organized around a sect of real, purposeful tasks that students are expected to carry out; tasks may include telephone use, making charts or maps, following instructions, and so on; task-based learning is purposeful and a natural way to learn language.

Teachable moments Times in a language class in which the teacher realizes that a point of information not in the lesson plan will help students understand a language point; teachable moments digress for a brief time from the lesson plan and can be valuable in helping student learning and keeping students engaged.

Teacher talk The language teachers use when teaching; involves simplifying speech

for students; it may be detrimental to learning if it is childish or not close to the natural production of the target language.

TEFL vs. TESL TEFL is an acronym for Teaching English as a Foreign Language; TESL, for Teaching English as a Second Language. See a fuller description at English language learning and teaching. TEFL **usually**takes place in non-English-speaking countries, while TESL takes place in the English-speaking world. When we speak of English as a foreign language (EFL), we are referring to the role of English for learners in a country where English is not spoken by the majority (what Braj Kachru calls the expanding circle). English as a second language (ESL) refers to the role of English for learners in an English-speaking country, i.e. usually immigrants. This difference is very important, because it strongly affects student motivation. In particular, it affects their motivation to learn. In non-English speaking countries, students have instrumental motivation, the desire to learn English to accomplish a goal. They may want to improve their job prospects, for example, or to speak to tourists. They 1. attend English classes with other non-native speakers 2. can find reasonable work without English; have less economic incentive to learn English. 3. do not need English in daily life 4. have both primary and secondary support-

networks that function in their native language 5. have fewer opportunities to practice using their English They are learning, and their instructors are teaching, English as a foreign language. In English-speaking countries, they have integrative motivation, the desire to learn the language to fit into an English-language culture. They are more likely to want to integrate because they 1. Generally have more friends and family with English language skills. 2. Have immediate financial and economic incentives to learn English. 3. Have more opportunities to practice English. 4. Need it in daily life; often require it for work. 5. Often attend English classes with students who speak a wide range of mother tongues. They are learning, and their instructors are teaching, English as a second language.

Technique A way of presenting language.

Thematic syllabus Syllabus based on themes or topics of interest to the students.

Top-down information processing Students learn partially through top-down information processing, or processing based on how students make sense of language input – for example, through using students' previous knowledge or schema.

Uninterrupted sustained silent writing A technique in writing whereby a specified, relatively short period of time is set aside in class for students to practice

their writing without being interrupted. This helps build writing fluency.

Vocabulary, *importance of* Core vocabulary (the most common 2,000-3,000 English words) needs to be heavily stressed in language teaching. There is no point in presenting exotic vocabulary until students have mastered basic, high-frequency words. Learners should be tested on high-frequency word lists for passive knowledge, active production and listening comprehension. Learners cannot comprehend or speak at a high level without these words as a foundation. Learners need to spend time practicing these words until they are automatic; this is known as building automaticity. Since there is often not enough class time for much word practice, teachers need to present their students with strategies for developing automaticity outside the classroom.

Vocabulary-based syllabus Syllabus built around vocabulary; often associated with the grammatical syllabus and the grammar translation method.

Worksheets Teacher-developed, paper-based activities to help students comprehend, use, and learn language; can be used in association with all skill levels and in individual and group work.

TESTS

Please, circle correct answer.

1. What does the lexical approach include?
a) Multi-word prefabricated chunks
b) Only grammar rules
c) Vocabulary and listening
d) a,b,c,

2. What does the basic principles of lexical approach?
a)Grammar
b) Lexis
c)Subservient managerial role
d) a,b,c

3. In which activity students are encouraged to act out roles of people in different spheres of society?
a)Jig saw activities
b) Fish bowl
c)Information gap
d) Role play

4. In which method students may create their own story and draw several sequential pictures that describe story?
a)Interviews
b) Story forming
c)Story narrating through the pictures
d) Brain storming

5. In which method well known for its common use of small colored rods of varying length and color coded word charts depicting pronunciation values, vocabulary and grammatical paradigms(Fidel Chart, Word Chart, Sound Color Charts) and concentrates on cognitive principles in language learning?
a)The Silent way

b) Suggestopedia
c)Grammar Translation Method
d) Audio-lingual Method

6. What is the aim of pedagogical technology?
a)To increase efficiency of learning process
b) To project learning process
c)To achieve high result in short time and with less effort
d) To have innovative approach to education

7. The meaning of "Technology"
a)Art, competence efficiency
b) Techniques
c)Project
d) Lesson plan

8. What type of pedagogical technology is rating technology?
a)Private
b) General
c)Local
d) Productive

9. What kind of organizer is "T" scheme?
a)Analyzing
b) Problematic
c)Notion
d) Directed to think

10. What kind of organizer is "SWOT" table?
a)Comparative
b) Analyzing
c)Problematic
d) Notion

11. What kind of organizer is "BBB" technology?

a)Analyzing
b) Problematic
c)working with the text
d) comparative

12. The meaning of "Sinkwein"

a)Link
b) Scheme
c)Table
d) 5th

13. What controlling types of pedagogical technologies do you know?

a)Controlling which requires short time
b) Independent work
c)Written
d) Oral

14. What is method?

a)a series of related and progressive acts performed by a teacher and students to achieve the objective of the lesson.
b) the personal art and style of the teacher in carrying out the procedure of teaching
c)set of decisions to achieve an objective that results in plan.
d) set of decisions to achieve an objective that results in plan projects

15. What is technique?

a)a series of related and progressive acts performed by a teacher and students to achieve the objective of the lesson
b) the personal art and style of the teacher in carrying out the procedure of teaching.
c)one's viewpoint toward teaching
d) set of decisions to achieve an objective that results in plan.

16. What is strategy?

a)set of decisions to achieve an objective that results in plan
b) a series of related and progressive acts performed by a teacher and students to achieve the objective of the lesson
c)the personal art and style of the teacher in carrying out the procedure of teaching
d) one's viewpoint toward teaching

17. What is approach?

a)set of decisions to achieve an objective that results in plan
b) one's viewpoint toward teaching
c)the personal art and style of the teacher in carrying out the procedure of teaching
d) a series of related and progressive acts performed by a teacher and students to achieve the objective of the lesson

18. How many types of learning styles?

a)4
b) 5
c)7
d) 2

19. *What are visual* learners based on?

a)It is based on the idea of the positioning of items and they are often seen as "daydreamers"
b) It is based on the easiest style
c)It is based upon the idea
d) It is based on copying or re-copying

20. What are auditory learners based on?

a)It is based on the idea of the positioning of items and they are often seen as "daydreamers"
b) It is based upon the idea
c)It is based on learners who do better by hearing and seeing new materials
d) It is based on copying or re-copying

21. What language is used in grammar translation method?

a)Native language
b) Target language
c)Both of them
d) A and B

22. This is the most important aspect of language. It consists of individual words and different kinds of chunks such as collocations, idioms, fixed expressions. What is being described?

a) grammar
b) vocabulary
c) speaking
d) phonology

23. The ….. focuses on grammatical structures or functions.

a) lesson plan
b) syllabus
c) syllabi
d) curriculum

24. Lessons move from the presentation stage to the practice stage to the ….. stage.

a) performance
b) producing
c) production
d) conclusion

25. Which stage of the lesson do situational presentations and miming belong?

a) presentation stage
b) practice stage
c) production stage
d) no correct answer

26. Which stage of the lesson do drills belong?

a) presentation stage
b) controlled practice stage
c) production stage
d) no correct answer

27. Which stage of the lesson do role-plays and information-gap activities belong?

a) presentation stage
b) controlled practice stage
c) production stage
d) no correct answer

28. Which method described? – Studying grammatical rules presented through grammatical terms, then applying them in exercises; Working out what language means by applying rules; Learning lists of words by heart; Translating texts and/or isolated sentences from LI to L2 or vice versa; Emphasis on grammatical accuracy.

a) grammar-translation method
b) TPR (Total physical response)
c) CLIL (content and language integrated learning)
d) CLT (communicative language teaching)

29. Which method described? – Learners learn by being exposed to language. Comprehension comes before production. Learners often need a silent period (a period of time during which learners hear language rather than produce it, as babies do) to take in language, so they should not be forced to speak before they are ready. Language is learnt best when it is accompanied by doing things physically. Learning takes place when learners are relaxed.

a) suggestopedia
b) content and language integrated learning
c) total physical response
d) silent method

30. Which method is being described? – The syllabus focuses on grammar, lexis, functions or skills. Used mainly in primary and secondary schools. Language is presented through topics related to school subjects or learning about the world.

a) content-based learning
b) content and language integrated learning
c) task-based learning
d) silent method

31. Which method is being described? – The syllabus is based round learning about the subject matter and cognitive (thinking and learning) skills related to a school subject, e.g. maths, history, art. The school subject is taught in the L2 (L3/L4). The specific kinds of language learnt are the language needed for learning about the subject. Lessons focus on the subject rather than on language.

a) content-based learning
b) content and language integrated learning
c) task-based learning
d) silent method

32. Which statement doesn't belong to Total Physical Response (TPR)?

a) Students hear dialogues then repeat them.
b) Students focus on understanding before speaking.
c) Students move round the classroom to carry out instructions.

33. Which statement doesn't belong to Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

a) The teacher focuses on developing learners' cognitive skills.
b) Students often do activities that focus on language accuracy.
c) Language is used to communicate about school subjects.

34. Which statement doesn't belong to Lexical Approach (Lewiss)

a) Grammar is less important than vocabulary.
b) Each vocabulary item must be learnt by heart.
c) Students need to become aware of chunks of vocabulary.

35. Which statement doesn't belong to Presentation, Practice and Production (PPP)?

a) Teachers need to focus learners' attention on new target language.
b) Students need opportunities to get language right before they experiment.
c) Students always start learning a new piece of language by doing a task.

36. Which statement doesn't belong to Grammar-Translation method?

a) Language must be analysed in order to learn it.
b) Drills and pattern practice help us learn structures.
c) Exercises help us understand rules.

37. Which statement doesn't belong to Task-based Learning (TBL)

a) Tasks must be done after students have practised target language.
b) The teacher does not control the language that students use in tasks.
c) Tasks aim to show students what language they need to learn

38. .... are often used to raise students' energy levels or to make them feel comfortable before the main learning of the lesson starts. They are not always connected to the topic of the lesson; for example, they could be a quiz, game or pairwork activity.

a) lead-ins
b) warmers

c) ice-breakers

39..... introduce the content of the lesson. Their aim is to focus and motivate students and make a link between the topic of the *lesson* and the students' own lives (personalization).

a) lead-ins
b) warmers
c) ice-breakers

40. The aim of ..... is for students to get to know one another so that they all feel comfortable with each other in the class.

a) lead-ins
b) warmers
c) ice-breakers

41. Which questions in below statements about presentation techniques and introductory activities belong to *concept questions?*

a) The teacher asks the students to repeat the target questions after her.

b) The teacher asks the students *Am I talking about something definite or something possible?*

c) The teacher puts quiz questions on the board and asks the students to answer them in pairs.

42. Which statements below about presentation techniques and introductory activities belong to *a situational presentation?*

a) The teacher tells the students about something that happened to her one day at school.

b) The teacher asks the students to present their group's ideas to the class.

c) The teacher plays a recording then the students do a comprehension task on it.

43. Which statements below about presentation techniques and introductory activities belong to *modeling?*

a) Two students demonstrate to the rest of the class how their design works.

b) The students copy the target language from their exercise books into their vocabulary records.

c) The students listen to the target language on the recording then say it themselves.

44. Which statements below about introductory activities belong to *a lead-in?*

a) The teacher starts the class by doing some revision before teaching some new language.

b) The teacher chats to the class about what they did last weekend before playing them a song to listen to and then sing.

c) The class describe pictures of capital cities before listening to a recording on visiting different cities.

45. Which statements *focus on form?*

a) The teacher explains the meaning of the new vocabulary by using synonyms.

b) The teacher elicits the spelling of some new words then writes them on the board.

c) The teacher mimes something she can do and something she can't do.

46. Which statement defines *contextualization?*

a) The teacher gives the students a history quiz then uses this to introduce the past tense.

b) The teacher explains to students that you use *should* to give someone advice.

c) The teacher asks the students to discuss their favourite sport then corrects their mistakes.

47. Which activity does NOT give learners controlled pronunciation practice?

a) listening to words and ticking the ones you hear

b) saying a list of words all containing the same problem phoneme

c) repeating sentences and beating their rhythm at the same time

48. Which activities do NOT develop interactive speaking skills?

a) role-plays

b) information-gap

c) substitution drills

49. Which activities do NOT involve an information gap?

a) true/false questions

b) surveys

c) problem solving

50. Which activities do NOT allow learners to use the language they want?

a) project work

b) controlled practice activities

c) communicative activities

KEYS

1 – a	11 – c	21 – a	31 – b	41 – b
2 – b	12 – d	22 – b	32 – a	42 – a
3 – d	13 – a	23 – b	33 – b	43 – c
4 – c	14 – a	24 – c	34 – b	44 – c
5 – a	15 – b	25 – a	35 – c	45 – b
6 – c	16 – a	26 – b	36 – b	46 – a
7 – a	17 – b	27 – c	37 – a	47 – a
8 – b	18 – a	28 – a	38 – b	48 – c
9 – a	19 – a	29 – c	39 – a	49 – a
10 – b	20 – c	30 - a	40 – c	50 – b

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