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TITLE:

INCIDENCE OF INTERACTIVE TEACHING METHODOLOGIES IN THE ENGLISH CLASSROOM FOR IMPROVING COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS IN THE STUDENTS OF SECOND YEAR OF "EMILIANO ORTEGA ESPINOZA SCHOOL IN THE PERIOD MAY – JULY 2007)

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DEDICATION:

I want to dedicate and offer this work to God and my mother Rosita, who has been the most important person in my life. To my God, because He has been my guide and my great help during the process of achievement of my thesis, without leaving me in the most difficult moments that have spent in this time, and my mother who helped me to develop the research project outline, She was the one that motivated me for going on, I promised her to graduate as English teacher, to accomplish this is the duty I really want now that she is in heaven. I just want to thank my father for his important support for finishing this important work.

APROVAL SHEET:

Lic. Marcos Morales director and Lic. Sonia Basantes co director are pleased to certificate that the Research Project under the title "**Incidence Of Interactive Teaching Methodologies In The English Classroom For Improving Communicative Skills in the Students of Second Year Of "Emiliano Ortega Espinoza School In The Period May – July 2007)"** developed by Sandra Jimena Morillo Chamba who has finished all the subjects in Applied Linguistics in the English Program of the Army Polytechnic School, has been studied and verified in all its parts, and performed under our guidance and supervision, so its presentation and oral sustaining, are authorized on the correspondent university instance.

_____   _____
Lic. Marcos Morales   Lic. Sonia Basantes
Thesis Director   **Thesis Co-director**

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INTRODUCTION

This research is intended to highlight focus on "**Incidence of Interactive Teaching Methodologies In the English Classroom for Improving Communicative Skills**"
.   It will help us to understand and to prove at the same time the important academic achievements gotten with ongoing training, interactive techniques and methods in order to improve the four skills: Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing to an excellent learning of the English language.

During the development of this project, I have came working with two groups of students of the second year, at the "Emiliano Ortega Espinoza School", the one experimental group and the second control group, six months ago, the 3 first months began to encourage to the students for working through by expositions, role- plays, games, debates and other activities, but during last three months May-July began to evaluate between two groups of the students, where the results let me prove that interactive Teaching in the classroom applying the four skills have a positive influence in the group experimental, who were using this interactive teaching program, at beginning was difficult for them, but then the interactive teaching classroom was very funny and amazing for them. Because They enjoyed with all the activities applied during the last 3 months.

One becomes a teacher by loving the students and the subject by reading extensively in the field, as well as through trial and error, sweat and tears.
All of us know that teaching is not easy task , in fact, we as teachers sometimes find it difficult to reach our students and make them understand what we are explaining or what we have explained. On the other hand, all of us have variety of experiences in our teaching life, these experiences are sometimes very good, but some are not so good, and make us feel as if we were not doing the things right. All of us know that there are different kinds of groups, and definitively, this makes our experiences not be the same all times. I think that maybe this is what makes teaching a challenging task.

As we can see new trends have influenced too much for the language teaching to improve, and we as teachers need to know or at least have and idea on how those changes have been produced and the bases under which those changes have been done, besides that, it is good for us to know some hints of how experts think language must be taught.

Finally, I feel proud that my research ended successfully, all my dear students collaborated of the best manner, Therefore authorities of this institution congratulated me for this work. and at the same time, it will help me into my professional life for taking in consideration all the knowledge acquired during the development of this research for the teaching/learning process of my students.

PART ONE
RESEARCH PROBLEM

"Language teaching is an art in the hands of enthusiastic, competent, caring teachers, but it must also become a respected science in its own right". (**Mary Finocchiaro**).

1 RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.1 Problem Identification:

Nowadays, learning to speak a foreign language is very important in our country. Many companies look for professional people who know to speak English and other languages. All the schools must have English Teachers, but the learning of the students is very different, because there are private and public schools. The educational system in private schools generally is better, the students learn more than the students in public schools, because, private schools have all the materials (textbook) and necessary equipment (English laboratory) to teach students in a better way.

In my case, I am a teacher who work in a public school, where our system of teaching English is through a text approved by Education Ministry (Our World Trough English), this book is very interesting for me, the contents let the students to develop the four skills, nevertheless, for me is not very easy to apply the listening exercises, because we do not have a laboratory where the learners can practice listening to improve pronunciation and vocabulary, in order for the students to have to a good communication practice (speaking and fluency), with other people.

1.2 Problem setting:

One of the main problems in the students **is the lower performance of communication with the teacher**. **(speaking, oral production and vocabulary).** In my case, my role as teacher is very strong, because I am a protagonist in the classroom, the students only repeat after me what I say. When the teacher asks questions to the students, they have many difficulties to answer the questions. Therefore I consider this situation a serious problem in the learning of the students that is why I decided to choose this interesting research topic, to improve to full learning of the English in the students, specially oral communication.

It is very important for me to look for solutions to this problem to improve the level of English learning of the students of second year of the school "Emiliano Ortega Espinosa".

1.3 Variables working out:

Independent variable   –   interactive teaching methodologies.
Dependent variable   _   improving communicative skills

1.4 Objectives

1.4.1 General:

- ✓ To encourage to the students to develop their own strategies and motivate them to construct meaning through genuine linguistic interaction with the teacher.

- ✓ To improve the methodologies used in the classroom.

1.4.2 Specific:

- ✓ To create a positive atmosphere in the classroom to encourage students to try out language to venture a response, to the teacher easily and not to wait for someone else to volunteer language.

- ✓ To encourage students use the spoken language in the class by using interesting topics.

- ✓ To determine the fluency level, observing pronunciation in the speaking of the students.

- ✓ To develop the interest for learning a foreign language

1.5 Justification:

Many teachers, continue their professional march trough history, The methodology applied by school teachers is traditional the students do tasks and repeat words after the teacher, but I think that teachers should motivate to the students to develop their speaking (oral communication), many students have problems in communication when the teacher ask questions to the students, they have some difficulties in answering the questions. I want to probe the nature of social, cultural, and pragmatic features of language, exploring pedagogical means for real life communication with the students in the classroom. To try to get that learners to develop linguistic fluency, not just the accuracy, but it is important for the students to learn to speak.
Equipping our students with tools for generating unrehearsed language performance out there, when they leave the womb of our classroom. I am concerned with how to facilitate lifelong language learning among our students, not just with the immediate classroom task. I am looking to learners as partners in cooperative venture. And our classroom practices seek to draw on whatever intrinsically sparks learners to reach their fullest potential.

The absence of clear or appropriate goals in education is bad for both teachers and learners. At school, children and adolescents often seem to be required to study Mathematic, History or English only because these subjects are on the official curriculum and there are tests to pass. This can have a very negative effect on the learners attitude toward these subjects. The clear definition of appropriate goals is vital to successful English language teaching and learning.

Unfortunately, not everyone recognizes real success in English language learning. Some teachers and learners do not look beyond the grammar and vocabulary currently being practiced, or the next test. Also, the long-term goals of teaching are not always explicit in courses syllabuses. In fact, course syllabuses, materials, and tests sometimes seem to present only a sequence of a short-term objectives. Although short-term objectives are important in giving learners and teachers a feeling of making progress, it is important never to loose sight of the overall long term goal of English language teaching. To enable learners to communicate effectively, and as far as possible accurately, in English.

English is taught as a foreign language in very different contexts around the world – to schoolchildren and working adults , in small and large groups, for three hours or ten hours a week

Ideally, the goal of most English language would be like that in:

To develop a general command of real English for use outside the classroom. If learners can communicate effectively when **hearing, reading, speaking and writing "real English",** they will manage in almost any English language situation they meet outside the classroom. But, in many contexts, factors such as the shortage of time or the large number of learners in a class make this goal seem difficult or impossible to reach. When time is short, one common response is to limit the goal to what is considered most important for learners.

This theme of research is to give benefits to the students in this case to students of second year of "Emiliano Ortega School leaving, when they decide to go to the university to manage the English language without any problem, it also would be a great benefit for the institution, because the level of education would improve too much. Even more, I think that successful teachers and the institutions where they teach may differ in many ways:
For example: in teachers with experience, training and level of English, or the size of class hours, of class per week, and the methodology and material used. However successful teachers tend to have certain things in common. They usually have a practical command of English, not just a knowledge of grammar rules. Use English most of the time in every class, including beginners classes. Think mostly in terms of learner practice, not teacher explanations. Find time for really communicative activities, not just practice of language forms. Focus their teaching on learners needs, not just on finishing the syllabus or course book.
A teacher's development of command of English should be a life-long hobby as well as a professional obligation. Of course; a knowledge of the rules and terminology of English grammar and vocabulary is also useful. But teaching, especially language teaching, if teachers follow this means that their learners constantly experience the real communicative use of English. It increases their exposure to the language through listening comprehension, and gives them opportunities to speak English.

Finally I hope to accomplish with all the formulated objectives during the period of time of experimentation with the students.

PART TWO
THEORETICAL FRAME

"The Object of Education is to prepare the young to educate themselves throughout their lives". **(Robert Maynard)**

2 THEORETICAL FRAME

In the chapters, that will be detailed in the theoretical frame there are topic that are focused with the learning of interactive teaching to the students. This will let us build some tools for creating effective interactive classrooms.

Thus, to accomplish all established objectives one first step would be to stimulate to them, to further communication, is crucial to the success of interactive techniques. We now turn to the intricate process of managing what has come to be a hallmark of interactive language teaching: group work.

2.1 Theoretical and Conceptual Focus:

As I said previously that one of the main problems in the students **is the lower performance of the students in communication with the teacher**. **(speaking, oral production and vocabulary).** I have considered this situation as a serious problem in the learning of the students, They feel afraid when listening to teacher speak and give a class only in English, many times the time class is too boring for them . The students lose interest and even are discouraged.

Nevertheless, the teacher is the person who should look for some strategies, to motivate to the students to develop their own skills.

The first thing to realize about interactive teaching is that it is not something new or mysterious. Some teachers applied this method to the students. Teachers ask questions in class, assign and check homework, or hold class or group discussions. The most important key to creating an interactive language classroom is the initiation of interaction by the teacher.

One of the best ways to develop your role as an initiator and sustainer of interaction is to develop a repertoire of questioning strategies. In second language classrooms, where learners often do not have a great number of tools for initiating and maintaining language, your questions provide necessary stepping stones to communication.

Teacher questions give students the impetus and opportunity to produce language conformably without having to risk initiating language themselves. It is very scary for students to initiate conversation or topics for discussion. Appropriately pitched questions can give more reticent students an affective "green light" and a structured opportunity to communicate in their second language.

Teacher questions can serve to initiate a chain reaction of student interaction among themselves. One question may be all that is needed to start a discussion; without the initial question, however, students will be reluctant to initiate the process.

Teacher questions give the instructor immediate feedback about student comprehension After posing questions, a teacher can use the student response to diagnose linguistic or content difficulties. Grammatical or phonological problem areas for example may be exposed through the student's response and give the teacher some specific information about what to treat.

Teacher questions provide students with opportunities to find out what they think by hearing what they say. As they are nudged into responding to questions about say, a reading or a film, they can discover what their own opinions and reactions are. This self-discovery can be especially useful for a prewriting activity.

There are many ways to classify what kinds of questions are effective in the classroom. Perhaps the simplest way to conceptualize the possibilities is to think of a range of questions, beginning with display questions that attempt to elicit information already known by the questioner; sometimes responses to the latter involve judgment about facts that are not clear or a statement of values. All of these types of questions have their place in the interactive classroom. Even those that are more on the display end of the continuum are very useful in eliciting both content and language from students. Usually, the higher the proficiency level you teach, the more you can venture into the upper, referential end of the continuum. Asking a lot of questions in your classroom will not by any means guarantee stimulation of interaction. Certain types of questions mar actually discourage interactive learning.

Other teacher strategies that promote interaction are pair work and group work give rise to interaction. Giving directions (open your books, Do the following exercise), can stimulate interaction. Organization language (Get into small groups) is important. Reacting to students (praise, recognition, or a simple "Uh-huh") can not be dispensed with. Responding genuinely to student – initiated questions is essential.

Encouraging students to develop their own strategies is an excellent means of stimulating the learner to develop tools of interaction. Even "lecturing" and other forms of orally providing information and having students read texts are part of the process of creating and maintaining an interactive classroom.

2.2 Structure

CHAPTER ONE
INTERACTIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING I: INITIATING INTERACTION

The interactive aspect focuses on face to face, direct communication, especially   concentrating on conversation but also taking into account other types of communication   such as interviews, narrations and the formulation of questions. **(Microsoft Encarta 2007)**

As I said previously one of the main problems of students **is low performance in communication with the teacher**. **(oral production and vocabulary).** I have considered then this situation as a serious problem in the learning process, They feel afraid when   listen to the teacher speak and give a class only in English. Many times the class period is   too boring   for   them . The students lose interest and even are discouraged.
Nevertheless, the teacher is the person who should looking for some strategies, to motivate students and make them to become interested, its developing their own skills.

1.1 WHAT IS INTERACTION?

According to **Douglas Brown, in Teaching by Principles (2001),** Interaction is the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings, or ideas between two or more people, resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other. Through interaction students can increase their language store as they listen to or read authentic linguistic material, or even the output of their follow students in discussions, skits. Joint problem solving tasks or dialogue journals.
In interaction students can use all they posses of the language, all they have learned or casually absorbed in real life exchanges. Even at an elementary stage, they learn in this way to exploit the clasticity of language.

Follow **(Dr. Louis Abrahamson),** The first thing to realize about interactive teaching is that it is not something new or mysterious. If you are a teacher and you ask questions in class, assign and check homework, or hold class or group discussions, then you already teach interactively. Basically then (in my book), interactive teaching is just giving students something to do, getting back what they have done, and then assimilating it yourself, so that you can decide what would be best to do next.
But, almost all teachers do these things, so is there more to it? To answer this question, one has to step away from teaching and think about learning.

Over the last twenty years, the field of cognitive science has taught us a lot about how people learn. A central principle that has been generally accepted is that everything we learn, we "construct" for ourselves. That is, any outside agent is essentially powerless to have a direct effect on what we learn. If our brain does not do it itself, - that is, take in information, look for .connections, interpret and make sense of it, - no outside force will have any effect. This does not mean that the effort has to be expressly voluntary and conscious on our parts. Our brains take-in information and operate continuously on many kinds of levels, only some of which are consciously directed. But, conscious or not, the important thing to understand is that it is our brains that are doing the learning, and that this process is only indirectly related to the teacher and the teaching.

For example, even the most lucid and brilliant exposition of a subject by a teacher in a lecture, may result in limited learning if the students' brains do not do the necessary work to process it. There are several possible causes why students' learning may fall short of expectations in such a situation.

They may,

- not understand a crucial concept partway into the lecture and so what follows is unintelligible,

- be missing prior information or not have a good understanding of what went before, so the conceptual structures on which the lecture is based are absent,

- lack the interest, motivation, or desire to expend the mental effort to follow the presentation, understand the arguments, make sense of the positions, and validate the inferences.

However, whatever the cause, without interacting with the students (in the simplest case by asking questions), a teacher has no way to know if his/her efforts to explain the topic were successful.

This brings me to the first of (what I believe are) three distinct reasons for interactive teaching. It is an attempt to see what actually exists in the brains of your students. This is the **"summative"** aspect. It is the easiest aspect to understand and it is well described in the literature. But, it is far from being the only perspective! The second reason is **"formative"**, where the teacher aims through the assigned task to direct students' mental processing along an appropriate path in "concept-space". The intent is that, as students think through the issues necessary in traversing the path, the resulting mental construction that is developed in the student's head will possess those properties that the teacher is trying to teach. As Socrates discovered, a good question can accomplish this result better than, just telling the answer. The third may be termed **"motivational".** Learning is hard work, and an injection of motivation at the right moment can make all the difference. One motivating factor provided by the interactive teacher is the requirement of a response to a live classroom task. This serves to jolt the student into action, to get his brain off the couch, so to speak. Additional more subtle and pleasant events follow immediately capitalizing on the momentum created by this initial burst. One of these is a result of our human social tendencies. When teachers ask students to work together in small groups to solve a problem, a discussion ensues that not only serves in itself to build more robust knowledge structures, but also to motivate.

The anticipation of immediate feedback in the form of reaction from their peers, or from the teacher is a very strong motivator. If it is not embarrassing or threatening, students want to know desperately whether their understanding is progressing or just drifting aimlessly in concept space. Knowing that they are not allowed to drift too far off track provides tremendous energy to continue.

1.2 INTERACTIVE PRINCIPLES

H. Douglas Brown, Master in Tesol (Vermount, U.S.A), has formulated twelve principles of Language Teaching which are said to comprise some of the major foundation stores for teaching practice. They have been classified in three categories:

- Cognitive Principles
- Affective Principles
- Linguistic Principles

The Interactive Principles of Language Learning and Teaching are very necessaries and produce a complex storehouse of information on second language acquisition and teaching. Therefore is the best strategy apply in a second language in the classroom.

Applying principles of language learning and teaching can perceive and internalize connections between practice (choices you make in the classroom) and theory (principles derived from research), your teaching is likely to be enlightened. You will be better able to see why you have chosen to use a particular classroom technique (or set of techniques), to carry it out with confidence, and to evaluate its utility after tact.

Cognitive Principles:
We will call the first set of principles cognitive, because they relate mainly to mental and intellectual functions.

Principle 1: Automaticity
The principle of **automaticity** may be stated as efficient second language learning involves a timely movement of the control of a few language forms into the automatic processing of comparatively unlimited number of language forms. Then analyze the language refers to the original forms and consciously are applied with the rules of language that explain your own patterns.

What does this principle, which ordinarily applies to adult instruction mean to you as a teacher? Here are some possibilities:

- ✓ Because classroom learning normally begins with controlled, focal processing, there is no mandate to entirely avoid overt attention to language systems (grammar, phonology, discourse, etc). That attention, however should stop well short of blocking students from achieving a more automatic, fluent grasp of the language.

- ✓ Make sure that a large proportion of your lessons are focused on the use of language for purposes that are as genuine as a classroom context will

permit. Students will gain more language competence in the long run if the functional purposes of language are the focal point.

✓ Automaticity isn't gained overnight, therefore, you need to exercise patience with students as you slowly help them to achieve fluency.

The process of learning a language subconsciously while being exposed to it and using it in communication is generally referred to as language acquisition.

We sometimes notice things about the grammar or vocabulary of a language simply when using it for listening; reading, speaking or writing. Some people are better at this than others. We also become aware of features of language when consciously learning it, for example, doing grammar work. This may be in class with a teacher, in the library, or at home with study materials and reference books. Conscious learning seems to be useful for adolescents and adults. They benefit mostly from repetition, for example chanting and singing and communicative practice, for example, stories and games. Through an inductive process of exposure to language input and opportunity to experiment with output, they appear to learn languages without thinking about them.

According to **Barry McLaughlin (McLaughlin et. Al 1983),** called automatic processing with peripheral attention to language forms. That is, in order to manage the incredible complexity and quantity of language the vast numbers of bits of information both adults and children must sooner or later move away from processing language unit by unit, piece by piece, closely on each and graduate to a form of high speed, automatic processing in which language forms (words, affixes, word order, roles, etc), are only on the periphery attention.

Principle 2: Meaningful Learning

Meaningful learning deals with new information into exciting structures and memory systems and as the result from associative links that create better assumption of the language. In addition, this principle applies the rote learning taking in bits and pieces of information that are not connected with one's cognitive structures and this as consequence has little chance of creating long – term-retention.

Some classroom implications of the Principle of Meaningful Learning:

1. Capitalize on the power of meaningful learning by appealing to students interests, academic goals, and career goals,

2. Whenever a new topic or concept is introduced, attempt to anchor it in students existing knowledge and background so that it becomes associated with something they already know.

3. Avoid the pitfalls of rote learning:

   • Too much grammar explanation

   • Too many abstract principles and theories

- Too much drilling and /or memorization

- Activities whose purpose are not clear.

- Activities that do not contribute to accomplishing the goals of the lesson, unit, or course.

- Techniques that are so mechanical or tricky that Ss focus on the mechanics instead of on the language or meanings.

Principle 3: The Anticipation of Reward

Human beings are universally driven to act, or behave, by the anticipation of some sort of reward tangible or intangible, short term or long term that will ensue as a result of the behavior.

The implications for the classrooms are obvious. At one end of the spectrum, you can perceive the importance of the immediate administration of such rewards as praise for correct responses **(very good Maria, Nice job!)**, appropriate grades or scores to indicate success, or other public recognition. At the other end, it behooves you to help students to see clearly why they are doing something and its relevance to their long term goals in learning English. On the other hand, a reward driven, conditioning theory of Learning has some shortcomings that ultimately have a high impact on classroom instruction.

Considering all sides of the Reward Principle, the following constructive classroom implications may be drawn:

1. Provide an optimal degree of immediate verbal praise and encouragement to them as a form of short-term reward (just enough to keep them confident in their ability but not so much that your praise simply becomes verbal gush).

2. Encourage students to reward each other with compliments and supportive action.

3. In classes with very low motivation, short-term reminders of progress may help students to perceive their development. Gold stars and stickers (especially for young learners), issuing certain privileges for good work, and progress charts and graphs may spark some interest.

4. Display enthusiasm and excitement yourself in the classroom. If you are dull, lifeless, bored, and have low energy, you can be almost sure that it will be contagious.

5. Try to get learners to see the long- term rewards in Learning English by pointing out what they can do with English where they live and around the world, the prestige in being able to use English, the academic benefits of knowing English, jobs that require English and so on.

Principle 4:   Intrinsic Motivation

The most powerful rewards are those that are intrinsically motivated within the learner. Because the behavior systems from needs, wants, or desires within oneself, the behavior itself is self –rewarding, therefore, no externally administered reward is necessary.

If all learners were intrinsically motivated to perform all classroom tasks, we might not even need teachers. But you can perform a great service to learners and to the overall learning process by first considering carefully the intrinsic motives of your students and then by designing classroom tasks that feed into those intrinsic drives. Classroom techniques have a much greater chance for success if they are self-rewarding in the perception of the learner. The learners perform the task because it is fun, interesting, useful, or challenging, and not because they anticipate some cognitive or affective rewards from the teacher.

The development   of intrinsic motivation does indeed involve affective processing as most of these first five principles do, and so the argument is appropriate. But reward directed behavior in all organisms is complex to the point that cognitive physical, and affective processing are all involved. In the specific case of second language acquisition mental functions, may actually occupy a greater proportion of the whole than the other two domains.

Most teachers consider motivation essential for successful language learning. However motivation is difficult to define and measure.
Are all learners motivated by worth while goals and clear objectives, the constant use of English in the classroom, a variety of activities and interactions, and sensitive handling of errors and hesitations?.
Our assumption has been that they are. But we recognize that motivation is a complex phenomenon, are not all learners respond to teaching in the same way.

Certain aspects motivation may be beyond our influence. But be sure that appropriate goals and objectives can give direction and the will to work in other words to improve motivation. And any success in real communication can motivate. Worthwhile and achievable short-term objectives can give the learners satisfaction and a sense of success as they work towards the main goal of their course.

Even the most carefully planned activities will normally motivate learners only if they are related to their interests, needs and aspirations. You should try to find out what these are and plan a lesson accordingly. For example, teenage learners may want some work on communicating in English via the internet, or activities using popular songs. It is a good idea to consult with your learners about topics and activities and get them to bring to class materials they are interested in:

Topics can be as rich source of motivation. In the English language classroom. There are topics of personal interest, for example, music, films, cars, computers, the internet pets and sports.

Personalities and relationships are important for motivation. Your personality is bound to appeal to some learners more than others. You can not totally change yourself. But you can modify or develop some things. For example, you can use

the learners names and show a personal interest in them, and take care to behave in a fair way towards all learners alike. You can also educate yourself in topics that interest your learners, for example, pop music and films for teenagers, new cars and technical development for mechanics, etc.

Although, ideally, learners should be motivated by an awareness of their own progress, many will rely mostly on your feedback. It can be very motivating for them if you tell them clearly what you are pleased with their effort and progress. It may even be a wonderful surprise after frequent expressions of dissatisfaction from previous teachers.

Principle 5:   <u>Strategic Investment</u>
Successful mastery of the second language will be due to a large extent to a learners own personal investment of time, effort and attention to the second language in the form of an individualized battery of strategies for comprehension and producing the language.

As research on successful language learners has dramatically shown, the variation among learners poses a thorny pedagogical dilemma. Learning styles alone signal numerous learner preferences that a teacher needs to attend to.
For example: visual   vs. auditory preference and individual   vs. group work preference are highly significant factors in a classroom.

A variety of techniques in your lessons will at least partially ensure that you will reach a maximum number of students. So you will choose a mixture of group work and individual work, of visual and auditory techniques, of easy and difficult exercises.
Beware, however, of variety at the expense of techniques that you know are essential for the learner. If for example, you know that three- quarters of your class prefers individual work, that should not dictate the proportion of time you devote to activities that involve silent work at their desks. They may need to be nudged, if not pushed, into more face-to-face communicative activities than their preferences would indicate.

A teacher's greatest dilemma is how to attend to each individual student in a class while still reaching the class as a whole group. In relatively large classes of 30 to 50 students, individual attention becomes increasingly difficult in extra-large classes it is virtually impossible. The principle of strategic investment nevertheless is a reminder to provide as much attention as you can to each individual student.

Affective Principles:
In these principles focus our attention, they are characterized by a large proportion of emotional involvement. Here we look at feelings about self, about relationships in a community of learners and about the emotional ties between language. and culture.

Principle 6:   <u>Language Ego</u>
As human beings learn to use a second language, they also develop a new mode of thinking, feeling and acting a second identity. The new language ego, intertwined with the second language, can easily create within the learner a sense of fragility, a defensiveness, and a raising of inhibitions.

The Language Ego Principle might also be affectionately called the warm and fuzzy principle: all second language learners need to be treated with affective tender loving care. Remember when you were first learning a second language and how you sometimes felt silly, if not humiliated, when the lack of words or

structure left you helpless in face to face communication?. Otherwise highly intelligent adults can be reduced to babbling infants in a second language. Learners feel this fragility because the strategic arsenals of their native language based egos, which are normally well developed and resistant to attack, are suddenly in the perception of the learner obsolete. Now they must fend for their emotional selves with a paltry linguistic battery that leaves them with a feeling of total defenselessness.

How can you bring some relief to this situation and provide affective support? Here are some possibilities:

1. Overtly display a supportive attitude to your students. While some learners may feel quite stupid in this new language, remember that they are capable adults struggling with the acquisition of the most complex set of skills that any classroom has ever attempted to teach.

2. On a more mechanical lesson planning level, your choice of techniques and sequences of techniques needs to be cognitively challenging but not overwhelming at an affective level.

3. Considering learner's language ego states will probably help you to determine:

    ✓ Who to call on
    ✓ Who to ask to volunteer information
    ✓ When to correct a student's speech error
    ✓ How much to explain something
    ✓ How structured and planned an activity should be
    ✓ Who to place in which small groups or pairs
    ✓ How tough you can be with a student.

4. If your students are learning English as a second language (in the cultural milieu of an English speaking country), they are likely to experience a moderate identity crisis as they develop a second self. Help such students to understand that the confusion of developing that second self in the second culture is a normal and natural process.

Principle 7: <u>Self Confidence</u>
Is a principle where learner's belief are fully capable of accomplishing a task. It is at least moderately a factor in their eventual success in order to take the task.

Some immediate classroom applications of this principle emerge. First, give ample verbal and nonverbal assurances to students. It helps a student to hear a teacher affirm a belief in the student's ability. Energy that the learner would otherwise direct at avoidance or at erecting emotional walls of defense is thereby released to tackle the problem at hand.

Second sequence techniques from easier to more difficult. As a teacher you are called on to sustain self-confidence where it already exists and to build it where it doesn't.

Your activities in the classroom would therefore logically start with simpler concepts. Students then can establish a sense of accomplishment that catapults them to the next, more difficult, step.

Principle 8:   Risk Taking
A third affective principle interrelated with the last two is the importance of getting learners to take calculated risks in attempting to use language both productively and receptively. The previous two principles, if satisfied, lay the ground work for risk taking.
If learners recognize their own ego fragility and develop the firm belief that, yes, they can indeed do it, then they are ready to take those necessary risks. They are ready to try out their newly acquired language, to use it for meaningful purposes, to ask questions, and to assert themselves.

Successful language learners, in their realistic appraisal of themselves as vulnerable beings yet capable of accomplishing tasks, must be willing to become gamblers in the game of language to attempt to produce and to interpret language that is a bit beyond their absolute certainty.

How can your classrooms reflect the Principle of Risk Taking?

1.   Create an atmosphere in the classroom that encourages students to try out language to venture a response, and not to wait for someone else to volunteer language.

2.   Provide reasonable challenges in your techniques make them neither too easy nor to hard.

3.   Help your students to understand what calculated risk taking is, test some feel that they must blurt out any old response.

4.   Respond to students risky attempts with positive affirmation, praising them for trying while at the same time warmly but firmly attending to their language.

Risk taking is an important characteristic of successful learning of a second language. Learners have to be able to gamble a bit, to be willing to try out hunches about the language and take the risk of being wrong.

Principle 9:   The Language Culture Connection
Language and culture are intricately intertwined. Any time you successfully learn a language, you will also learn something of the culture of the speakers of that language.
The principle focuses on the complex interconnection of language and culture:
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a complex system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.

Classroom applications include the following:

1. Discuss cross cultural differences with your students, emphasizing that no culture is better than another, but that across cultural understanding is an important facet of learning a language.

2. Include among your techniques certain activities and materials that illustrate the connection between language and culture.

3. Teach your students the cultural connotations, especially the sociolinguistic aspects of language.

    a. Screen your techniques for material that mar be culturally offensive.

4. Make explicit to your students what you mar take for granted in your own culture.

A second aspect of the Language Culture Connection is the extent to which your students will themselves be affected by the process of acculturation, which will vary with the context and the goals of learning. In such cases, acculturation, social distance, and psychological adjustment are factors to be dealt with. This is aspect of the principle may be summed up in this way:

Especially in second language learning contexts, the success with which learners adapt to a new cultural milieu will affect their language acquisition success, and vice versa, in some possibly significant ways.

From the perspective of the classroom teacher, this principle is similar to the Language Ego and Self-Esteem principles and all the concomitant classroom implications apply here as well. An added dimension, however, lies in the interaction between culture learning and language learning. An opportunity is given to teachers to enhance, if not speed up, both developmental processes. Once students become aware that some of their discouragement mar stem from cultural sources, they can more squarely address their state of mind and emotion and do something about it.
In the classroom you can:

1. Help students to be aware of acculturation and its stages

2. Stress the importance of the second language as a powerful tool for adjustment in the new culture.

3. Be especially sensitive to any students who appear to be discouraged, then do what you can to assist them.

Linguistic Principles:
The last category of principles of language learning and teaching centers on language itself and on how learners deal with these complex linguistic systems.

Principle 10:   The Native Language Effect
The Principle of the Native Language Effect stresses the importance of that native system in the linguistic attempts of the second language learner.

The native language of learners exerts a strong influence on the acquisition of the target language system while that native system will exercise both facilitating and interfering effects on the production and comprehension of the new language, the interfering effects are likely to be the most salient.

In your dealing with the Native Language Effect in the classroom your feedback will most often focus on interference. That's perfectly sound pedagogy. Learners errors stand out like the tips of icebergs, giving us salient signals of an underlying system at work .
Errors are, in fact, windows to a learner's internalized understanding of the second language, and therefore they give teachers something observable to react to.

Some classrooms suggestions stemming from the Native Language Effect:

1. Regard learners' errors as important windows to their underlying system and provide appropriate feedback on them. Errors of native language interference may be repaired by acquainting the learner with the native language cause of the error.

2. Ideally, every successful learner will hold on to the facilitating effects of the native language and discard the interference. Help your students to understand that not everything about their native language system will cause error.

3. Thinking directly in the target language usually helps to minimize interference errors. Try to coax students into thinking in the second language instead of resorting to translation as they comprehend and produce language.

Principle 11: Interlanguage
The Inter-language is a second language where the learners tend to go through a systematic or quasi – systematic developmental process as they progress to full competence in the target language. Successful inter-language development is partially a result of utilizing feedback from others.

While the inter-language of second language learners varies considerably between systematic and unsystematic linguistic forms and underlying roles, one important concept for the teacher to bear in mind is that at least some of a learner's language may indeed be systematic.
Allowing learners to progress through such systematic stages of acquisition poses a delicate challenge to teachers. The collective experience of language teachers and a respectable stockpile of second language research **(Doughty & Williams 1998; Long 1996, 1988; Long & Sato 1983)** indicates that classroom instruction makes a significant difference in the speed and success with which learners proceed through inter-language stages of development. This highlights the importance of the feedback that you give to learners in the classroom. In many settings (especially in EFL, contexts where few opportunities arise outside the classroom to use the language communicatively), you are the only person with whom the students have reallive contact who speaks English.

Principle 12: <u>Communicative Competence</u>

Communicative Competence that is described as a goal of a language classroom, instruction needs to point toward all its components; organizational, pragmatic, strategic and psychomotor. Communicative goals are best achieved by giving due attention to language use and not just usage, to fluency and not

just accuracy, to authentic language and contexts, and to students eventual I need to apply classroom learning to previously unrehearsed contexts in the real world.

It is important to note that the communicative competence principle still has a bit of a reactions flavor; reacting to other paradigms that emphasized attention to grammatical forms, to correct language above all, to artificial, contrived language and techniques in the classroom, and to a finite repertoire of language forms and functions that might not have lent themselves to application in the world outside the classroom.

To attempt to list all the applications of such a principle to the language classroom would be an exhaustive endeavor. But for the sake of closure and simplicity, consider the following six classroom teaching rules that might emerge:

1. Remember that grammatical explanations or drills or exercises are only part of a lesson or curriculum; give grammar some attention, but don't neglect the   other   important   components. (e.g., functional, sociolinguistic, psychomotor, and strategic) of communicative competence.

2. Some of the pragmatic (functional and sociolinguistic) aspects of language are very subtle and therefore very difficult. Make sure your lessons aim to teach such subtlety.

3. In your enthusiasm for teaching functional and sociolinguistic aspects of language, don't forget that the psychomotor skills (pronunciation) are an important component of both. Intonation alone conveys a great deal of pragmatic information.

4. Make sure that your students have opportunities to gain some fluency in English without having to be constantly wary of little mistakes. They can work on errors some other time.

5. Try to keep every technique that you use as authentic as possible: use language that students will actually encounter in the real world and provide genuine, not rote, techniques for the actual conveyance of information of interest.

6. Some day your students will no longer be in your classroom. Make sure you are preparing them to be independent learners and manipulators of language out there.

As defined as early as the 1970s by **Dell Hymes (1972),** linguistic competence does not only mean the mastery of formal linguistic systems. One condition for being able to use a language adequately is that we are in possession of a

communicative competence which for example , enables us to determine whether our utterances match both the linguistic an the non-linguistic context. Communicative competence means competence in all four proficiencies – both the productive and the receptive . When I focus on the linguistic competences in the following. I am dealing with speech as well as the written language, listening and understanding as well as reading.

According to **Methodology I by Nesterenko (2005),** says the following about Interactive Principles:

Current approaches to language teaching are "principles" and possible there is a finite number of general research – based.
Which are:

❖ **Automaticity:** True human interaction is the first accomplished when local attention is on meanings and messages and not on grammar and other linguistic forms.

❖ **Intrinsic Motivation:** As students become engage with each other in speech acts of fulfillment and self – actualization.

❖ **Strategic Investment:** Interaction requires the use of strategic language competence both to make some decisions on how to say or write or interpret language.

❖ **Risk Taking:** The risk of failing to produced intended meaning of failing to interpret intended meaning.

❖ **The Language Culture Connection:**
The cultural loading of interactive speech as well as writing requires that interlocutors be thoroughly versed in the cultural nuances of language.

❖ **Interlanguage:** Numerous errors of production and comprehension will be a part of this development.

❖ **Communicative Competence:**
All the elements of communicative competence are involved in human interaction.

1.3 ROLES OF INTERACTIVE TEACHER

Teachers can play many roles in the course of teaching. Just as parents are called upon to be many things to their children, teachers cannot be satisfied with only one role.
Rebeca Oxford et al. (1998) pointed out that teacher roles are often best described in the form of metaphor: teacher as manufacturer, teacher as doctor, teacher as judge, teacher as gardener, and others. Following you will find another set of metaphors to describe a spectrum of possibilities of teacher roles, some of which are more conductive to creating an interactive classroom than others.

1. **The Teacher as Controller**

   A role that is sometimes expected in traditional educational institutions is that of **"master"** controller. always in charge of every moment in the classroom. Master controllers determine what the students do, when they should speak and what language forms they should use. They can often predict many student responses because everything is mapped out ahead of time, with no leeway for divergent paths. In some respects, such control mar sound admirable. But for interaction to take place, the teacher must create a climate in which spontaneity can thrive, in which unrehearsed language can be performed, and in which the freedom of expression given over to students makes it impossible to predict everything that they will say and do.

   So, granted that allowing, for spontaneity of expression involves yielding certain elements of control to students, nevertheless, even in the most cooperative of interactive classrooms, the teacher must maintain some control simply to organize the class hour.

2. **The Teacher as Director**

   Some interactive classroom time can legitimately be structured in such a way that the teacher is like a conductor of an orchestra or a director of a drama. As students engage in either rehearsed or spontaneous language performance, it is your job to keep the process flowing smoothly and efficiently. The ultimate motive of such direction of course, must always be to enable students eventually to engage in the real life drama of improvisation as each communicative event brings its own uniqueness.

3. **The Teacher as Manager**

   This metaphor captures your role as one who plans lessons, modules and courses and who structures the larger, longer segments of classroom time, but who then allows each individual player to be creative within those parameters. Managers of successful corporations, for example, retain control of certain larger objectives of the company, keep employees pointed toward goals, engage in ongoing evaluation and feedback, but give freedom to each person to work in his or her own individual areas of expertise. A language class should not be markedly different.

4. **The Teacher as Facilitator**

   A less directive role might be described as facilitating the process of learning of making learning easier for students; helping them to clear away roadblocks, to find shortcuts, to negotiate rough terrain. The facilitating role requires that you step away from the managerial or directive role and allow students, with your guidance and gentle prodding to find their own pathways to success. A facilitator capitalizes on the principle of intrinsic motivation by allowing students to discover language through using it pragmatically, rather than by telling them about language.

5. **The Teacher as Resource**

   The teacher take the least directive role, the implication of the resource role is that the student takes the initiative to come to you. You are available for advice and counsel when the student seeks it.

In the lessons that teachers deliver, they should be able to assume all five of these roles on this continuum of directive to non-directive teaching, depending on the purpose and context of an activity. They key to interactive is to strive toward the upper. Non - directive end of the continuum, gradually enabling your students to move from their roles of total dependence (upon they, the class activities, the textbook, etc), to relatively total independence. The proficiency level of your class will determine to some extent which roles will dominate. But even at the lowest levels, some genuine interaction can

take place, and your role must be one that releases your students to try things for themselves.

The Teacher's Role

Follow **School of Education, (University of Bristol)** Many teachers have erred on the side of too much intervention, and 'learned dependency' is common. All too often students successfully play the game 'If I look confused for long enough she'll eventually feel guilty and tell me the answer.'
For the purposes of discussion let us characterize the range of teacher - student interactions by a continuum.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Teacher Withdrawal	Interactive Teaching	Teacher Intervention	Hinting	Explanation

1. **Teacher Withdrawal.**
   The teacher leaves the group of students completely to their own devices. The teacher observes them but does not interact with them.

2. **Interactive Teaching.**
   The teacher does not give out information but helps the group to clarify their thinking. 'Tell me what you know already'. Or asks general questions. Have you tried a range of strategies?' 'Have you worked independently on the problem as well as cooperatively?'

3. **Teacher Intervention.** The teacher gives specific suggestions, or raises questions, about useful mathematical processes. 'Have you tried solving a simpler problem?' 'Why don't you draw a picture?' 'But, if that's true won't this happen.?'

4. **Hinting.**
   The teacher gives specific suggestions, or raises questions, about useful content 'It's got something to do with adding consecutive numbers' 'Draw a right-angled triangle and look at ratios' 'Have you tried multiplying the length by the width'.

5. **Explanation.**
   The teacher explains how to solve the problem or complete the investigation.

Can Teacher be a role model?

The author **Dr. Ozair Chaudhry**, **(B.Ed., MSc., MS., Ph.D., MOCT (C)),** says that a teacher can be a role model applying the following stages:

- Advance learning for national and community building process,

- Expand learning through visions and not restricting to mere reading,

- Accept challenges and lead to conclusion,

- Set goals, design thrusts, and grow collaboratively.

- Caring students and coworker for their personal problems to facilitate learning,

- Encourage students and coworkers for their qualities to grow self confidence,

- Provide opportunities to others for the best exploitation of resources and achieve goals,

- Yield confidence and responsibility to others for collective solution approach,

- Address problems with courage and confidence, always keep heads up, put eyeball contact while address others. A leadership role.

- Never give up or retreat show as successful and winner even if you are lost.

Now, that I have worked over 20 years in research and education, I imagine that advertantly or unconsciously, I have practiced my role models in everyday life. In my classroom teaching, I try to show excellence of human conduct, I struggle to motivate my students for their excellent preparation in their careers. I try to dedicate my abilities to the extent that students are inspired professionally.

In conclusion, I think that a teacher can be a role model at all levels provided he is willing and dedicated to his responsibility. It's human instinct that the individuals are affected by their surrounding and here my claim from this is one's immediate interactive society. School, college, university and for that matter library and research laboratory are the places where teachers are the ones who have tremendous experiences of every day life that his students lack. Vision of practical life when translated amicably, it must effect the lives of students. If a teacher can not influence or motivate a student for a productive society, he can't ethically promote his responsibility. To me, some time, teaching looks more missionary service rather than a professional practice. It is therefore, necessary that the research in education concentrate its focus on qualities of teachers at different academic levels. The research results be testified and chosen for general and specific hiring of teaching staff for each level.

1.4 FOREIGN LANGUAGE INTERACTION ANALYSIS

One way to begin to look at your role as an initiator of interaction is to look at yourself (and other teachers) in terms of a well –known taxonomy for describing classroom interaction. More than two decades ago, the work of **Flanders**, **(1970)** and more specific to foreign language teaching, of **Gertrude Moskowitz (1971,1976)** gave us some categories for observation of classes known as the **FLINT (Foreign Language Interaction)** model.

How is a model like this helpful in developing interactive language teaching? There are several practical uses. **First,** it gives you a taxonomy for observing other teachers. **Moskowitz**, recommends using a chart or grid to note instances of each category. You can also calculate how much classroom time is devoted to each. Then you can evaluate the wisdom of certain choices made by the teacher or look at the overall distribution of time and ask yourself (or your teacher trainer) about the appropriateness of such a distribution.
Second, it gives you a framework for evaluating and improving your own teaching. For example, how well do you balance, teacher talk and student talk? While the FLINT model includes seven categories for teacher talk and only two for student talk, don't let that fool you into believing that your own talk should dominate. Depending on the objectives of the lesson, the level of the students, and other contextual factors the proportions will vary, but most of the time we teachers tends to talk too much, without allowing enough time for students to respond to respond to us or to initiate talk. A careful consideration of all seven of the teacher –talk categories can also serve as a blueprint for your teaching behaviour in the classroom:

- Am I accepting a student's feelings in a non-threatening way?
- Am I offering sufficient praise?
- Am I lecturing too much?
- Do I give my students opportunities to initiate language on their own?

Third, the FLINT model, especially the fist seven categories, helps to set a learning climate for interactive teaching. You can establish a climate of cooperation by recognizing and openly accepting your students emotional ups and downs, by recognizing, each individual student in the class as special in his or her own way, by soliciting their ideas, and by careful framing of questions. We now turn to an extensive look at the latter.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE INTERACTION ANALYSIS (FLINT) SYSTEM
(Adapted from Moskowitz 1971).

		TEACHER TALK			*TEACHER TALK*
I	**I**	**1. Deals with feelings:** In a non-threatening way, accepting, discussing, referring to, or communicating understanding of past, present, or future feelings of students.	**I**		**5. Gives information:** Giving information, facts, own opinion, or ideas lecturing or asking rhetorical questions.
N	**N**	**2. Praises or encourages:** Praising, complimenting, telling students why what they have said or done is valued. Encouraging students to continue, trying to give them confidence, confirming that answers are correct.	**D**	**N**	**5a. Corrects without rejection** Telling students who have made a mistake the correct response without using words or intonations which communicate criticism.
D	**F**		**I**	**F**	
I	**L**	**2a. Jokes:** Intentional joking, kidding, making puns, attempting to be humorous, providing the joking is not at anyone's expense. (Unintentional humor is not included in this category.)	**R**	**L**	**6. Gives directions:** Giving directions, requests, or commands that students are expected to follow directing various drills, facilitating whole- class and small group activity.
R	**U**		**E**	**U**	
E	**E**	**3. Uses ideas of students:** Clarifying, using, interpreting, summarizing the ideas of students. The ideas must be rephrased by the teacher but still be recognized as being student contributions.	**C**	**E**	**7. Criticizes student behavior:** Rejecting the behavior of students; trying to change the non-acceptable behavior; communicating anger, displeasure, annoyance, dissatisfaction with what students are doing.
C	**N**		**T**	**N**	
		3a. Repeats student response verbatim: Repeating the exact words of students after they participate.	**C**		**7a.Criticizes student response:** Telling the student his or her response is not correct or acceptable and communicating criticism, displeasure, annoyance, rejection by words or intonation.
T	**C**				
	E	**4. Ask questions:** Asking questions to which the answer is anticipated. (Rhetorical questions are NOT included in this category.)	**E**		

STUDENT TALK

8. **Student response, specific:**
Responding to the teacher within a specific and limited range of available or previously   practiced answers. Reading aloud, dictation, drills.

9. **Student response, open – ended or student – initiated:**
Responding to the teacher with students own ideas, opinions, reactions, feelings. Giving one from among many possible answers that have been previously practiced but from which students must now make a selection. Initiating the participation.

10. **Silence:**
Pauses in the interaction. Periods of quiet during which there is no verbal interaction.
10a. Silence- AV: Silence in the interaction during which a piece of audiovisual equipment,
     e.g., tape recorder, filmstrip projector, record player, etc, is being used to communicate.

11. **Confusion, work –oriented:**
More than one person at a time talking, so the interaction cannot be recorded. Students calling out excitedly, eager to participate or respond, concerned with the task at hand.
11a.   Confusion, non-work-oriented: more than one person at a time talking so the interaction cannot be recorded. Students out of order, not behaving as the teacher wishes, not concerned with the task at hand.

12. **Laughter:**
Laughing and giggling by the class, individuals, and / or the teacher.

13. **Uses the native language:**
Use of the native language by the teacher or the students. This category is always combined with one of the categories from 1 to 9.

14. **Nonverbal:**
Gestures or facial expressions by the teacher or the student that communicate without the use of words. This category is always combined with one of the categories of teacher or student behavior.

1.5   QUESTIONING STRATEGIES FOR INTERACTIVE LEARNING

The most important key to creating an interactive language classroom is the initiation of interaction by the teacher. However non-directive your teaching style is, the onus is on you to provide the stimuli for continued interaction. These stimuli are important in the initial stage of a classroom lesson as well as throughout the lesson. Without such ongoing teacher guidance, classroom interaction mar indeed be communicative, but it can easily fall prey to tangential chitchat and other behavior that is off-course from the class objectives.

One of the best ways to develop your role as an initiator and sustainer of interaction is to develop a repertoire of questioning strategies. In second language classrooms, where learners often do not have a great number of tools for initiating and maintaining language, your questions provide necessary stepping stones to communication. Appropriate questioning in an interactive classroom can fulfill a number of different functions. **(adapted from Christenbury & Kelly 1983 and Kinsella 1991)**.

1.   Teacher questions give students the impetus and opportunity to produce language conformably without having to risk initiating language themselves. It is very scary for students to have to initiate conversation or topics for discussion. Appropriately pitched questions can give more reticent students an affective "green light" and a structured opportunity to communicate in their second language.

2. Teacher questions can serve to initiate a chain reaction of student interaction among themselves. One question mar be all that is needed to start a discussion; without the initial question, however, students will be reluctant to initiate the process.

3. Teacher questions give the instructor immediate feedback about student comprehension After posing a questions, a teacher can use the student response to diagnose linguistic or content difficulties. Grammatical or phonological problem areas for example mar be exposed through the student's response and give the teacher some specific information about what to treat.

4. Teacher questions provide students with opportunities to find out what they think by hearing what they say. As they are nudged into responding to questions about say, a reading or a film, they can discover what their own opinions and reactions are. This self-discovery can be especially useful for a prewriting activity.

There are many ways to classify what kinds of questions are effective in the classroom. Perhaps the simplest way to conceptualize the possibilities is to think of a range of questions, beginning with display questions that attempt to elicit information already known by the questioner; sometimes responses to the latter involve judgment about facts that are not clear or a statement of values.

All of these types of questions have their place in the interactive classroom. Even those that are more on the display end of the continuum are very useful in eliciting both content and language from students. Usually, the higher the proficiency level you teach, the more you can venture into the upper, referential end of the continuum. One interesting study of high intermediate pre-university ESL, students **(Brock 1986)** found that teachers who incorporated more referential questions into their classes stimulated student responses that were longer and more grammatically complex. Make sure, then, that you challenge your students sufficiently but without overwhelming them.

Asking a lot of questions in your classroom will not by any means guarantee stimulation of interaction. Certain types of questions mar actually discourage interactive learning.
Beware of the following **(adapted from Kinsella 1991).**

▪ Too much class time spent on display questions-students can easily grow wary of artificial contexts that don't involve genuine seeking of information.

▪ A question that insults students' intelligence by being so obvious that students will think it's too silly to bother answering.

▪ Vague questions that are worded in abstract or ambiguous language (for example, «Do you pretty much understand more or less what to do?»).

▪ Question stated in language that is too complex or to wordy for aural comprehension (e.g., "Given today's discussion, and also considering your previous experience in educational institutions, what would you say are the

ramifications of, or the potential developmental impacts on, children functioning multiple – choice, paper and pencil instrumentation?").

▪ In an educational system in which assessment procedures largely consist of too many rhetorical questions (that you intend to answer yourself) that students think you want them to answer, then get confused when you supply the answer.

▪ Random questions that don't fall into a logical, well planned sequence sending student's thought patterns into chaos.

CATEGORIES OF QUESTIONS AND TYPICAL CLASSROOM QUESTIONS WORDS (Adapted from Kinsella 1991 and Bloom 1956)

1. **knowledge questions:**
   Eliciting factual answers, testing recall and recognition of information.

   Common questions words: Define, *tell, list, identify, describe, select name, point out,   label, reproduce, Who? What? Where? When?.* Answer "yes" or "no".

2. **Comprehension questions:** Interpreting extrapolating.
   Common question words: State in your own words, *explain, define, locate, select, indicate, summarize, outline, match.*

3. **Application questions:** Applying information heard or read to new situation.
   Common questions words: *Demonstrate how, use the data to solve, to illustrate how, show how, apply, construct, explain. What is_____ used for? What would result? What would happen?.*

4. **Inference questions:**
   Forming conclusions that are not directly stated in instructional materials.
   Common questions words: *How? Why? What did____ mean by? What does_____ believe? What conclusions can you draw from….?*

5. **Analysis questions:** Breaking down into parts, relating parts to the whole.
   Common questions words: *Distinguish, diagram, chart, plan, deduce, arrange, separate, outline, classify, contrast, compare, differentiate, categorize. What is the relationship between? What is the function of? What motive? What conclusions? What is the main idea?.*

6. **Synthesis questions:** Combining elements into a new pattern.
   Common questions words: *compose. Combine, estimate, invent, choose, hypothesize, build, solve, design, develop. What if? How would you test? What would you have done in this situation? What would happen if…….? How can you improve……..? How else would you……?.*

7. **Evaluation questions:**
   Making a judgment of good and bad, right or wrong, according to some set of criteria, and stating why. Common questions words: *Evaluate, rate, defend, dispute, decide which, select, judge, grade, verify ,choose why. Which is the best? Which is more important? Which do you think is more appropriate?.*

Other teacher strategies that promote interaction are pair work and group work give rise to interaction. Giving directions («*Open your books,» «Do the following exercise*»), can stimulate interaction. Organization language («*Get into small groups»*) is important. Reacting to students (praise, recognition, or a simple *"Uh-huh"*) can not be dispensed with. Responding genuinely to student – initiated questions is essential.

Encouraging students to develop their own strategies is an excellent means of stimulating the learner to develop tools of interaction. Even "lecturing" and other forms of orally providing information and having students read texts are part of the process of creating and maintaining an interactive classroom.

Most of these strategies are dealt with in subsequent chapters; pair and group work is given extensive coverage in the next chapter. For the moment , as we build some tools for creating effective interactive classroom lessons, consider your questioning strategies as one of the most important teaching behaviors for you to master.

CHAPTER TWO
STUDENTS MOTIVATION AND MANAGEMENT IN THE CLASSROOM

Is teaching an art or a science? Are teachers born or made? Is the learning teaching connection poetic or predictable?. These questions are commonly found swirling about in the minds of educators, not so much as "either or" questions but rather as "both and" questions. I think we can easily agree that teaching is both an art and a science, that some innate ability complements learned teaching skills and that with all of our best-laid lessons plans there still remains an intangible aura surrounding acts of learning. But how do the two traditions coexist in practice? How do art and science mingle in the principles and approaches and techniques and plans of ESL teachers?

In the previous chapter, we have considered the process of planning a lesson, of initiating interaction among students, and of designing effective small group interaction. The next step in a succession of practicalities for the language classroom is to grapple with what we call *classroom management,* which encompasses an abundance of factors ranging from how you physically arrange the classroom, to teaching "styles", to one of your favorite themes *classroom energy.* By understanding what some of the variables are in *classroom management,* we can take some important steps to sharpening your skills as a language teacher. And then, as you improve some of those identifiable, overtly

observable skills, you open the door to the intangible to art, to poetics, to the invisible sparks of energy that kindle the flames of learning.

Classroom management is a term used by many teachers to describe the process of ensuring that <u>classroom lessons</u> run smoothly despite disruptive <u>behaviour</u> by students. The term also implies the prevention of disruptive behaviour. It is possibly the most difficult aspect of <u>teaching</u> for many teachers and indeed experiencing problems in this area causes some to leave teaching altogether. **(Wikipedia Encyclopedia).**

According to **Carol Dunn (2005)**, a constantly changing and naturally evolving classroom management plan would be the cornerstone of my philosophy, with the central question being "what do these students need and how can I meet those needs." This type of approach would ensure that I would respond to the diverse intellectual nature of a student body that are also culturally, socially and economically different.

It will be my role and daily challenge to devise relevant and engaging lesson plans that will help create deep thinkers and problem solvers, so that when problems do arise, the students themselves can devise the solution. The goal is to create loving and caring individuals who will take risks, establish realistic goals and assume personal responsibility for the results of their behavior; where the only competition is with themselves, the individual, and not with each other, and where the process is about discovering ideas and not about covering material. This will be a learner centered classroom that produces critical thinkers, who are at the same time deeply engaged in the subject at hand, while also enjoying the process and learning experience. This classroom will be a happy place where students come to learn, participate, and have fun. In this type of environment discipline is not an issue as the students are engaged in exciting and stimulating lessons that demands all their attention. They choose to be there and learn, therefore happy and interested students have no reason to misbehave.

. **Kounin** says that the mastery of classroom management must include a display of "with-it-ness", the ability to teach to the learning style of the group instead of the individual, and organizing of lessons and teaching methods. <u>The goal of classroom management is to create an environment which not only stimulates student learning but also motivates students to learn.</u>

2.1   MOTIVATING THE STUDENTS IN THE SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

One of the more complicated problems of second language learning and teaching has been to define and apply the construct of motivation in the classroom.

The teacher knows and understands individual and group motivation creates a learning environment that encourages positive social interaction, active engagement in learning, and self – motivation. Most teachers consider motivation essential for successful language learning. However, motivation is difficult to define and measure. Are all learners motivated by worthwhile, goals and clear objectives, the constant use of English in the classroom, a variety of

activities and interactions and sensitive handling of errors and hesitations? Our assumption has been that they are. But we recognize that motivation is a complex phenomenon, and not all learners respond to teaching in the same way.

Certain aspects of motivation may be beyond your influence. Some learners come to a course needing English immediately for study or work, or wanting to learn it because they love Anglo-American culture. Others may be more reluctant, but know they are likely to need English in the future. Yet others are obliged to take a course, but have no desire to learn English and a sincere hope they will never need to use it. With the first type of learner, the challenge is to maintain and exploit the motivation they bring to the course. With the last type, the challenge is to work hard at making the course itself enjoyable and satisfying. Teachers also have to try to get reluctant learners to recognize that, for virtually anyone, English really could be useful at some time in their lives.

Even for initially reluctant learners, appropriate goals and objectives can give directions and will to work in other words, improve motivation. But an ability to communicate effectively in English is such a huge, ill-defined goal, quite remote for most elementary learners. Worthwhile and achievable short – term objectives can give the learners satisfaction and a sense of success as they work towards the main goal of their course.

Even the most carefully planned activities will normally motivate learners only if they are related to their interests, needs, and aspirations. You should try to find out what these are and plan lessons accordingly. *For example*, teenage learners may want some work on communicating in English via the Internet, or activities using popular songs. It is a good idea to consult with your learners about topics and activities and get them to bring to class materials they are interested in.

Topics can be a rich source of motivation in the English language classroom. There are topics of personal interest, *for example*, music, films, cars, computers, the internet, pets and sports. Teachers may also be able to use authentic materials from those countries *for example:* magazine and newspaper articles, cassettes of songs, and videos of television programs.

Of course English does not "belong" to any specific countries, societies, or cultures. These days, there are more non- native than native speakers of English and it is more often used between two non-native speakers than between a non-native and a native speaker. This cosmopolitan perspective, common in several more recent course-books, appeal to many learners and is a rich source of topics and activities and lesson themes. Again you may be able to use authentic materials, including any English – language newspapers published in your own country.

Personalities and relationships are important for motivation. Your personality is bound to appeal to some learners more than others. You cannot totally change yourself, but you can modify or develop some things. *For example,* you can use the learners names and show a personal interest in them, and take care to behave in a fair way towards all learners alike. You can also educate yourself in topics that interest your learners, *for example,* pop music and films for teenagers, new cars and technical developments for mechanics.

Although, ideally, learners should be motivated by an awareness of their own progress, many will rely mostly on your feedback. It can be very motivating for them if you tell them clearly that you are pleased with their effort and progress. It may even be a wonderful surprise after frequent expressions of dissatisfaction from previous teachers.

Whatever we think of the teaching methods used – or the reasons for the language learning, the teachers and students were highly motivated, they really wanted to learn and they had powerful reasons for doing so. The desire to learn may come from many causes. Perhaps the students love the subject or are simply interested to see what it is like. On the other hand, they may have a practical reason for their study: they can watch American TV or work with English people, etc.

In other words, Integrative motivation was more powerful than instrumental motivation. But whatever kind of motivation students have, it is clear that highly motivated students do better than ones without any motivation at all.

If good learners are those that have a positive attitude toward their subject, what can we do if we get students who aren't like that? Will students whose motivation is only skin deep be bad learners? Will people who are not extremely keen to learn automatically fail?
One of the most tasks for teachers is to provoke interest and involvement in the subject even when students are not initially interested in it. It is by their choice of topic, activity and linguistic content that they may be able to turn a class around. It is by their attitude to class participation, their conscientiousness, their humour and their seriousness that they may influence their students. It is by their own behaviour and enthusiasm that they may influence their students. It is by their own behaviour and enthusiasm that they may inspire.
Douglas Brown, in Teaching by Principles (2001)

✓ **Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation**
For several decades research on motivation in the field of foreign language acquisition research has been strongly influenced by the work of **Robert Gardner** and his associates **(Gardner & Lambert 1972; Gardner 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre 1991, 1993; Gardner & Tremblay 1994).** In this succession of research studies, a distinction has been made between *integrative* and *instrumental orientations.* While the 1972 study claimed that an integrative orientation (desire to learn a language stemming from a positive affect toward a community of its speakers) was more strongly linked to success in learning a foreign language than an instrumental orientation (desire to learn a language in order to attain certain career, educational, or financial goals), later studies showed that both orientations could be associated with success.

Remember two important points:

❖ **Orientation** means a context or purpose for learning motivation refers to the intensity of one's impetus to learn. Integrative Orientation simply means the learner is pursuing a foreign language for social and/or cultural purposes and within that purpose a learner could be driven by a high level of motivation or a low level. Likewise, in an instrumental orientation, learners

are studying a language in order to further a career or academic goal. The intensity or motivation of a learner to attain that goal could be high or low.

❖ **Integrative and instrumental orientations** are not to be confused with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. They are separate issues. One (integrative/ instrumental orientation) is a true dichotomy and refers only to the context of learning.

Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward. Intrinsically motivated behaviors are aimed at bringing about certain internally rewarding consequences, namely, feelings of competence and self-determination.

Extrinsically motivated behaviors on the other hand, are carried out in anticipation of a reward from outside and beyond the self. Typical extrinsic rewards are money, prizes, grades and even certain types of positive feedback. Behaviors initiated solely to avoid punishment are also extrinsically motivated, even though numerous intrinsic benefits can ultimately accrue to those who instead, view punishment avoidance as a challenge that can build their sense of competence and self-determination.

✓ **Intrinsic Motivation in the second language classroom**
Turning to the role of intrinsic motivation in the second language classroom in particular, consider these activities that capitalize on the intrinsic by appealing to learners' self-determination and autonomy:

- Teaching writing as a thinking process in which learners develop their own ideas freely and openly.

- Showing learners strategies of reading that enable them to bring their own information to the written word.

- Language experience approaches in which students create their own reading material for others in the class to read.

- Oral fluency exercises in which learners talk about what interests them and not about a teacher assigned topic.

- Listening to an academic lecture in one's own field of study for specific information that will fill a gap for the learner.

- Communicative language teaching, in which language is taught to enable learners to accomplish certain specific functions.

- Grammatical explanations, if learners see their potential for increasing their autonomy in a second language.

Actually, every technique in your language classroom can be subjected to an intrinsic motivation "litmus test" to determine the extent to which they adhere to this powerful principle. Apply the following checklist to help you determine.

whether something you're doing in the classroom is contributing to your students intrinsic drives.

Zoltan Dornyei and **Kata Csizer (1998:215)** offered a set of "ten commandments" for motivating learners based on a survey of Hungarian foreign language teachers. All ten items focus on what the teacher can do to stimulate intrinsic motivation.

1. Set a personal example with your own behavior.
2. Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom
3. Present the tasks properly
4. Develop a good relationship with the learners
5. Increase the learners linguistic self-confidence
6. Make the language classes interesting
7. Promote learner autonomy
8. Personalize the learning process
9. Increase the learners goal-oriented ness
10. Familiarize learners with the target language culture.

These ten guidelines coming directly from teachers out there in the "arena" are worth careful consideration. Compare them to my own six general guidelines for infusing your ESL classroom with some intrinsically motivating dynamics.

1. Teachers are enablers not rewarders. Therefore when you teach, focus less on how to administer immediate or tangible rewards and more on how to get students to tune in to their potential and to be challenged by self-determined goals.

2. Learners need to develop autonomy, not dependence. Therefore be careful not to let learners become dependent on your daily praise and other feedback. Rather administer praise selectively and judiciously, helping students to recognize their own self-satisfaction in having done something well.

3. Help learners to take charge of their own learning through setting some personal goals and utilizing learning strategies.

4. Learner centered, cooperative teaching is intrinsically motivating. Therefore, give students opportunities to make choices in activities topics, discussions, etc. Sometimes a simple either /or choice. (okay, class for the next ten minutes we can either do this little cloze test or review for the test. Which do you want to do?) helps students to develop intrinsic motives. They feel less like puppets on a string if you can involve them in various aspects of looking at their needs and self-diagnosing, of planning lessons and objectives of deciding in which direction a lesson might go and of evaluating their learning.

5. Content – based activities and courses are intrinsically motivating. Therefore, you might strive to focus your students on interesting relevant subject matter content that gets them more linguistically involved with meanings and purposes and less with verbs and prepositions.

6. Tests, with some special attention from the teacher, can be intrinsically motivating.

All of the above enthusiasm for intrinsic motivation shouldn't lure you into thinking that we now have a catchall concept that will explain everything about learning and teaching. Other factors affect learning outcomes native ability, age, context of learning, style preferences, background experience and qualifications, availability of time to give the effort needed, and the quality of input that is beyond the immediate control of the learner. And clearly you will be able to use a combination of extrinsic and intrinsic motives to your advantage in the classroom; there is indeed a place and a very soundly supportable place for extrinsic motives in the language classroom.

But when all these factors are duly considered, the students' long-term goals, their deepest level of feeling and thinking and their global assessment of their potential to be self-actualized is much, much better served by promoting intrinsic motives. Your task is to maintain these intrinsically motivating factors on an underlying plane of awareness in your mind whenever and wherever learners are placed under your tutelage.

✓ **Classroom management and motivation skills:**
The teacher uses an understanding of individual and group motivation and behavior to create a learning environment that encourages positive social interaction, active engagement in learning, and self-motivation.

Effective teachers work in many ways to build positive classroom interactions. These teachers recognize that involving students in this endeavor not only promotes growth in personal and social responsibility, but also enhances the development of democratic and social values. Group rapport is enhanced as students and teachers work cooperatively to establish classroom norms and rules. Teaching and modeling effective problem-solving techniques such as conflict resolution provide motivation for learning, positive social interaction among children, and positive self-esteem for all. Thus, the effective teacher strives to create a learning community that fosters group decision-making, collaboration, individual responsibility, and self-directed learning.

Teachers interested in building and sustaining a positive learning climate are aware of the range of behavioral phenomena confronting them. They recognize that there are situations in which the teacher will be confronted by students who are unable to function within the parameters established by the group. In these instances, teachers must rely upon their knowledge of principles and strategies of behavior management and issues related to all aspects of motivation. As reflective practitioners, teachers use this knowledge of theory, along with their classroom experiences, to construct an ever-evolving student motivation and management philosophy. This philosophy is specific enough to guide classroom actions, yet flexible enough to accommodate the individual needs of students. Therefore, effective classroom managers understand the need to be able to define problems, identify alternatives, choose a course of action and a plan for implementation, and consider the possible consequences of a given action.

Belonging: The pre-service teacher's knowledge and understanding of group motivation serves to enhance the development of democratic and social values within the learning community. Teachers and students work cooperatively to establish classroom norms and rules through collaborative decision-making.

Mastery: The pre-service teacher's knowledge and understanding of individual and group motivation informs the ongoing development of a classroom management plan which serves to guide classroom interactions and reactions and is flexible enough to accommodate individual student needs.

Independence: As pre-service teachers move forward in becoming effective classroom managers, they are able to define problems, identify alternatives, and choose and implement appropriate courses of actions.

Generosity: The pre-service teachers' understanding of group motivation and behavior creates a learning environment that encourages and supports positive social interaction for each child

✓ **Motivation**

a) From your point of view, what motivates students?
In the short term by using engaging and interesting lessons that "hook" the students into the subject. Initially, there will be a "romance" section of the lesson that will pull them in by grabbing their interest, and pulling them in further by getting them personally involved will be another step. Also, appealing to their present interests, their previous experiences and understandings, and to their innate tendencies to want to resolve problems would be yet another strategy to pull them in to the lesson even more. Showing them the meaning and purpose in school learning and its connectedness to their own lives and reducing the lesson's abstractedness is another important pedagogical tool. Staying away from superficial and artificial learning is another key to maintaining their interest. Once boredom sets in, the students have mentally and emotionally checked out and it will be impossible to get them back. Therefore, grounding new learning in the students' experiences, perceptions and existing knowledge structures is elemental. Staying away from receptive learning and focusing instead on constructive learning such as essay questions, promotes deeper thinking. Creating paradigm shifts with the introduction of philosophical ideas inherent in literature also creates epiphanies in the classroom--again exploring ideas that they can relate to their own lives.

b) Motivation - In the long-term?
Teaching for understanding where students can understand new ideas and connect them to other ideas and to their own lives, making them applicable and relevant. This deep level of understanding provides new pathways and dendrites in the brain as real learning is taking place. Another tool for long term motivation would be making them aware of their own meta-cognitive processes, where they see that they are building new dendrites and pathways, and they can see that they are getting smarter, which creates enhanced self-esteem and confidence in their own learning processes thereby furthering the educational experience for them. Identifying and recognizing relationships amongst various ideas, concepts, generalizations and facts, and showing a value for what is

being learned is crucial for motivation, both long term and short term. This kind of learning also gets stored in the long-term memory banks, unlike repetitive learning which goes into short term memory and is quickly forgotten. Also, including them in discussions and decisions regarding their course work and course structure and showing them the relevancy of course work to their own lives. Having weekly discussions about their education and their careers would also be practiced.

c) Why will your students do what you ask them to?
They will see the relevancy of the course work to their own lives and will be intrinsically motivated to do what I ask them to do. They will trust the classroom process, trust (me) the teacher and also one other.

d) How do you plan to motivate your students
The students are the workers who are producing papers, research, plays, music, the yearbook, and the school newspaper. However, the students will only work hard if they see that there is some benefit for them to do so. Therefore, pointing out real life applications is essential.

2.2 MOTIVATION IN EDUCATION OF THE STUDENTS.

Follow **Fritz Hinrichs** says, Education must transfer from generation to generation the core of our culture's accumulated body of knowledge. In our day, many think that to believe in an accepted body of knowledge that prioritizes what is important to learn and what is not smacks of elitism and exclusivity. In part, this charge cannot be denied because discernment often demands that we play the role of intellectual hatchet-men; however, if you will reject the notion of a "canon" of knowledge, you are faced with the task of creating a rational for your own curriculum that can give a convincing answer to that most awkward but ubiquitous question, "Why do we have to learn this?"

 For students to be motivated in their studies, they need to know that what they are studying is indeed of real significance. They need to know that they are not being feed some new-sprung agenda or half-baked innovation that will simply go the way of the faddish educational chaff that, once having gleaned its profits, goes to the winds never to be seen or thought of again. Students need to know that they are being feed the best that our civilization has to offer- that they are studying something that is much, much larger than themselves.

When we climb out of the broad stream that comprises the wisdom of the ages, it is very easy to lose our educational bearings, being blown to and fro be the winds of opinion. Furthermore, without a good rational for our curriculum, we will be unable to resist the student's desire to find the path of least exertion between now and break time. To be motivated to work, we need to instill in our children first godly character and then the conviction that their studies are indeed significant. By putting before students these poor reasons for getting an education. We are drumming into them the idea that education is a means and not an end. Until they understand that education is an end in itself, that indeed, the creation in which we dwell and the historical saga in which we take part are truly worthy of our interest and concentrated study, we will only see them labor with a slave's reluctance.

✓ **What is education?** The answer is, all elements in the opening paragraph and more, relate to education and all should be considered. This would be ideal and sounds good, but "all" is not possible where performance must be measured. Only what can be measured will be selected and the measuring tool is the written test. Anyone who does not have the ability to put clear thoughts on paper is labeled a failure. All natural skills, including knowledge processing, does not count. The fact is, what is exercised grows stronger, what is ignored stays dormant. The classroom exercises the collection of academics, leaving all other natural skills in the closet.

Test does not measure intelligence or ability, it does not measure how the mind processes information, how motivating experiences develop persistence, or how the mind sorts out instincts, opinions, evaluations, possibilities, alternatives. Knowledge by itself has no value, it is like a dictionary filled with words. Words by themselves have no value, it is the process of stringing them together that gives them value. How they are strung together determines the level of value. Now our education system is becoming a system that memorizes the dictionary. When students have memorized selected knowledge, then they will be given a one-day test, based on dictionary knowledge, which will influence employment opportunity for the rest of their life. Natural skills are not considered. Is this how America became the worlds' economic leader? NO! Knowledge only has value when used with a process and process in an artificial environment is not predictable or measurable.

Achievers in life use inspiration and motivation to overcome barriers. Teaching to the test does not inspire or motivate anyone, memorizing does not inspire a love to learn, in fact, it does just the opposite, it turns off the desire to learn. Education's goal should be to develop a love to learn that stays with students throughout a lifetime. Education should be a lifetime experience, not limited to the youth years.

What can be considered a quality education? A quality education is custom design that addresses the unique abilities of each student and has a positive emotional experience. Custom education evaluates natural talent and how the student learns. This is why home schooled students out perform classroom students. Parents learn what works and does not work, then focus on what works. With this method, students develop a love to learn and learning becomes a lifelong process.
Edited by Robert L. Webb (2000)

According to the article about (**Classroom Management Specialists Welcome to Discipline Associates)** Educators in the Hamilton City School District, in Dayton Ohio are learning about a new discipline program that focuses on dignity and respect.

✓ **Discipline with Dignity**
is a "proactive approach to discipline based on respect for the student," said **Sheryl Burk,** principal of Wilson Middle School. "A teacher's response to a situation can make it a positive learning experience."
"If we can learn to deal with students and leave them with their dignity, and the teachers maintain their dignity in any situation, that's a win-win," said **Judy**

Carnes, director of student services. "The students stay in class and the teacher is able to teach. And that's our goal."

It is closely linked to issues of <u>motivation</u>, <u>discipline</u> and <u>respect</u>. Methodologies remain a matter of passionate debate amongst teachers; approaches vary depending on the beliefs a teacher holds regarding <u>educational psychology</u>. A large part of traditional classroom management involves behaviour modification; that is, establishing rules and procedures at the beginning of the school year. It also involves being consistent in enforcing these rules and procedures. There must be positive consequences when rules are followed, and negative consequences when rules are broken.

There are newer perspectives on classroom management that are more holistic and comprehensive. One example is <u>affirmation teaching</u>, which guides students toward success in helping them see how their effort pays off in the classroom.[1] Affirmation teaching avoids traditional threats, bribery, or persuasion, and relies instead upon creating an environment where students are successful as a result of their own efforts (studying for an <u>examination</u>, for example).

Instructional & Assessment Strategies that Promote your Management Goals

✓ **How does your assessment promote the goals of your management?**

Kohn posits that letter grades damage students' self-esteem, as grades do not evaluate for deeper levels of understanding. Therefore, instead of grades, I would use non-traditional means of assessment such as portfolios, performance assessment and group work assessments. Portfolios would contain student essays that show a deeper level of understanding than traditional tests, they would also contain poems, book reports, workbook exercises, research papers and journals. Another form of assessment would be oral work like class discussions, panels, debates, and oral recitations; and performances and exhibitions that include speech and drama performances. Moving away from a testing culture and testing for real learning would promote the goals of my management approach.

This type of assessment creates a product that contain all of a student's work, also, this type of product allows the student to see their own body of work in its entirety which, seeing the amount and type of work they've done over a period of time, builds even more confidence. In addition, they also have something tangible from which to gauge their own cognitive development. Part of my portfolio assessment process would be a constant editing process (on the part of the students) where the product is constantly being updated and redone. The portfolios would be assessed at the end of the school year, giving the students ample time to evaluate, edit and to continually improve their own work, finally resulting in a product that they are proud of. Another form of assessment that I would use in liu of traditional forms of grading would be student self-evaluation. These types of assessment would work to enhance the students' learning, self-esteem and academic success as this approach is also proactive, student-centered and non-competitive.

✓ **How do you allow for variable styles, cultures and circumstances in meeting the diverse needs of your students.**

Reading the literature of the diaspora would enhance pride in the students' various cultures. Also, a respect for the various and different types of intelligence (**Gardner's** linguistic, logical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, and intrapersonal) would be fostered that would only enrich students' lives inside and outside the classroom. Giving the students opportunities to use all of their various intelligences and to avoid teaching in only one capacity, which means keeping the curriculum open enough. Providing an open curriculum would include lectures, group discussions, hands-on experience, video presentations, field trips, reading books, visual materials of any sort, physical performance of poetry and stories, dramatic depictions of plays and short stories would address the needs of the students. This type of approach would ensure reaching all the various students' different types of intelligences and would help maintain their interest in new learning. This type of focus on their various intelligences also helps them identify their natural abilities and gifts, in addition, this type of pedagogical and inclusive approach promotes only success, not failure.

2.3 HOW TO IMPROVE THE CLASSROOM LESSONS

Classroom management is a consideration a teacher must keep in mind when planning every lesson. The easiest way to keep a classroom under control would be to do the exact same thing everyday, and just move to the next lesson in the book everyday. Students will get bored with this routine. If a teacher keeps this track, students may quit participating and in turn, be less inclined to come to class. It is at this point when some teachers decided to create projects to motivate the students. Unfortunately, this is too late. Teachers need to think about the motivation of their learners from day one. My experience has suggested that motivated students need less classroom management because they are interested in what they are doing and yearn to do more.

Preparing lessons that interest students is a key factor to good teaching. If a student is interested in the topic they are studying, they are going to become more active and vocal in the classroom. Teachers will find teaching a joy rather than a job, and a positive student/teacher learning environment will be established.

According to **Kohn** and **Glasser**, instead of focusing on grades and tests, we must help our students to reason, to communicate, and help them develop social and personal responsibility, self-awareness and a capacity for leadership. Thinking deeply and critically should be the first goal of education, the second goal is the desire for more education and a lifelong affair with learning.

✓ **Good Language Learners**

If the students are motivated by the teacher, by the time, They will have a good development in a foreign language and They will can be good language learners. A good language learner can:

▪ Find their own way, taking charge of their learning

▪ Organize information about language

- Are creative, developing a "feel" for the language by experimenting with its grammar and words.

- Make their own opportunities for practice in using the language inside and outside the classroom.

- Learn to live with uncertainty by not getting flustered and by continuing to talk or listen without understanding every word.

- Use mnemonics and other memory strategies to recall what has been learned.

- Make errors work for them and not against them.

- Use linguistic knowledge, including knowledge of their first language, in learning a second language.

- Use contextual cues to help them in comprehension.

- Learn to make intelligent guesses.

- Learn chunks of language as wholes and formalized routines to help them perform "beyond their competence"

- Learn certain tricks that help to keep conversations going.

- Learn certain production strategies to fill in gaps in their own competence.

- Learn different styles of speech and writing and learn to vary their language according to the formality of the situation.

Elements necessary for successful language learning in classroom

Classroom students don't usually get the same kind of exposure or encouragement as those who – at whatever age – are 'picking up' the language. But that doesn't mean they can not learn a language if the right conditions apply. Like language learners outside schools, they will need to be motivated, be exposed to language, and given chances use it. W e can therefore say what elements need to be present in a language classroom to help students learn effectively. We will can these elements **ESA**, three elements which will be present in all – or almost all – classes. They are:

✛ ENGAGE:

This is the point in a teaching sequence where teachers try to arouse the student's interest, thus involving emotions.

Most people can remember lessons at school which were involving and where they «switched off» from what was being taught them. Frequently, this as because they were bored, because they were not emotionally engaged with what was going on. Such lessons can be contrasted with lessons were they

were amused, moved, stimulated or challenged. It seems quite clear that those lessons involved not only more «fun», but also better learning.

o **Activities and materials which frequently Engage students include:**
Games, (depending on age and type), music, discussions (when handled challengingly), stimulating pictures, dramatic stories, amusing anecdotes, etc.

But even, when such activities and materials are not used, teachers will want to ensure that their students. **Engage** with the topic exercise or language they are going to be dealing with. They will ask students what they think of a topic before asking them to dealing with. They will ask students what they think of a topic before asking them to read about it, for example. They will look at the picture of a personal and be asked to guess what their occupation is before they listen to that person on tape, they will have been stimulated by the fact that the teacher. (who normally dresses very formally and always stays in the same place in class). Suddenly arrives in class dressed casually and moves around the room with unaccustomed ease, and so on.
When students are **engaged**, they learn better than when they are partly or wholly disengaged.

✚ STUDY:

Study activities are those where the students are asked to focus in own language (information) and how it is constructed. They range from the study and practice of a single sound to an investigation of how a writer achieve a particular effect in along text, from an examination and practice of a verb tense to the study of a transcript of informal speech to discuss spoken style.

Students can study in a variety of different styles: the teacher can explain grammar, they can study language evidence to discover grammar for themselves, they can work in groups studying a reading text or vocabulary. But whatever the style, **study** means any stage at which the construction of language is the main focus.

Some typical areas for **study** might be the study and practice of the vowel sound in «ship» «and » « sheep» (e.g., chip – cheap, dip – deep, bit – beat, etc), the study and practice of the third person singular of the present simple (He sleeps, She laughs, It works, etc), the study and practice of inviting patterns (Would you like to come to the cinema / to the concert?, etc), the study and practice of the way we use pronouns in written discourse (e.g. 'A man entered a house in Brixton. He was tall with an unusual hat. IT was multicoloured…etc), the study and practice of paragraph organization. (topic sentence, development, conclusion) or of the rules for using ·'make' and' do'.

Successful language learning in a classroom depends on a judicious blend of subconscious language acquisition (through listening and reading, for example) and the kind of **study** activities we have looked at here.

➕ ACTIVATE

This element describes exercises and activities which are designed to get students using language as freely and 'communicatively' as they can. The objective for the students is not to focus on language construction and / or practice specific bits of language (grammar patterns, particular vocabulary items or functions) but for them to use all and any language which may be appropriate for a given situation or topic.

Thus, *activate* exercises offer students a chance to try out real language use with little or no restriction – a kind of rehearsal for the real world.

Typical *activate* exercises include role-plays (where students act out, as realistically as possible, an exchange between a travel agent and a client, for example), debates and discussions. 'Describe and Draw' (where one student tries to get another to draw a picture without that other student being able to see the original), story and poem writing, writing in groups, etc.

If students do not have a chance to *activate* their knowledge in the safety of a classroom, they may find transferring language acquisition and study into language use in the real world far more problematical.

These ESA elements need to be present in most lessons or teaching sequences. Whether the main focus of the lesson is a piece of grammar (in which case there will be opportunities for **study** and **activate**), or whether the focus is on reading (where there may be a lot of *Activation* of language knowledge in the processing of the text, but where, at some stage, the students will also **study** the construction of that text or the use of some language within it), students always need to be **engaged,** if possible, so that they can get the maximum out of the learning experience. Most students will want to have **studied** some aspects of language, however small or of short duration, during a lesson period.

There are some exceptions to this, of course, notably in classes where an *activation* exercise takes up a lot of time, for example, with a debate or a role – play or a piece of extended writing. In such cases, teachers may not want to interrupt the flow of *activation,* with a **study,** stage. But they will want to use the exercise as a basis for previous or subsequent study of language aspects which are crucial to the activity. The same might be true of an extended. **Study** period where chances for *activation* are few. But, in both cases, the only limitation is time. The missing elements will appear, only perhaps later.

The majority of teaching and learning at lower levels is not made up of such long activities, however. Instead, it is far more likely that there will be more than one **ESA** sequence in a given lesson sequence or period.

To say that the three elements need to be present does not mean they always have to take place in the same order. The last thing we want to do is bore our students by constantly offering them the same predictable learning patterns.

It is, instead, our responsibility to vary the sequences and content of our lessons, and the different ESA patterns that we are now going to describe show how this can be done.

- o **How do the three elements of ESA fit together in lesson sequences?**

One type of teaching sequence takes students in a straight line: first the teacher gets the class interested and *engaged,* then they *study* something and the then try to *activate* it by putting it into production.

However, if we teach all our lessons like this, we may not be giving our students own learning styles a fair chance. Such a procedure may work at lower levels for straightforward language, but it might not be so appropriate for more advanced learners with more complex language.

Thus while there is not nothing wrong with going in a straight line – for the right students at the right level learning the right language – it is not always appropriate. Instead there are other possibilities for the sequence of the ESA elements. Here, for example is a 'Boomerang' procedure.

1. **ENGAGE:** students and teacher discuss issues surrounding job interviews. What makes a good interviewee? What sort of things does the interviewer want to find out? The students get interested in the discussion.

2. **ACTIVATE:** the teacher describes an interview situation which the students are going to act out in a role – play. The students plan the kind of questions they are going to ask and the kind of answers they might want to give (not focusing on language construction etc., but treating it as a real – life tasks). They then role–play the interviews. While they are doing this, the teacher makes a note of English mistakes they make and difficulties they have.

3. **STUDY:** when the role – plays are over, the teacher works with the students on the grammar and vocabulary which caused them trouble during the role – play. They might compare their language with more correct usage and try to work out (discover) for themselves where they went wrong. They might do some controlled practice of the language.

4. **ACTIVATE:** some time later, students role-play another job interview, bringing in the knowledge they gained in the *study* phase.

   It can be represented as follows:

EAS (A)

52
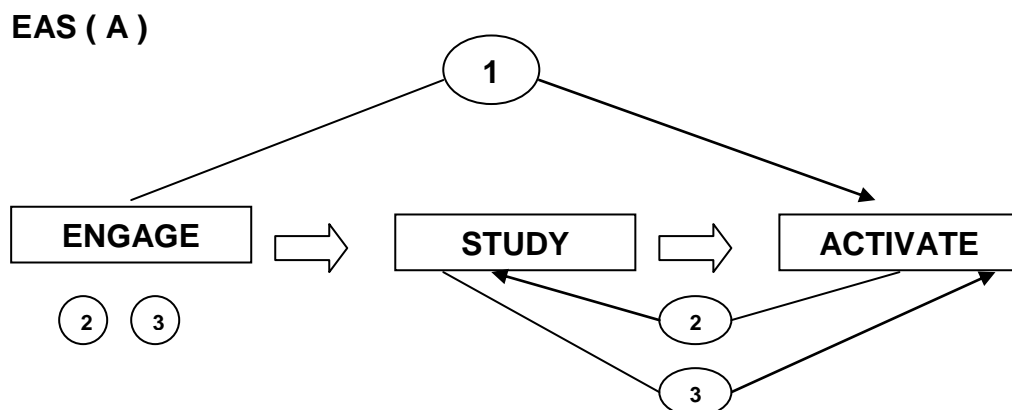
In this sequence the teacher is answering the needs of the students. They are not taught language until and unless they have shown (in the *activate* phase) that they have a need for it. In some ways, this makes much better sense because the connection between what students need to learn and what they are taught is more transparent. However, it places a greater burden on the teacher since he or she will have to be able to find a good teaching material based on the often unforeseen problems thrown up at the *activate* stage. It may also be more appropriate for students at intermediate and advanced levels since they have quite a lot of language available for them at the *activate* stage. **Douglas Brown, in Teaching by Principles (2001).**

How to teach strategies in the classroom

According to **Rebeca Oxford (1990)** provides the most comprehensive taxonomy of learning strategies currently available. These strategies are divided into what have come to be known as direct or cognitive strategies, which learners apply directly to the language itself, and indirect or meta-cognitive strategies, in which learners manage or control their own learning process. Direct strategies include a number of different ways of:

- Remembering more effectively
- Using all your cognitive processes
- Compensating for missing knowledge

Indirect strategies according to Oxford's taxonomy, include

- Organizing and evaluating your learning
- Managing your emotions
- Learning with others

In order to become familiar with some specific strategies for successful language learning. Strategies, like styles, can be taught, and because of their specificity, even more easily than styles. There are at least different approaches you can take to teaching strategies in the language classroom.

- o **Teach strategies through interactive techniques:**
  Many strategies are related to, and actually become the outward manifestation of styles. For example, a risk taking style would result in seeking practice opportunities, making conversation even when it isn't "necessary", trying out language you're not sure of, asking for correction, making guesses about what someone said, etc.

  One way to familiarize your students with this plethora of possible strategies is to promote the "ten commandments" through your own classroom techniques.

"Ten Commandments" for good language learning

Teacher's Version	Learner's Version
1. Lower inhibitions	Fear not!
2. Encourage risk-taking	Dive in
3. Build self-confidence	Believe in yourself
4. Develop intrinsic motivation	Seize the day
5. Engage in cooperative learning	Love thy neighbor
6. Use right – brain processes.	Get the BIG picture
7. Promote ambiguity tolerance.	Cope with the chaos
8. Practice intuition.	Go with your hunches
9. Process error feedback	Make mistakes work FOR you.
10. Set personal goals	Set your own goals.

Some techniques will be the ones you would utilize anyway. Other techniques will perhaps be specifically geared toward building strategic competence. In the following table offered some suggestions for creating an atmosphere in your classroom in which students feel comfortable and are encouraged to develop their own strategies.

- **To lower inhibitions:** play guessing games and communication games; do role – plays and skits; sing songs; use plenty of group work; laugh with your students; have them share their fears in small groups.

- **To encourage risk – taking:** praise students for making sincere efforts to try out language, use fluency exercises where errors are not corrected at the time; give outside –of class assignments to speak or write or otherwise try out the language.

- **To build student's self-confidence:** tell students explicitly (verbally and nonverbally), that you indeed believe in them; have them make lists of their strengths, of what they know or have accomplished so far in the course.

- **To help them to develop intrinsic motivation:** remind them about then rewards for learning English; describe (or have students look up) jobs that require English; play down the final examination in favor of helping students to see rewards for themselves beyond the final exam.

- **To promote cooperative learning:** direct students share their knowledge, play down competition among students; get your class to think of themselves as a team; do a considerable amount of small group work.

- **To encourage them to use right brain processing:** use movies and tapes in class; have them read passages rapidly; do skimming exercises; do rapid "free writes"; do oral fluency exercises where the object is to get students to talk (or write) a lot without being corrected.

- **To promote ambiguity tolerance:** encourage students to ask you, and each other, questions when they don't understand something; Keep your theoretical explanations very simple and brief; deal with just a few rules at

the time occasionally resort to translation into a native language to clarify a word or meaning.

- **To help them use their intuition:** praise students for good guesses; do not always give explanations of errors - let a correction suffice; correct only selected errors, preferably just those that interfere with learning.

- **To get students to make their mistakes work FOR them:** tape - record students' oral production and get them to identify errors; let students catch and correct each other's errors, do not always give them the correct form; encourage students to make lists of their common errors and to work on them on their own.

- **To get students to set their own goals:** explicitly encourage or direct students to go beyond the classroom goals; have them make lists of what they will accomplish on their own in a particular week; get students to make specific time commitments at home to study the language; give "extra – credit" work.

Music in the Classroom

Follow **Kenneth Beare,** the use of music in the classroom can make the entire learning process more enjoyable and can stimulate "right" brain learning. Six years ago researchers reported that people scored better on a standard IQ test after listening to Mozart. Other tests soon followed: Rats raised on Mozart run through mazes faster and more accurately.

Just think of all the times you have used music to help you study for tests, think clearly about something, relax from daily stress, etc. If you think about it, using music in the ESL EFL classroom is a pretty logical thing to do considering how helpful it can be to the learning process. **Setting the scene Musically**

Using music to introduce an exercise is a great way to activate vocabulary and get students thinking in the right direction.

2.4 TECHNOLOGY IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

When someone mentions technology in the language classroom, your first impulse is to think computer technology, mostly because computers have so pervaded our daily home and workplace contexts. But technology covers everything from audiotape players to video to yes, computers.

Technology may have first entered the language classroom in the 1950s and 1960s in the form of the language laboratory. Institutions hastened to dedicate rooms to the installation of multiple tape-deck –equipped booths where students gathered to listen to native speakers modeling the drills of the current day's lesson In the early days, those students were lucky to be able to record their own voices on one track of a tape in an attempt to match the native speaker model otherwise, they simply had the benefit of a listening lab. The advent of the language lab brought promises of great breakthroughs in language teaching; technology would come to the rescue of less than totally effective methods.

But when students were not being transformed into communicatively proficient speakers via the language lab, we discovered that there were some severe limitations to this new technological aid.

Computer assisted language learning (CALL)

The recent advances of the technology in educational applications of computer hardware and software have provided rapidly growing resource for language classrooms. The practical applications of CALL are growing at such a rapid pace that it is almost impossible for a classroom teacher to keep up with the field. But don't let the multitude of options discourage you from at least considering some CALL applications in your own teaching

Here are some thoughts to start the wheels of your mind turning on the topic of computers and language learning. No attempt has been made here to exhaust the topic for summaries of current applications and issues refer to overviews such as those found in **Warschauer** and **Healey (1998), Blake** (**1998), Hanson – Smith (1997), Boswood (1997),** and **Waschauer (1995).** The following may whet your appetite for CALL.

- ✓ **Collaborative Projects:** research projects can be carried out utilizing data available on the World Wide Web and other information resources. Analysis of data can bedone with data management or statistical processing software. Charts, graphics and text can be generated for presentation of findings to the rest of the class.

- ✓ **Peer- editing of compositions:** The exchange of diskettes or of material on networked computers offer students an efficient means of peer editing of drafts of compositions. Many instructors now use e-mail to correspond with students, and viceversa. Instructors can easily manage comments on final drafts though this technology.

- ✓ **Email:** The most obvious form of using e-mail for English teaching is giving students the possibility for actual communication with individuals around the world. Discussion lists provide opportunities for reading and writing on topics of interest. Email "pen pals" have become popular. Through the web, certain chat programs offer students the novelty of real time communication. Teachers have used e-mail communication for such things as dialogue journals with students and collaboration with other teachers.

- ✓ **Web page design:** A rapidly growing number of educational institutions have offered courses to students in web page design. In the process students not only become acquainted with computer technology in general but utilize English in doing research on a topic composing and designing and collaborating with other students.

- ✓ **Reinforcement of classroom material:** with ready availability of a wide array of software programs, course objectives can be reinforced, and added material can be made available. A number of textbooks now come with an accompanying CD-ROM disk filled with practice exercises, self check tests, and extra reading material. Some course programs such as **Brown (1999).** Include an online section in each unit , which encourages use of internet

related activity. The process of learning to read a foreign language can be enhanced through computer adaptive programs that offer lexical and grammatical information at predicted points of difficulty.

✓ **Games and simulations:** Not to be overlooked are the many engaging games and simulations, many of them involving verbal language, that present students with stimulating problem solving tasks that get them to use functional language to pursue the goals of the games. Carefully planned uses of such games in the classroom (e.g. for practicing certain verbs, tenses, questions, locatives, etc.) add some interest to a classroom.

✓ **Computer adaptive testing:** Currently most widely standardized tests are computer-based. Sooner or later, most language students will need to perform such a test, designed to gauge the test –taker's level as the responses are made. During the early items, from a bank of possible items, that will be neither too easy nor too difficult and present an optimal challenge.

✓ **Speech processing:** Still on the horizon, but getting close to the cutting edge, is the affordable technological capacity for a computer to process (understand) human speech and respond to it. Speech recognition programs for the language classroom have a multitude of potential applications simple exercises in pronunciation, feedback graphs showing accuracy of a learner's control of phonemic and prosodic elements input for those who don't type rapidly and the wish list goes on. While "we've still got a very long way to go before CALL can be accurately called intelligent. **Warsehauer (1998)**, this new technology is becoming more and more sophisticated.

Integrating Technology into the Language Arts Classroom

There are numerous ways English and language arts teachers can integrate technology into classroom instruction. Teachers of language arts and literature can use the Internet, digital media tools, and common software applications to enhance student learning.

Technology can help you:

- Create visual aids for teaching
- Improve access to resources, such as online literature libraries
- Review and comment on student work more efficiently
- Integrate video clips into presentations
- Broaden choices for students to demonstrate learning

*This article was contributed by **Janice Christy, M.Ed., English Department Chair, Louisa County High School, Louisa, Virginia.** Glencoe/Mc Graw – Hill (2005)*

Incorporating Technology into the Foreign Language Classroom

According to **Dr. Lucy García Willis,** says that education is a growing field, and one that continues to promote change in the classroom, in the institution, in the way we learn. A major cause of this change is the use of technology in and out of the classroom. New methods and new technologies require a commitment on the part of the institution to explore the different means of delivery and to consider these technologies in meeting the ever-changing needs of students. While the use of technology has been wide-spread in the English composition and math classes, the foreign language classroom has not been as quick to embrace it. Research shows a resurgence of the use of the language laboratory, but the computer has had little use in terms of information delivery and student participation.

Follow **Matt D. Stroud, Ph.D. (1998)** says that nowadays technology is very important in the learning of the students, because it has a number of assumptions behind it.

First, on the side of language learning and instruction, it is assumed

1. That students do not necessarily need only structured drills in order to learn, that language acquisition takes place any time the student is dealing with the target language (one might make the pedagogical leap and assume that the more students are engaged with a target literature or culture the more they will learn about those as well);

2. That information that students discover on their own has greater impact than information they are told or that they gain through memorization;

3. That "authentic language" is more engaging and useful (although occasionally problematic) than created pedagogical language, and that, as a result, students will be interested in accessing authentic language web pages in their target language, perhaps enough so to click on a few links of their own and go exploring, thus spending more time with the language and culture;

4. That websites and other software appropriate to a language lesson can occasionally be brought into class, thus giving the students a common "lab" experience;

5. That culture, which has been recognized as essential to full comprehension of another language, is easier to comprehend from real-life web pages than from the distilled cultural overviews usually written into textbooks;

6. That language, literature, and culture are intertwined so that one cannot really know one without knowing something of the others and that one always learns something about the others by studying one of them; and

7. That professors are willing to adapt their materials to include Internet materials and accommodate the unexpected, such as when a student brings a previously unknown site to the attention of the class;

Second, on the side of the technology, it is assumed:

1. That there is plentiful material available online already, that more is posted every day, and that instructional software not available anywhere else can be created (in other words, one can "visit" a foreign country online thanks to the copious resources available, second only to a real-time visit with target language speakers);

2. That all students have access to multimedia computers, either through public computer labs on campus or through personal computers linked to a campus network, and that the students can enter and read foreign characters (relatively easy in Spanish and German, not so easy in Chinese and Arabic).

3. That students are familiar with personal computing, using either Macintosh or Windows, and that all have network-compatible operating systems (for PC's, Window 3.11 or Windows 95); and

4. That computers are here to stay so all of us, teachers and students, should endeavor to find the best use of them for the foreign language classroom.

✓ **Online Activities**
   The following is a list of the most popular kinds of activities multimedia technology offers to students:

- e-mail, discussion, chat, and lists
- web page creation
- games, including web hunts
- current events: news, sports, leisure activities
- information retrieval; research
- authentic language through personal web pages
- images and maps available to supplement readings
- analyze texts electronically
- online audio and video

2.5 THE PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE CLASSROOM

Follow **Denisse Young** say that, the classroom is "home away from home" for you and your students. Make it attractive and functional. Consider grade/age level appropriateness, the type of classroom activities you will be implementing, and your particular style. For example, consider the various areas of the classroom and design those areas for use in a variety of activities. The physical aspects of your room include room arrangement, seating, bulletin boards and black/white board displays and physical climate. Each of these should be carefully considered with both individual students' needs and instructional goals in mind.
While you consider how to arrange your classroom, several things are important to remember. The seating arrangement should be designed in a systematic way so that the organization of the seats helps the students to feel more organized. Sometimes, this sense of organization is helped if students have assigned seats. Make sure the room has only the amount of furniture that is functional and does not contain useless or non-essential furnishings. The entrance to your room and the hallway outside should not cause distractions to students during

lessons. Additionally, seats should be arranged in such a way as to reduce traffic distractions. For example, as students get up to go to the bathroom or pencil sharpener they should not overly distract students they pass. Allow plenty of space for foot traffic, especially around areas where supplies are stored.

The physical climate

Your classroom's lighting and temperature will affect student achievement. They should be comfortable and conducive to student learning. Some students need more light than others, some may want it to be warmer or cooler than others. These things will have to be worked out through compromise — and sometimes with the help of a few sweaters.

Generally speaking, make sure that the room temperature is moderate to cool. Warm classrooms tend to lead students to be more sleepy, inattentive, and consequently bored and disruptive. If necessary use a fan to maintain a good airflow, keeping the room cooler. If your room has windows that open, check to make sure they can be opened easily. Outside air is a bonus for several months of the year.

Make sure that the lighting in the room is adequate. Plants are an excellent way to make any room look more welcoming.

Classroom Organization

✓ **Arranging Space**
The physical layout reflects your teaching style. If you want students to collaborate in small groups, for example, organize them around tables or clusters of desks. For frequent whole-group discussions, try a circle or U-shaped desk configuration. If you plan on an individualized, self-paced curriculum, you might set up learning stations.

The physical layout should also reflect you. Don't hesitate to give the room your personal touch with plants, art, rugs, posters, and maybe some cozy pillows for the reading corner.

Many teachers prefer to create different areas within the classroom. For example, a classroom might feature a quiet reading corner, a music area where students can play soft music while completing work, a discussion/conversation center, a large table for cooperative projects, spaces for wet or messy projects, multimedia spaces, learning centers or stations, and individual work areas.

Easily accessible materials and supplies can eliminate delays, disruptions, and confusion as students prepare for activities. In poorly arranged classrooms, students spend a lot of time waiting — waiting in line, waiting for help, waiting to begin. To eliminate some waiting, store frequently used items such as scissors and paste in several different areas.

✓ **Desk Placement**
In many classrooms, the largest amount of space is devoted to the arrangement of individual student desks. Teachers vary greatly on their preferred arrangements, but most agree that the days of 30 desks lined in neat rows and

facing the teacher's desk up front are long gone. Instead, some teachers like to arrange desks in cooperative groups of four, while many others prefer a U-shaped configuration, where everyone has a front row seat.

"Arrange the room so that you can make eye contact with every student and reach each student with ease," suggests the teacher **Jane Baird.**

But no matter how you arrange desks, don't be afraid to make changes.
"Set your room up, and at the end of each unit or each month, evaluate and make changes," advises another teacher **Laurie Borger**. "Move the students' desks on a regular basis so *all* youths learn to cooperate with *all* youths."

Another teacher Pamela Shannon agrees: "Don't be afraid to make seat and desk changes if the arrangement doesn't work. *You* are in charge."

✓ **Environmental Preferences**
Other important environmental features include **temperature, lighting, and noise level**. These factors affect students in different ways and are directly related to individual learning styles. Studies suggest that when teachers adjust the environment to students' preferences, the students perform better academically and are better behaved.

How can you address environmental preferences in the classroom? Here are some tips from research and practice:

- **Create both well-lit and dimly-lit areas in the classroom:** by using bookcases, screens, plants, and other furniture. Some children learn best in bright light, but others do significantly better in low light. Bright light actually makes some students restless and hyperactive. Try allowing students to sit where they feel most comfortable, or try placing fidgety children in low-light areas and listless children in brighter areas.

- **Provide opportunities for students to move around:** while visiting learning centers and other special classroom areas. Most of us have the mistaken impression that students learn best when sitting still, but research now proves that many children need extensive mobility while learning. These students learn significantly more if they move from one area to another as they acquire new information.

- **Establish informal furniture arrangements:** where students can sit on soft chairs or pillows, or lounge on the carpet. Another myth is that students learn best when sitting up straight in hard chairs. About 75 percent of the total body weight is supported on only four square inches of bone when humans sit up straight in a hard chair, so it is easy to understand how the resulting stress on the buttock tissues causes fatigue, discomfort, and the need for frequent changes in posture. Research supports the common-sense notion that many students pay better attention and achieve higher grades in more comfortable settings.

- **Establish listening stations** with headsets for children who need sound, and quiet study areas for those who work best in silence. Many children disprove another commonly held conception: that silence helps kids concentrate better.

- **Help students become aware of their own temperature preferences** and encourage them to dress accordingly. Temperature preferences vary dramatically, and most students can't concentrate when they are either too cool or too warm.

This article was taken by Scholastic Red on line course. "**Reading Success for English Language Learners" (2007).**

Creating an Effective Physical Classroom Environment

Every teacher knows that a safe, clean, comfortable and attractive classroom can stimulate learning and help build a classroom community. But for many teachers, setting up the physical environment of their classrooms can be quite daunting, especially when faced with older buildings, crowded classrooms and insufficient storage space. You can make the most of your classroom environment by carefully considering your needs and the needs of your students.

✓ **Survey Your Classroom: Looking at the Basics**

The first things to consider when organizing your classroom are cleanliness, light and temperature. Although you may not have complete control over some of these elements, try to make or suggest improvements as necessary.

✓ **The Floor Plan: Assessing Your Needs**

Once you have checked the basic elements in your classroom, think about your floor plan. It should maximize classroom space and reflect your individual teaching style.

Your floor plan will also depend on the grade you are teaching. For the lower grades, your classroom setup may include many different learning areas, such as a reading area, an art center and a technology center. The placement of these areas will depend upon the layout of your classroom. However, when setting up these areas, you will want to keep the following points in mind:

- Room dividers should be low so that all areas are visible to you.
- Areas that invite group work should not be next to quiet areas where students read or study independently.
- Art or other messy areas are best located near a sink.
- You should always be able to make eye contact with all students.

✓ **Classroom Decor: Facing the Blank Canvas**

Encourage students to make the classroom space their own. Welcome their contributions to its decoration, and urge them to take responsibility for its

maintenance. Here are some easy, low-cost ways to make your classroom into an inviting, effective space for all:

✓ **Dress Up the Walls**

- Interesting and attractive visual aids, such as bulletin boards and posters, are key components of an effective classroom. Wall decorations should be colorful, appealing and relevant to current class-work. They should be rotated and refreshed frequently.

- Be sure to think about the cultural backgrounds of your students when dressing the walls. Try to represent your students' diversity on posters or bulletin boards.

- Set aside a section of the bulletin board to be your designated "Student Work Museum" and post children's drawings, written work and other projects there. Make sure that each student's work is displayed often.

- Post daily schedules in a place where students can read them easily. This accessibility of the classroom schedule can help students grow comfortable with class and school routines. For younger students, make a daily schedule that includes pictures or icons.

✓ **Use Lots of Storage Space**

- The primary classroom should have as much storage space as possible, both for students' personal belongings and for shared tools and materials. Each child should have a personal space, such as a desk or a cubby and a coat hook, for his or her own things.

- General classroom storage should be easily available to older students, who should be more responsible for collective belongings. Storage areas for any materials that younger students may access, such as crayons or books, should be clearly labeled (with words and pictures) so that children can clean up without your help. Rehearse the Classroom

When you've finished setting up your classroom, give it a practice run or two. Walk through a typical school day, making sure that both you and the students have enough space to work and move around, that everyone in the classroom can see and hear and that every part of the room is as pleasant as possible. For example, write on the blackboard, and then take a walk around the room. Check sight lines from every spot where students might be working.

Your classroom will continue to change and evolve as the school year progresses. These suggestions can help you create a classroom environment that is welcoming, comfortable, clean and secure.

This article was taken from web page **www.teachervision.fen.com (Pearson Education 2007)**

The Physical Environment of the classroom

According to **Douglas Brown, in Teaching by Principles (2001)** say that one of simplest principles of classroom management centers on the physical environment for learning the classroom itself. Consider four categories:

1. **Sight, sound and comfort**
   As trivial as it may first appear in the face of your decisions to implement language teaching principles in an array of clever techniques, students are indeed profoundly affected by what they see, hear and feel when they enter the classroom. If you have any power to control the following, then it will be worth your time to do so.

   - The classroom is neat, clean and orderly in appearance.

   - Chalkboards are erased

   - Chairs are appropriately arranged (see below)

   - If the room has bulletin boards and you have the freedom to use them, can you occasionally take advantage of visuals?

   - The classroom is as free from external noises as possible (machinery outside, street noise, hallway voices, etc.).

   - Acoustics within your classroom are at least tolerable.

   - Heating or cooling systems (if applicable) are operating.

2. **Seating arrangements**
   You may have had the experience of walking into a classroom and finding the movable desks all lined up in columns (not rows) that are perpendicular to the front wall of the room. Neat and orderly, right? Wrong. If you won't get fired from your teaching post by doing so, change the pattern immediately. Students are members   of a team and should be able to see one another, to talk to one another. (in English).and not be made to feel like they just walked into a military formation.

   If your classroom has movable desk-chairs, consider patterns of semi-circles. U- shapes, concentric circles, or if your class size is small enough one circle so that students aren't all squarely facing the teacher. If the room has tables with two to four students at each, try to come up with configurations that make interaction among students most feasible. Give some thought to how students will do small group and pair work with as little chaos as possible.

   Should you determine who sits next to whom?. Normally, students will soon fall into a   comfortable pattern of selection in where they sit. You may not need to tamper with this arrangement unless you feel the need to force a different "mix" of students. In some ESL contexts or where students come from varied native language backgrounds, English will be more readily

practiced if students of the same native language are not sitting next to each other.

3. **Chalkboard use**

The chalkboard is one of your greatest allies. It gives students added visual input along with auditory. It allows you to illustrate with words and pictures, graphs and charts. It is always there and it is recyclable! So, take advantage of this instant visual aid by profusely using the chalkboard. At the same time, try to be neat and orderly in your chalkboard use, erasing as often as appropriate, a messy, confusing chalkboard drives students crazy.

4. **Equipment**

The "classroom" may be construed to include any equipment you may be using. If you're using electrical equipment (say, an overhead projector or a video player), make sure that

- The room has outlets

- The equipment fits comfortably in the room.

- Everyone can see (and / or hear) the visual / auditory stimulus.

- You leave enough time before and after class to get the equipment and return it to its proper place.

- The machine actually works.

- You know how to operate it

- There is an extra light bulb or battery or whatever else you'll need if a routine replacement is in order.

You would be surprised how many lesson plans get thrown out the window because of some very minor practicality surrounding the use of equipment.

CHAPTER THREE.

TEACHING LANGUAGE SKILLS: INTEGRATING THE "FOUR SKILLS" (LISTENING, SPEAKING, READING AND WRITING).

For more than six decades now research and practice in English language teaching has identified the "four skills", listening, speaking, reading and writing as of paramount importance. ESL, curricula and textbooks around the world tend to focus on one or two of the four skills, sometimes to the exclusion of the others. And a visit to the most recent TESOL. Convention will offer you a copious assortment of presentations indexed according to the four skills.

It is perfectly appropriate to identify language performance thus. The human race has fashioned two forms of productive performance oral and written and two forms of receptive performance, aural (or auditory) and reading. There are, of course, offshoots of each mode. Lumped together under non-verbal communication are various visually perceived messages delivered through gestures, facial expressions, proximity, and so forth. Graphic art (drawings, paintings, and diagrams) is also a powerful form of communication. But attention to the four different skills does indeed pay off as learners of a foreign language discover the differences and interrelationships among these four primary modes of performance.

Despite our history of treating the four skills in separate segment of a curriculum, there is a recent trend toward skill integration. That is, rather than designing a curriculum to teach the many aspects of one skill say, reading, curriculum designers are taking more of a whole language approach whereby reading is treated as one of two or more interrelated skills. A course that deals with reading skills, then, will also deal with related listening, speaking and writing skills. A lesson in a so-called reading class, under this new paradigm might include:

- A pre-reading *discussion* of the topic to activate schemata
- *Listening* to a lecture or a series of informative statements about the topic of a passage to be read.
- A focus on a certain *reading* strategy, say scanning
- *Writing* a paraphrase of a section of the reading passage.

This reading class, then, models for the students the real-life integration of language skills, gets them to perceive the relationship among several skills, and provides the teacher with a great deal of flexibility in creating interesting motivating lessons.

3.1 WHY IS IT IMPORTANT TO INTEGRATE THE FOUR SKILLS?

One image for teaching English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) is that of a tapestry. The tapestry is woven from many strands, such as the characteristics of the teacher, the learner, the setting, and the relevant languages (i.e., English and the native languages of the learners and the teacher). For the instructional loom to produce a large, strong, beautiful, colorful tapestry, all of these strands must be interwoven in positive ways. For example, the instructor's teaching style must address the learning style of the learner, the learner must be motivated, and the setting must provide resources and values that strongly support the teaching of the language. However, if the strands are not woven together effectively, the instructional loom is likely to produce something small, weak, ragged, and pale--not recognizable as a tapestry at all.

In addition to the four strands mentioned above--teacher, learner, setting, and relevant languages--other important strands exist in the tapestry. In a practical sense, one of the most crucial of these strands consists of the four primary skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing. This strand also includes associated or related skills such as knowledge of vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, syntax, meaning, and usage. The skill strand of the tapestry leads to optimal ESL/EFL communication when the skills are interwoven during instruction. This is known as the integrated-skill approach.

If this weaving together does not occur, the strand consists merely of discrete, segregated skills--parallel threads that do not touch, support, or interact with each other. This is sometimes known as the segregated-skill approach. Another title for this mode of instruction is the language-based approach, because the language itself is the focus of instruction (language for language's sake). In this approach, the emphasis is not on learning for authentic communication.
By examining segregated-skill instruction, we can see the advantages of integrating the skills and move toward improving teaching for English language learners.

✓ Segregated-skill instruction
In the segregated-skill approach, the mastery of discrete language skills such as reading and speaking is seen as the key to successful learning, and language learning is typically separate from content learning **(Mohan, 1986)**. This is contrary to the integrated way that people use language skills in normal communication, and it clashes with the direction in which language teaching experts have been moving in recent years.

Skill segregation is reflected in traditional ESL/EFL programs that offer classes focusing on segregated language skills. Why do they offer such classes? Perhaps teachers and administrators think it is logistically easier to present courses on writing divorced from speaking, or on listening isolated from reading. They may believe that it is instructionally impossible to concentrate on more than one skill at a time.

Even if it were possible to fully develop one or two skills in the absence of all the others, such an approach would not ensure adequate preparation for later success in academic communication, career-related language use, or everyday interaction in the language.

An extreme example is the grammar-translation method, which teaches students to analyze grammar and to translate (usually in writing) from one language to another. This method restricts language learning to a very narrow, non-communicative range that does not prepare students to use the language in everyday life.

Learning strategies are strategies that students employ, most often consciously, to improve their learning. Examples are guessing meaning based on context, breaking a sentence or word down into parts to understand the meaning, and practicing the language with someone else.

✓ **Two forms of integrated-skill instruction**
Two types of integrated-skill instruction are content-based language instruction and task-based instruction. The first of these emphasizes learning content through language, while the second stresses doing tasks that require communicative language use. Both of these benefit from a diverse range of materials, textbooks, and technologies for the ESL or EFL classroom.

"Content-Based Instruction": In content-based instruction, students practice all the language skills in a highly integrated, communicative fashion while learning content such as science, mathematics, and social studies. Content-based language instruction is valuable at all levels of proficiency, but the nature of the content might differ by proficiency level. For beginners, the content often involves basic social and interpersonal communication skills, but past the beginning level, the content can become increasingly academic and complex. The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), created by **Chamot** and **O'Malley (1994)**, shows how language learning strategies can be integrated into the simultaneous learning of content and language.

At least three general models of content-based language instruction exist:

○ theme-based,
○ adjunct,
○ sheltered

The theme-based model integrates the language skills into the study of a theme (e.g., urban violence, cross-cultural differences in marriage practices, natural wonders of the world, or a broad topic such as change). The theme must be very interesting to students and must allow a wide variety of language skills to be practiced, always in the service of communicating about the theme. This is the most useful and widespread form of content-based instruction today, and it is found in many innovative ESL and EFL textbooks.

In the **adjunct** model, language and content courses are taught separately but are carefully coordinated.

In the **sheltered** model, the subject matter is taught in simplified English tailored to students' English proficiency level. **(Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).**

"Task-Based Instruction": In task-based instruction, students participate in communicative tasks in English. Tasks are defined as activities that can stand

alone as fundamental units and that require comprehending, producing, manipulating, or interacting in authentic language while attention is principally paid to meaning rather than form. **(Nunan, 1989).**

The task-based model is beginning to influence the measurement of learning strategies, not just the teaching of ESL and EFL. In task-based instruction, basic pair work and group work are often used to increase student interaction and collaboration. For instance, students work together to write and edit a class newspaper, develop a television commercial, enact scenes from a play, or take part in other joint tasks. More structured cooperative learning formats can also be used in task-based instruction. Task-based instruction is relevant to all levels of language proficiency, but the nature of the task varies from one level to the other. Tasks become increasingly complex at higher proficiency levels. For instance, beginners might be asked to introduce each other and share one item of information about each other. More advanced students might do more intricate and demanding tasks, such as taking a public opinion poll at school, the university, or a shopping mall.

✓ **Advantages of the integrated-skill approach**
The integrated-skill approach, as contrasted with the purely segregated approach, exposes English language learners to authentic language and challenges them to interact naturally in the language. Learners rapidly gain a true picture of the richness and complexity of the English language as employed for communication. Moreover, this approach stresses that English is not just an object of academic interest nor merely a key to passing an examination; instead, English becomes a real means of interaction and sharing among people. This approach allows teachers to track students' progress in multiple skills at the same time. Integrating the language skills also promotes the learning of real content, not just the dissection of language forms. Finally, the integrated-skill approach, whether found in content-based or task-based language instruction or some hybrid form, can be highly motivating to students of all ages and backgrounds.

✓ **Integrating the language skills**
In order to integrate the language skills in ESL/EFL instruction, teachers should consider taking these steps:

- Learn more about the various ways to integrate language skills in the classroom (e.g., content-based, task-based, or a combination).

- Reflect on their current approach and evaluate the extent to which the skills are integrated.

- Choose instructional materials, textbooks, and technologies that promote the integration of listening, reading, speaking, and writing, as well as the associated skills of syntax, vocabulary, and so on.

- Even if a given course is labeled according to just one skill, remember that it is possible to integrate the other language skills through appropriate tasks.

- Teach language learning strategies and emphasize that a given strategy can often enhance performance in multiple skills.

<u>Four skills: (LISTENING, SPEAKING, READING and WRITING)</u>.

✓ *What and why?*

- Many teachers assume that the most effective way to learn is orally (through listening and speaking). Writing and reading are seen as practice stages in learning. If you have several classes, you could involve one class in considerably more in-class writing and reading. You could then see if there appears to be a direct effect on their abilities in English.

- You could vary your approach to each of the skills and see if that affects what the students produce. For example, you could sometimes ask students to first write 'fluently', without stopping to check, before they go back to read and revise what they have done. At other times, you could ask them to plan what they will write and to think carefully about each sentence as they write. You could try similar experiments with the other skills. For **reading,** ask the students to sometimes read quickly through a text without checking words, and at other times to read carefully. For **listening**, you could play a text straight through for a general impression before going back for details. At other times, you could play it in small sections. For **speaking**, you could sometimes ask the students to do a ROLE PLAY without preparation, and at other times you could ask them to prepare in **writing** first. Different students will work best in different ways. By experimenting, you can see how individual students respond to each approach.

- If the focus is on one main skill, you can see whether involving the other skills first produces a better result. For example, if you want the students to write something, you could see if their production is improved if they first read and speak about, and then listen to a text about the topic.

- Identify what you think is the students' weakest skill. You could experiment to see if it is possible to improve that skill by directly involving their stronger skills. For example, if the students seem weakest at reading, you could involve them in writing or speaking about a topic before they read about it. If writing is their weakest skill, you could ask them to read and speak about a topic first and to note down useful phrases or ideas for their own writing.

✓ **Testing integrated skills in IELTS**
A topical issue at the moment is the testing of integrated skills. To what extent does IELTS do this?
IELTS **(International English Language Testing System)**, and its predecessor ELTS, has always tested all four skills – listening, reading, writing and speaking. Scores have always been reported on a common 9-band scale. Profile scores on the four modules are reported separately and also contribute equally to an overall band score. Although each module focuses on a particular skill, and reports a score indicating the candidate's ability in that skill, test tasks often involve using other skills and are thus 'integrated' to some degree. This is most apparent in the Speaking module where information which is read or heard helps shape the candidate's own production.

Originally, ELTS, and IELTS from 1989, strongly supported the integration of skills. In the Writing module candidates were asked specifically to use ideas from one of the reading passages and had access to the text during the module. Likewise part of the Speaking module required candidates to discuss a topic covered in one of the reading passages.

In practice, this gave rise to a number of problems for both students and examiners. Students varied considerably in the use they made of the input. Some borrowed heavily from the texts in their writing or treated the task as a test of their understanding. Others made little or no reference to the texts. Some students tried to make very artificial links between their ideas and those expressed in the texts. Others seemed confused about how they should treat the 'authoritative' views expressed.

Such variation in response to the linked tasks made the achievement of fair assessment at the marking stage very difficult. In 1989 the link was removed between the Reading and the Speaking modules and in 1995 the reading-writing link was also removed. Both changes were widely welcomed by teachers and students.

The current Writing and Speaking modules are still integrated – they involve working with data or information provided. However, this is carefully controlled to ensure that the input does not require extensive or complex reading and listening. This is particularly important because a score for each skill is being reported and it would be unfair to candidates if their performance in one skill area was compromised by their ability in another.

Removal of the explicit link between the IELTS Reading, Writing and Speaking modules resulted in a more equitable form of task design. It also made it easier to control comparability of task difficulty across the many different test versions which need to be produced each year to meet the demands of candidature volume and security.

✓ **What is 'integrated assessment'?**
The term 'integrated' is sometimes used to refer to different features or qualities of testing procedures or test tasks. For example, cloze tasks have been described as 'integrative' as opposed to 'discrete point'.

A more common approach today is to talk about testing 'integrated skills'. This usually means that completion of a test task involves using more than one macro-skill. So, for example, a speaking or writing task depends upon the test taker processing some associated reading and/or listening input.

The term 'integrated' may also be used to suggest that test tasks are similar to 'real-life' language activities. This means the content is based on authentic language (however defined), and the task mirrors features of everyday 'communicative' language use which the test taker would carry out in a non-test context.

An extension of this idea is that because such tasks are 'integrated', they can provide a realistic and useful measure of how well people will communicate in a particular setting (e.g. workplace, academic). A further claim is sometimes made

that a test which reflects an 'integrated approach' will help test takers prepare appropriately for future success in that particular setting. However, studies have shown that 'future success' can depend on many different factors in addition to language proficiency.

✓ **Conclusion**

With careful reflection and planning, any teacher can integrate the language skills and strengthen the tapestry of language teaching and learning. When the tapestry is woven well, learners can use English effectively for communication.
Cambridge University Press (2007)

3.2 LISTENING COMPREHENSION IN PEDAGOGICAL RESEARCH

Listening as a major component in language learning and teaching first hit the spot-light in the late 1970s with **James Asher's (1997),** work on Total Physical Response. In TPR the role of comprehension was given prominence as learner's were given great quantities of language to listen to before they were encouraged to respond orally. Similarly, the Natural Approach recommended a significant "silent period" during which learners were allowed the security of listening without being forced to go through the anxiety of speaking before they were "ready" to do so.

Subsequent pedagogical research on listening comprehension made significant refinements in the process of listening. Studies looked at the effect of a number of different contextual characteristics and how they affect the speed and efficiency of processing aural language.

All of these issues prompt teachers to consider some specific questions about listening comprehension:

❖ What are listeners "doing" when they listen?
❖ What factors affect good listening?
❖ What are the characteristics of "real life" listening?
❖ What are the many things listeners listen for?
❖ What are some principles for designing listening techniques?
❖ How can listening techniques be interactive?
❖ What are some common techniques for teaching listening?

These and other related questions will be addressed in this chapter.

An interactive model of listening comprehension

Listening is not a one way street. It is not merely the process of a unidirectional receiving of audible symbols.. The first step of listening comprehension is the psychomotor process of receiving sound waves through the ear and transmitting nerve impulses to the brain. But that is just the beginning of what is clearly an interactive process as the brain acts on the impulses bringing to bear a number of different cognitive and effective mechanisms.

The following eight processes (adapted from Clark & Clark 1977 and Richards 1985), are all involved in comprehension. With the exception of the initial and final processes below, no sequence is implied here; they all occur if not simultaneously, then in extremely rapid succession:

1. The hearer processes what we'll call "raw speech" and holds an "image" of it in short term memory. This image consists of the constituents (phrases, clauses, cohesive markers, intonation and stress patterns) of a stream of speech.

2. The hearer determines the type of speech even being processed (for example: conversation, a speech, a radio broadcast) and then appropriately "colors" the interpretation of the perceived message.

3. The hearer infers the objectives of the speaker through consideration of the type of speech event, the context and the content. For example: one determines whether the speaker wishes to persuade, to request, to exchange pleasantries, to affirm, to deny, to inform, and so forth. Thus the function of the message is inferred.

4. The hearer recalls background information relevant to the particular context and subject matter. A lifetime of experiences and knowledge is used to perform cognitive associations in order to bring a plausible interpretation to the message.

5. The hearer assigns a literal meaning to the utterance. This process involves a set of semantic interpretations of the surface strings that the ear has perceived. In many instances, literal and intended meanings match. For example, if one of your students walks into your office while you are madly grading papers and says she has a question that she would appreciate your answer to then says: "Do you have the time?" the literal meaning (Do you posses enough time now to answer me?) is appropriate. However this process may take on a peripheral role in cases where literal meanings are irrelevant to the message, as in metaphorical or "idiomatic" language. For example, a stranger sitting beside you on a bus has been silent for a period of time and then says "Do you have the time?", your appropriate response is not yes or no but rather "It's quarter to nine;" or whatever. Second language learners must, in such cases, learn to go "beneath" the surface of such language in order to interpret correctly.

6. The hearer assigns an intended meaning to the utterance. The person on the bus intended meaning to the utterance. The person on the bus intended to find out what time of day it was, even though the literal meaning didn't directly convey that message. How often do misunderstandings stem from false assumptions that are made on the hearer's part about the intended meaning of the speaker? A key to human communication is the ability to match perceived meaning with intended meaning. This match – making, of course can extend well beyond simple metaphorical and idiomatic language. It can apply to short and long stretches of discourse and its breakdown can be caused by careless speech, inattention of the hearer, conceptual complexity, contextual miscues, psychological barriers, and a host of other performance variables.

7. The hearer determines whether information should be retained in short term or long term memory. Short term memory a matter of a few seconds is appropriate in contexts that call for a quick oral response from the hearer.

Long term memory is more common when say, you are processing information in a lecture.

8. The hearer deletes the form in which the message was originally received. The words, phrases and sentences are quickly forgotten "pruned" in 99 percent of speech acts. You have no need to retain this sort of cognitive "clutter".

It should be clear from the foregoing that listening comprehension is an interactive process. After the initial reception of sound, we human beings perform at least seven other major operations on that set of sound waves. In conversational settings, of course, further interaction takes place immediately after the listening stage as the hearer becomes speaker in a response of some kind. All these processes are important for you to keep in mind as you teach. They are all relevant to a learner's purpose of listening, to performance factors that may cause difficulty in processing speech, to overall principles of effective listening techniques, and to the choices you make of what techniques to use and when to use them in your classroom. **Douglas Brown, in Teaching by Principles (2001)**

3.3   WHAT MAKES LISTENING DIFFICULT?

The gap between teaching and learning reveals the fact that language teachers might have overlooked the dilemma of the students and have failed to provide students with what they really need for their improvement of listening skills and competence to cope with authentic language and real-life situations.

Firstly, teachers are certainly ahead of their students in their linguistic competence. Secondly, they have the transcripts of the listening materials, and, they are equipped with all the answers to the questions. Lastly, most of the time, if not all the time, they test listening rather than teaching it **(Sheerin, 1987)**, for it is not uncommon to see that listening class proceeds as the teacher plays the audio tapes, does a little explaining, asks a few questions, and then checks answers with the students. Consequently, while teachers enjoy the simplicity of teaching listening, students are struggling with the difficulty of learning it. Even after years of taking the course, many students still show unsatisfactory sign of progress in their listening competence. The results of students' CET tests show that students' listening ability is generally lower than their ability in reading and writing. When it comes to real-life listening, students trained in the mainstream school context especially demonstrate a lack of readiness. All these facts lead us to believe that it does not just happen that teaching listening is biased as a job requiring less efforts and competence. It is time language teachers put themselves in the shoes of the learners, tried to figure out what has caused all the difficulties in their listening comprehension so as to make things easier for students.

Understanding the Difficulties of L2 Listening Comprehension

Learning a foreign language is an enormous task that requires a plethora of hard work and engagement, not to mention learning in a foreign language setting, where learners' exposure to the target language is inadequate and

chances of their using the language they have learned outside the classroom are rare. In contrary to what many language teachers assume, listening comprehension in a second language, in particular, involves highly complex meta cognitive processes. It involves a set of skills in its own right (**Long 1989, cited in Flowerdew 1994)**, the teaching and learning of which represent challenge to teachers and students alike.

The Features of Real-life Situations

Before we get a full picture of what an L2 learner's difficulties are in listening comprehension, we need to have a clear idea about what the objective of listening comprehension practice in the classroom. According to Ur, the objective of listening comprehension practice, in principle, is that students should learn to function successfully in real-time listening situations. This being so, it makes sense to examine first of all what real-life listening is, and what sorts of things the listener needs to be able to do in order to comprehend satisfactorily in a variety of situations. **(Ur 1996:124). Flowerdew (1994**)

According to **Ur (1996), Brown (2001), et al**., the most significant characteristics of real-life listening situations are informal spoken discourse, which is represented by:

a. **Brevity of "chunks" or clustering:**. In spoken English, due to memory limitations and the predisposition for "chunking", speakers break down speech into smaller groups of words.

b. **Pronunciation:** The pronunciation of words is often slurred, and noticeably different from the phonological representation given in a dictionary. For instance, "or right" is for "all right", "Sh' we go?" for "Shall we go?"

c. **Vocabulary Colloquial:** words or slang are used, e.g. "guy" is used for "man, or kid or child".

d. **Grammar:** somewhat ungrammatical: utterances do not usually divide neatly into sentences; a grammatical structure may change in mid-utterance; unfinished clauses are common.

e. **Noise:** Conversations and speeches almost always take place where there is background noise, near or distant.

f. **Redundancy:** repetition, paraphrase, glossing with utterances in parenthesis, self-correction, the use of "fillers" such as "I mean, well, er." This to some extent compensates for the gaps created by "noise". It can help the hearer to process meaning by offering more time and extra information.

g. **Non-repetition:** The discourse will not be repeated verbatim, normally it is heard only once, though this may be compensated for by the redundancy of the discourse, and by the possibility of requesting repetition or explanation.

Other characteristics of real-life situations illustrate the interactional and transactional nature of listening, which include:

✓ **Listener Expectation or Purpose**

The listener almost always knows in advance something about what is going to be said: who is speaking, for example, or the basic topic. Linked to this is his or her purpose: we normally have some objective in listening beyond understanding for its own sake-- to find out something, for example. And we expect to hear something relevant to our purpose.

✓ **Looking as well as Listening**

Only a very small proportion of listening is done "blind"—to the radio or telephone, for example. Normally, we have something to look at that is linked to what is being said: usually the speaker him- or herself, but often other visual stimuli as well, for example a map, scene or object, or the environment in general.

✓ **Ongoing Purposeful Listener Response**

The listener is usually responding at intervals as the discourse is going on. It is relatively rare for us to listen to extended speech and respond only at the end. The responses, moreover, are normally directed related to the listening purpose and are only occasionally a simple demonstration of comprehension.

✓ **Speaker Attention**

The speaker usually directs his or her speech at the listener, takes the listener's character, intentions, etc., into account when speaking, and often responds directly to his or her reactions, whether verbal or nonverbal, by changing or adapting the discourse (Ur 1996:124-5).

✓ **The Implications of L2 Learners' Difficulties in Listening Comprehension for Pedagogical Practice**

The L2 learners' difficulties in listening comprehension set us thinking about our role as language teachers in the listening classroom. With learners' difficulties in mind we know there is far more we can do other than being conventionally a machine controller, or an examiner. Firstly, we can be very selective with the instructional materials. Since the objective of listening practice is to prepare students with the skills and strategies to cope with real-life situations of different kinds **(Ur 1996)**, and since many learners' stem from their unfamiliarity with the informal spoken discourse, we must purposely expose our students to authentic, or at least simulated real-life materials which contain the typical characteristics of real-life situations. A real telephone call, a chat between friends, an announcement at the airport and so on, can all serve the purpose. On the contrary, a typical written text that is read aloud as a basis for classroom listening activities is unlikely to incorporate the characteristics of the informal speech as described by Ur in the above and "will thus provide the learners with no practice in understanding the most common form of spoken discourse" (**Ur 1996**:108).

Secondly, classroom practitioners should be fully aware of the processes and the different functions and purposes involved in real-life listening situations and engage our students in building up the skills and strategies in their classroom practice. The best way of learning listening is through listening itself. In other

words, learners should be provided with the opportunities to process the language by bottom-up, top-down processing, and engage in the inter-actional and transactional dimensions of listening comprehension.

Thirdly, language teachers must come to the realization that although most L2 learners have similar problems in listening comprehension, not everyone's problems stem from the same causes. Efforts must be made in order to help students figure out what, in particular, causes a certain learner's failure of understanding so that they can have a focus on their own problems. 'Discovery listening', a method recommended by **Wilson (2003)**, can help a learner do that in their bottom-up processing.

In sum, listening comprehension involves processes of great complexity. L2 learners have to go through painstaking experiences before they can feel at ease with listening comprehension of the target language. However, listening skills can be taught and can be learned. The expertise on the part of the teacher in this field is highly necessary for accelerating the learners' development of competence. Perceiving teaching listening as a task requiring less effort and competence is a demonstration either of irresponsibility or ignorance. A conscientious language teacher should spare no efforts trying to pinpoint the difficulties of his/her students and aid them with remedial support. Classroom practice should be directed at equipping the learners with the necessary skills and strategies to cope with real-life situations for the goal of effective communication.

✓ **Microskills of Listening Comprehension**

Through a checklist of micro-skills, you can get a good idea of what your techniques need to cover in the domain of listening comprehension. As you plan a specific technique or listening module, such a list helps you to focus on clearly conceptualized objectives. And in your evaluation of listening, these micro-skills can become testing criteria.

In the following table is just such a checklist, adapted from **Jack Richards (1983)**, and other sources. It is important to note that these seventeen micro-skills apply to conversational discourse. Less interactive forms of discourse such as listening to monologues like academic lectures includes further more specific micro-skills. Students in an academic setting need to be able to perform such things as identifying the structure of a lecture, wedding out what may be irrelevant or tangential detecting the possible biases of the speaker , critically evaluating the speaker's assertions, and developing means through note-taking, for example) of retaining the content of a lecture.

Microskills of listening comprehension (adapted from Richards 1983)

1. Retain chunks of language of different lengths in short term memory.

2. Discriminate among the distinctive sounds of English

3. Recognize English stress patterns, words in stressed unstressed positions, rhythmic structure, intonational contours, and their role in signaling information.

4. Recognized reduced forms of words

5. Distinguish word boundaries, recognize a core of words, and interpret word order patterns and their significance.

6. Process speech at different rates of delivery.

7. Process speech containing pauses, errors, corrections and other performance variables.

8. Recognize grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc) systems (e.g. tense, agreement, pluralization, patterns, rules, and elliptical forms.

9. Detect sentence constituents and distinguish between major and minor constituents.

10. Recognize that a particular meaning may be expressed in different grammatical forms.

11. Recognize cohesive devices in spoken discourse.

12. Recognize the communicative functions of utterances, according to situations, participants, goals.

13. Infer situations, participants, goals using real –world knowledge.

14. From events, ideas, etc described, predict outcomes, infer links and connections between events, deduce causes and effects, and detect such relations as main idea, supporting idea new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification.

15. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings.

16. Use facial kinesic, body language, and other non-verbal clues to decipher meanings.

17. Develop and use a battery of listening strategies, such as detecting key words, guessing the meaning of words from context, appeal for help, and signaling comprehension or lack thereof.

✓ **Types of classroom listening performance**
  With literally hundreds of possible techniques available for teaching listening skills, it will be helpful for you to think in terms of several kinds of listening performance that is, what is your students do in a listening technique. Sometimes these types of performance are embedded in a broader technique or task, and sometimes these they are themselves the sum total of the activity of a technique.

- **Reactive**
  Sometimes you want a learner simply to listen to the surface structure of an utterance for the sole purpose of repeating it back to you. While this kind of listening performance requires little meaningful processing, it

  nevertheless may be a legitimate, even though a minor,, aspect of interactive, communicative classroom. This role of the listener as merely a "tape recorder" **(Nunan 1991 b:18)**, is very limited because the listener is not generating meaning. About the only role that reactive listening can play in an interactive classroom is in brief choral or individual drills that focus on pronunciation.

- **Intensive**
  Techniques whose only purpose is to focus on components (phonemes, words intonation, discourse markers, etc) of discourse may be considered to be intensive as opposed to extensive in their requirement that students single out certain elements of spoken language. They include the bottom up skills that are important at all levels of proficiency. Examples of intensive listening performance include these:

  ❖ Students listen for cues in certain choral or individual drills.

  ❖ The teacher repeats a word or sentence several times to "imprint" it in the students mind.

  ❖ The teacher asks students to listen to a sentence or a longer stretch of discourse and to notice a specified element, such as intonation, stress, a contraction, a grammatical structure, etc.

- **Responsive**
  A significant proportion of classroom listening activity consists of short stretches of teacher language designed to elicit immediate responses. The students task in such listening is to process the teacher talk immediately and to fashion and appropriate reply. Examples include:

  ❖ Asking questions ("How are you today?" "What did you do last night ?")
  ❖ Giving commands ("take a sheet of paper and a pencil.")
  ❖ Seeking clarification ("What was that word you said?")
  ❖ Checking comprehension ("So, how many people were in the elevator when the power went out?")

- **Selective**
  In longer stretches of discourse such as monologues of a couple of minutes or considerably longer, the ask of the student is not to process everything that was said, but rather to scan the material, selectively for certain information. The purpose of such performance is not look for global or general meanings, necessarily, but to be able to find important information in a field of potentially distracting information. Such activity requires **field independence** on the part of the learner. Selective listening differs from intensive listening in that the discourse is in relatively long lengths. Examples of such discourse include:

- ❖ Speeches
- ❖ Media broadcasts
- ❖ Stories and anecdotes
- ❖ Conversations in which learners are "eavesdroppers"

Techniques promoting selective listening skills, could ask students to listen for:

- ❖ People's names
- ❖ Dates
- ❖ Certain facts or events
- ❖ Location, situation, context, etc.
- ❖ Main ideas and or conclusion.

- ▪ **Extensive**
  The sort of performance, unlike the intensive processing described above, aims to   develop a top-down, global understanding of spoken language. Extensive performance could range from listening to lengthy lectures, to listening to a conversation and deriving a comprehensive message or purpose. Extensive listening may require the student to involve other interactive skills (e.g. note-taking and/or discussion for full comprehension .

- ▪ **Interactive**
  Finally there is listening performance that can include all five of the above types as learners actively participate in discussions, debates, conversations, role-plays, and other pair and group work. Their listening performance must be intricately integrated with speaking (and perhaps other) skills in the authentic give and take of communicative interchange.

3.4 ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS IN PEDAGOGICAL RESEARCH

Given this approach to course design, two aspects of oral communication skills in pedagogical research are important: the centrality of the classroom situation and institutional contexts. In other words, in an pedagogical research (as different from professional or everyday naturalistic research), the classroom situation as the locus of instruction and learning serves as the starting point for identifying specific curricular needs and selecting relevant tasks. At the same time, the institutional contexts form the broader framework beyond the classroom situation and provide important input for designing syllabus, particularly at the level of goals and objectives.

Furthermore, at a theoretical level, it has become more clear that oral communication skills (i.e., speaking) are complex sociolinguistic phenomena **(Hymes 1974; Canale and Swain 1980; Hall 1993, 1995),** and that the classroom situation is not only determined by curricular and pedagogical concerns but also has "social and personal dimensions" **(Prabhu 1992:230).** Therefore, in the task-based design of the oral communication skills--the focus of discussion in this topic--the rich complexity of task as the unit of analysis, the classroom situation and the institutional contexts need to be incorporated. In teaching oral communications will help to provide some perspective to the more practical considerations that follow in this chapter.

✓ **Conversational discourse**

When someone asks you "Do you speak English," they usually mean. Can you carry on a conversation reasonably competently? The benchmark of successful language acquisition is almost always the demonstration of an ability to accomplish pragmatic goals through interactive discourse with other speakers

of the language. "The goals and the techniques for teaching conversation are extremely diverse, depending on the student, teacher and overall context of the class. Historically "conversation" classes have ranged from quasi-communicative drilling to free open and sometimes agenda less discussions among students.

Recent pedagogical research on teaching conversation has provided some parameters for developing objectives and techniques. We have learned to differentiate between transactional and interactional conversation. We have discovered techniques for teaching students conversation rules for topic nomination, maintaining a conversation, turn taking, interruption, and termination. Our pedagogical storehouse has equipped us with us ways to teach sociolinguistic appropriateness styles of speech, non-verbal communication and conversational routines.

✓ **Teaching pronunciation**

There has been some controversy over the role of pronunciation work in a communicative, interactive course of study. Because the overhelming majority of adult learners will never acquire an accent free command of a foreign language, should a language program that emphasizes whole language, meaningful contexts, and automaticity of production focus on these tiny phonological details of language? The answer is yes, but in a different way from what was perceived to be essential a couple of decades ago. This topic will be taken up later in the chapter.

✓ **Accuracy and fluency**

An issue that pervades all of language performance centers on the distinction between **accuracy** and **fluency.** In spoken language the question we face as teachers is: How shall we prioritize the two clearly important speaker goals of accurate (clear, articulate, grammatically and phonologically correct) language and fluent (flowing natural) language?

In the mid to late 1970s, egged on by a somewhat short-lived anti-grammar approach, some teachers turned away from accuracy issues in favor of providing a plethora of "natural" language activity in their classroom. The argument was, of course, that adult second language acquisition should simulate the child's first language learning process. Our classrooms must not become linguistic courses but rather the locus of meaningful language involvement , or so the argument went.

It is now very clear that fluency and accuracy are both important goals to pursue in CLT. While fluency may in many communicative language courses be an initial goal in language teaching accuracy is achieved to some extent by allowing students to focus on the elements of phonology, grammar, and discourse in their spoken output.

The fluency/accuracy issue often boils down to the extent to which our techniques should be **message oriented** (or as some call, it, teaching language use) as opposed to **language oriented** (also known as teaching language usage). Current approaches to language teaching leap strongly toward message orientation with language usage offering a supporting role.

✓ **Affective factors**

One of the major obstacles learners have to overcome in learning to speak is the anxiety generated over the risks of blurting things out that are wrong, stupid or incomprehensible. Because of the **language ego** that informs people that "you are what you speak, "learners are reluctant to be judged by hearers. Language learners can put a new twist on Mark Twain's quip that It's better to keep your mouth closed and have others think you are ignorant than to open it and remove all doubt. "Our job as teachers is to provide the kind of warm, embracing climate that encourages students to speak, however halting or broken their attempts may be.

✓ **The interaction effect**

The greatest difficult y that learners encounter in attempts to speak is not the multiplicity of sounds, words, phrases and discourse forms that characterize any language, but rather the interactive nature of most communication. Conversations are collaborative as participants engage in a process of negotiation of meaning. So, for the learner, the matter of what to say a tremendous task, to be sure is often eclipsed by conventions of how to say things, when to speak and other discourse constraints, for example, among the many possible grammatical sentences that a learner could produce in response to a comment , how does that learner make a choice?

Microskills of Oral Communication (adapted from Richards 1983)

1. Produce chunks of language of different lengths.

2. Orally produce differences among the English phonemes and allophonic variants.

3. Produce English stress, patterns, words in stressed and undressed positions, rhythmic structure and intonational contours.

4. Produce reduced forms of the words and phrases.

5. Use an adequate number of lexical units (words) in order to accomplish pragmatic purposes.

6. Produce fluent speech at different rates of delivery.

7. Monitor your own oral production and use various strategic devices pauses, fillers, self-correction, backtracking to enhance the clarity of the message.

8. Use grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc) system (e.g. tense, agreement, pluralization, word order, patterns, rules and elliptical forms.

9. Produce speech in natural constituents in appropriate phrases, pause groups, breath groups and sentences.

10. Express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.

11. Use cohesive devices in spoken discourse.

12. Accomplish appropriately communicative functions according to situations, participants and goals.

13. Use appropriate registers, implicature, pragmatic conventions, and other sociolinguistic features in face to face conversations.

14. Convey links and connections between events and communicate such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization and exemplification.

15. Use facial features, kinesics, body language and other nonverbal cues along with verbal language to convey meanings.

16. Develop and use a battery of speaking strategies, such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing providing a context for interpreting the meaning of words, appealing for help and accurately assessing how well your interlocutor is understanding you.

3.5 WHAT MAKES SPEAKING DIFFICULT?

Form a communicative, pragmatic view of the language classroom, listening and speaking skills are closely intertwined. More often than not, ESL curricula that treat oral communication skills will simply be labeled as "Listening/Speaking" courses.
The interaction between these two modes of performance applies especially strongly to conversation, the most popular discourse category in the profession. And, in the classroom even relatively unidirectional types of spoken input (speeches, lectures, etc) are often followed or preceded by various forms of oral production on the part of students.

Bear in mind that the following characteristics of spoken language can make oral performance easy as well as, in some cases difficult.

1. **Clustering**
    Fluent speech is phrasal not word by word. Learners can organize their output both cognitively and physically (in breath groups) through such clustering.

2. **Redundancy**
    The speaker has an opportunity to make meaning clearer through the redundancy of language. Learners can capitalize on this feature of spoken language.

3. **Reduced forms**
   Contractions, elisions, reduced vowels, etc, all form special problems in teaching spoken. English. Students who don't learn colloquial contractions can sometimes develop a stilted bookish quality of speaking bookish quality of speaking that in turn stigmatizes them.

4. **Performance variables**
   One of the advantages of spoken language is that the process of thinking as you speak allows you to manifest a certain number of performance

   hesitations, pauses, backtracking and corrections. Learners can actually be taught how to pause and hesitate.

5. **Colloquial language**
   Make sure your students are reasonably well acquainted with the words, idioms and phrases of colloquial language and that they get practice in producing these forms.

6. **Rate of delivery**
   Another salient characteristic of fluency is rate of delivery. One of your tasks in teaching spoken English is to help learners achieve an acceptable speed along with other attributes of fluency.

7. **Stress, rhythm and intonation**
   This is the most important characteristic of English pronunciation, as will be explained below. The stress-timed rhythm of spoken English and its intonation patterns convey important messages.

8. **Interaction**
   As noted in the previous section learning to produce waves of language in a vacuum without interlocutors would rob speaking skill of its richest component the creativity of conversational negotiation.

Types of classroom speaking performance
There are six categories apply to the kinds of oral productions that students are expected to carry out in the classroom.

1. **Imitative**
   A very limited portion of classroom speaking time may legitimately be spent generating "human tape recorder" speech where, for example learners practice an intonation contour or try to pinpoint a certain vowel sound . imitation of this kind is carried out not for the purpose of meaningful interaction, but for focusing on some particular element of language form.

   A question that new teachers in the field always want to have answered is: **Is drilling a   legitimate part of the communicative language classroom?** The answer is a qualified "yes ". Drills offer students an opportunity to listen and to orally repeat certain strings of language that may pose some linguistic difficulty either phonological or grammatical. Drills are to language teaching what the pitching machine is to baseball. They offer limited practice through repetition. They allow one to focus on one element of language in a

controlled activity. They can help to establish certain psychomotor patterns (to "loosen the tongue") and to associate selected grammatical forms with their appropriate context. Here are some useful guidelines for successful drills.

- .Keep them short (a few minutes of a class hour only)
- Keep them simple (preferably just one point at a time)
- Keep them "snappy"
- Make sure students know why they are doing the drill
- Limit them to phonology or grammar points.
- Make sure they ultimately lead to communicative goals.
- Don't overuse them.

2. Intensive
Intensive speaking goes one step beyond imitative to include any speaking performance that is designed to practice some phonological or grammatical aspect of language. Intensive speaking can be self-initiated or it can even form part of some pair work activity, where learners are "going ever" certain forms of language.

3. Responsive
A good deal of student speech in the classroom is responsive: short replies to teacher or student initiated questions or comments. These replies are usually sufficient and do not extend into dialogues. Such speech can be meaningful and authentic.

T: How are you today?
S: Pretty good, thanks and you?

T: What is the main idea in this essay?
S: The United Nations should have more authority.

S1: So, what did you write for question number one?
S2: Well, I wasn't sure, so I left it blank

4. Transactional (dialogue)
Transactional language, carried out for the purpose of conveying or exchanging specific information, is an extended form of responsive language. Conversations, for example, may have more of a negotiations nature to them than does responsive speech.

T: What is the main idea in this essay?
S: The United Nations should have more authority
T: More authority than what?
S: Than it does right now
T: What do you mean?
S: Well for example, the UN should have the power to force a country like Iraq to destroy its nuclear weapons.
T: You don't think the UN has that power now?
S: Obviously not. Iraq is still manufacturing nuclear bombs.

Such conversations could readily be part of group work activity as well.

5. Interpersonal (dialogue)

The other form of conversation was interpersonal dialogue, carried out more for the purpose of maintaining social relationships than for the transmission of facts and information. These conversations are a little trickier for learners because they can involve some or all of the following factors.

- A casual register
- Colloquial language
- Emotionally charged language
- Slang
- Ellipsis
- Sarcasm
- A covert "agenda"

For example

Amy: Hi, Bob, how's it going?
Bob : Oh, so-so
Amy: Not a great weekend huh?
Bob: Well far be it from me to criticize, but I'm pretty miffed about last week.
Amy: What are you talking about?
Bob: I think you know perfectly well what I'm talking about.
Amy: Oh that. How come you get so bent out of shape over something like that?
Bob: Well whose fault was it, huh
Amy: Oh wow this is great. Wonderful. Back to square one. For crying out loud. Bob. I though we'd settled this before. Well, what more can I say?

Learners would need to learn how such features as the relationship between interlocutors, casual style, and sarcasm are coded linguistically in this conversation.

6. Extensive (monologue)

Finally, students at intermediate to advanced levels are called on to give extended monologues in the form of oral reports, summaries, or perhaps short speeches. Here the register is more formal and deliberative. These monologues can be planned or impromptu.

Principles for designing speaking techniques

1. **Use techniques that cover the spectrum of learner needs, from language based focus on accuracy to message based focus on interaction, meaning and fluency.**
   In our current zeal for interactive language teaching, we can easily slip into a pattern of providing zesty content-based, interactive activities that don't capitalize on grammatical pointers or pronunciation tips. When you do a jigsaw group technique, play a game or discuss solutions to the environmental crisis, make sure that your tasks include techniques designed to help students to perceive and use the building blocks of language. At the same time, don't bore your students to death with lifeless, repetitious drills. As noted above, make any drilling you do as meaningful as possible.

2. **Provide intrinsically motivating techniques**

   Try at all times to appeal to students ultimate goals and interests, to their need for knowledge, for status, for achieving competence and autonomy and for "being all that they can be. Even in those techniques that don't send students don't know why we ask them to do certain things a usually pays to tell them.

3. **Encourage the use of authentic language to meaningful contexts**

   This theme has been played time and again in this book, but one more reminder shouldn't hurt. It is not easy to keep coming up with meaningful interaction. We all succumb to the temptation to do say. Disconnected little grammar exercises where we go around the room calling on students one by one to pick the right answer. It takes energy and creativity to devise authentic contexts and meaningful interaction, but with the help of a storehouse of teacher resource material (books and articles) it can be done. Even drills can be structured to provide a sense of authenticity.

4. **Provide appropriate feedback and correction**

   In most EFL situations, students are totally dependent on the teacher for useful linguistic feedback. In ESL situations, they may get such feedback "out there" beyond the classroom, but even then you are in a position to be of great benefit. It is important that you take advantage of your knowledge of English to inject the kinds of corrective feedback that are appropriate for the moment.

5. **Capitalize on the natural link between speaking and listening**

   Many interactive techniques that involve speaking will also of course include listening. Don't lose out on opportunities to integrate these two skills. As you are perhaps focusing on speaking goals, listening goals may naturally and the two skills can reinforce each other. Skills in producing language are often initiated though comprehension.

6. **Give students opportunities to initiate oral communication**

   A good deal of typical classroom interaction is characterized by teacher initiation of language. We ask questions, give directions, and provide information and students have been conditioned only to "speak when spoken to". Part of oral communication competence is the ability to initiate conversation, to nominate topics, to ask questions, to control conversations, and to change the subject. As you design and use speaking techniques, ask yourself if you have allowed students to initiate language.

7. **Encourage the development of speaking strategies**

   The concept of strategic competence is one that few beginning language students are aware of. They simply have not thought about developing their own personal strategies for accomplishing oral communicative purposes. Your classroom can be one in which students become aware of and have a chance to practice, such strategies as:

   - Asking for clarification (what?)

   - Asking someone to repeat something (Hub? Excuse me?)

- Using fillers (Ub, I mean, well) in order to gain time to process

- Using conversation maintenance cues. (Uh huh, Right, Yeah, Okay,Hm)

- Getting someone attention (Hey, Say, So)

- Using paraphrases for structures one can't produce

- Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor (to get a word or phrase, for example)

- Using formulaic expressions (at the survival stage) (How much does cost? How do you get to the__?.

- Using mime and nonverbal expressions to convey meaning

Douglas Brown, in Teaching by Principles (2001)

Other interactive techniques

Of course many other tasks and techniques can be applied to the teaching of conversation. They are almost impossible to categorize, but here area few possible types, gleaned simply from the table of contents of **Friederike Klippel's (1984)** practical little resource book.

- Interviews .
- Values clarification
- Problem solving activities
- Role Play
- Simulations
- Guessing game
- Jigsaw tasks
- Ranking exercises
- Discussions

✓ **Does public speaking come naturally only to a lucky few?**

Some people are naturally charismatic and gregarious, seem comfortable in front of others, and may be good storytellers. But for the vast majority, public speaking is a contact sport that it is learned in the arena, after absorbing essential guidelines and practices.

✓ **What makes public speaking so difficult for so many people? What are the obstacles?**

Public speaking ranges from difficult to deadly terror for much of the population. I see a combination of factors childhood criticism from parents and teachers, the message that one's never quite good enough, the compulsive need to be perfect and so not attempting difficult things. People can be afraid of all sorts of things, from the real possibility of memory failure to the unreal possibility of death. Then there is the fear of impromptu events

that can't be controlled, like hostile crowds, or a question you can't answer immediately, or not being "clever" enough.

- ✓ **Do you think it's fair for employers to expect personnel who don't usually deal with the public to be as articulate in public speaking as personnel who do?**

Employers who expect great presentations from employees are obligated to provide appropriate training. But note, being articulate is not the key to public

speaking; being   human, believing your message, and communicating your humanity will have every audience totally captivated.

- ✓ **If trained employees are simply not used to speaking in front of others, what can they do?**

Speaking is a theatrical event! Thorough preparation is key. Advice I would give a novice speaker includes:

- Know the room well--you want no surprises with lighting, temperature, seating, and any equipment you might need.

- Know the audience.

- Get someone appropriate to introduce you--prepare an introduction with your qualifications to speak on that particular subject.

- Practice in a variety of ways--use tape and video recorders, a mirror, or your friends and family.

- Get all your props ready, including the most important prop--you!

- Lastly, always remember that others want you to succeed.

- ✓ **So you think that people can really overcome their fear of speaking in front of an audience?**

I firmly believe that everyone can overcome a fear of public speaking. But it requires commitment, time, support, and practice. It also requires attitudinal changes, such as learning to welcome "butterflies" as motivators, or knowing that every time you feel that lump in the throat, there's risk through which can you grow.

You can expect setbacks, sometimes even embarrassing ones, but that even those events add to your store of experience. After all, audiences expect to see and hear a human being, not a robot. And humans goof occasionally.
(Richard Kummins 2002 – 2003)

Teaching Pronunciation

Our goals as teachers of English pronunciation should therefore be more realistically focused on clear, comprehensible pronunciation. At the beginning levels, we want learners to surpass that threshold beneath which pronunciation detracts form their ability to communicate. At the advanced levels pronunciation goals can focus on elements that enhance communication intonation features that go beyond basic patterns, voice quality, phonetic distinctions between registers and other refinements that are far more important in the overall stream of clear communication than rolling the English /t/ or getting a vowel to perfectly imitate a "native speaker".

What are the factors within learners that affect pronunciation and how can you deal with each of them? Below is a list **(adapted from Kenworthy 1987),** of variables that you should consider.

1. **Native Language:** Clearly the native language is the most influential factor affecting a learner's pronunciation. If you are familiar with the sound system of a learner's native language, you will be better able to diagnose student difficulties.

2. **Age:** Generally speaking children under the age of puberty stand an excellent chance of sounding like a native "If they have continued exposure in authentic contexts. Beyond the age of puberty while adults will almost surely maintain a "foreign accent ," there is no particular advantaged attributed to age.

3. **Exposure:** It is difficult to define exposure. One can actually live in a foreign country for some time but not take advantage of being "with the people". Research seems to support the notion that the quality and intensity of exposure are more important than mere length of time. If class time spent focusing on pronunciation demands the full attention and interest of your students, then they stand a good chance of reaching their goals.

4. **Innate phonetic ability:** Often referred to as having an "eat "for language, some people manifest a phonetic coding ability that others do not. In many cases, if a person has had exposure to a foreign language as a child, this "knack" is present whether the early language is remembered or not. Others are simply more attuned to phonetic discriminations. Some people would have you believe that you either have such a knack, or you don't . Strategies based instruction, however has proven that some elements of learning are a matter of an awareness of your own limitations combined with a conscious focus on doing something to compensate for those limitations. Therefore, if pronunciation seems to be naturally difficult for some students, they should not despair, with some effort and concentration, they can improve their competence.

5. **Identify and language ego:** Yet another influence is one's attitude toward speakers of the target language and the extent to which the language ego identifies with those speakers. Learners need to be reminded of the importance of positive attitudes toward the people who speak the language (if such a target is identifiable), but more important, students need to become aware of and not afraid of the second identity that may be emerging within them.

6. **Motivation and concern for good pronunciation:** Some learners are not particularly concerned about their pronunciation. While others are. The extent to which learners intrinsic motivation propels them toward improvement will be perhaps the strongest influence of all six of the factors in this list. If that motivation and concern are high, then necessary effort will be expended in pursuit of goals. You can help learners to perceive or develop that motivation by showing, among other things, how clarity of speech is significant in shaping their self- image and ultimately, in reaching some of their higher goals.

All six of the above factors suggest that any learner who really wants to can learn to pronounce English clearly and comprehensibly. You can assist in the process by gearing your planned and unplanned instruction toward these six factors.

3.6 RESEARCH ON READING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE WRITING

In this part, will speak on interactive integrated approaches to language teaching emphasize the interrelationship of skills. Reading ability will be developed best in association with writing, listening, and speaking activities. Even in those courses that may be labeled "reading", your goals will be best achieved by capitalizing on the interrelationship of skills especially the reading – writing connection. So we focus here on reading as a component of general second proficiency, but ultimately reading must be considered only the perspective of the whole picture of interactive language teaching.

Types of Written Language

In our highly literate society, there are literally hundreds of different types of written texts, a much larger variety that found in spoken texts. Each of the types listed below represents or is an example of, a genre of written language. Each has certain rules or conventions for its manifestation, and we are thus able immediately to identify a genre and to know what to look for within the text. Consider the following non-exhaustive list:

- non-fiction: reports, editorials, essays and articles, reference (dictionaries, encyclopedias)
- fiction: novels, short stories, jokes, dramas, poetry
- letters: personal, business
- greetings cards
- diaries, journals
- memos (e.g. interoffice memos)
- messages (e.g. phone messages)
- announcements, newspaper "journalese"
- academic writing short answer test responses, reports, essays and papers, theses and books.
- forms, applications
- questionnaires, directions, labels ,signs and recipes
- bills (and other financial statements)
- maps, manuals and menus
- schedules (e.g. transportation information)
- advertisements: commercial, personal ("want ads")

- invitations
- directories (e.g. telephone, yellow pages)
- comic strips, cartoons.

Characteristics of Written Language

There are quite a number of salient and relevant differences between spoken and written language. Students already literate in their native languages will of course be familiar with the broad, basic characteristics of written language; however, some characteristics of   English writing, especially certain rhetorical conventions, may be so different from their native language that reading efforts are blocked. The characteristics listed below will also be of some help for you in.

a. diagnosing certain reading difficulties arising from the idiosyncrasies of written language.
b. Pointing your techniques toward specific objectives and
c. Reminding students of some of the advantages of the written language over spoken.

1. **Permanence**
   Spoken language is fleeting. Once you speak a sentence, it vanishes
   (unless there is a tape recorder around), The hearer therefore, is called upon to make immediate perceptions and immediate storage. Written language is permanent (or as permanent as paper and computer disks are), and therefore the reader has an opportunity to return again and again, if necessary, to a word or phrase or sentence or even a whole text.

2. **Processing Time**
   A corollary to the above is the processing time that the reader gains. Most reading contexts allow readers to read at their own rate. They aren't forced into following the rate of delivery, as in spoken language. A good deal of emphasis is placed on reading speed in our fast-paced, time conscious society, which is good news and bad news. The good news is that readers can indeed capitalize on the nature of the nature of the printed word and develop very rapid reading rates. The bad news is that many people who are "slow" readers are made to feel inferior. In practice except for the time factor itself, fast readers do not necessarily have an advantage over slow readers.

3. **Distance**
   The written word allows messages to be sent across two dimensions: physical distance and temporal distance. The pedagogical significance of this centers on interpretation. The task of the reader is to interpret language that was written in some other place at some other time with only the written words themselves as contextual clues. Readers can't confront an author and say, "Now, what exactly did you mean by that? Now can they transport themselves back through a time machine and "see" the surrounding context. As we can in face to face conversations. This sometimes de-contextualized nature of writing is one of the things that makes reading difficult.

4. Orthography

In spoken language, we have phonemes that correspond to writing's graphemes. But we also have stress, rhythm, juncture, intonation, pauses, volume, voice quality settings and nonverbal cues, all of which enhance the message. In writing we have graphemes that's it. Yes, sometimes punctuation, pictures, or charts, lend a helping band. And, yes a writer can describe the aforementioned phonological cues, as in. with loud, rasping grunts, punctuated by roars of pain, he slowly dragged himself out of the line of enemy fire.

But these written symbols stand alone as the one set of signals that the reader must perceive. Because of the frequent ambiguity that is present in a good deal of writing, readers must to their best to infer, to interpret, and to "read between the lines".

English orthography itself, in spite of its reputation for being "irregular", is highly predictable from its spoken counterpart, especially when one consider morphological information as well. For literate learners of English, our spelling system presents only minor difficulties, even for those whose native languages have quite different systems. Actually, most of the irregularity in English manifests itself in high frequency words(of, to, have, do, done, was, etc), and once those words are in place, the rest of the system can usually be mastered without special instruction.

5. Complexity

You might be tempted to say that writing is more complex than speech, but in reality, that would be difficult to demonstrate. Writing and speech represent different modes of complexity, and the most salient difference is in the nature of clauses. Spoken language tends to have shorter clauses connected by more coordinate conjunctions, while writing has longer clauses and more subordination. The shorter clauses are often a factor of the redundancy we build into speech (repeating subjects and verbs for clarity). Look at the following pair:

- Because of the frequent ambiguity that therefore is present in a good deal of writing readers must do their best to infer, to interpret, and to "read between the lines".

- There's frequent ambiguity in a lot of writing. And so, readers have to infer a lot. They also have to interpret what they read. And sometimes they have to "read between the lines".

The cognitive complexity of version 1, the written version, is no greater than version 2, the spoken version. But structurally, four clauses were used in version 2 to replace the one long clause in version 1.

Readers especially foreign language readers who may be quite adept in the spoken language have to retool their cognitive preceptors in order to extract meaning from the written code. The linguistic differences between speech and writing are another major contributing cause to difficulty.

6. Vocabulary

It is true that written English typically utilizes a greater variety of lexical items than spoken conversational English. In our everyday give and take with family, friends and colleagues, vocabulary is limited. Because written allows

the writer more processing time, because of a desire to be precise in writing and simply because of the formal conventions of writing lower frequency words often appear. Such words can present stumbling blocks to learners. However, because the meaning, of a good many unknown words can be predicted from their context and because sometimes the overall meaning of a sentence or paragraph is nevertheless still clear, learners should refrain from the frequent use of a bilingual dictionary.

7. Formality

Writing is quite frequently more formal than speech. What do we mean by that? Formality refers to prescribed forms that certain written messages must adhere to. The reason that you can both recognize a menu and decide what to eat fairly quickly is that menus conform to certain conventions. Things are categorized (appetizers, salads, entrees, desserts, etc.) in logical order and subcategorized (ail seafood dishes are listed together); exotic or creative names for dishes are usually defined prices are given for each item, and the menu isn't so long that it overwhelms you. We have rhetorical, or organizational, formality in essay writing that demands a writer's conformity to conventions like paragraph topics; we have logical order for, say comparing and contrasting something we have openings and closings and a preference for non-redundancy and subordination of clauses, etc. Until a reader is familiar with the formal features of a written text, some difficulty in interpretation may ensue.

Strategies For Reading Comprehension

Reading Comprehension is primarily a matter of developing appropriate, efficient comprehension strategies. Some strategies are related to bottom-up procedures, and others enhance the top-down processes. Following are ten such strategies, each of which can be practically applied to your classroom techniques.

1. Identify the purpose in reading

How many times have you been told to read something yet you don't know why you're being asked to read it? You did only a mediocre job of retaining what you "read" and perhaps were rather slow in the process. Efficient reading consist of clearly identifying the purpose in reading something. By doing so, you know what you're looking for and can weed out potential distracting information. Whenever you are teaching a reading technique make sure students know their purpose in reading something.

2. Use graphemic rules and patterns to aid in bottom-up decoding (especially for beginning level learners).

At the beginning levels of learning English, one of the difficulties students encounter in learning to read is making the correspondences between spoken and written English. In many cases, learners have become acquainted with oral language and have some difficulty learning English spelling conventions. They may need hints and explanations about certain

English orthographic rules and peculiarities. While you can often assume that one to one grapheme phoneme correspondences will be acquired with ease, other relationships might prove difficult. Consider how you might provide hints and pointers on   such patterns as these:

- "short" vowel sound in VC patterns (bat, him, leg, wish)
- "long" vowel sound in VCe (final silent e) patterns (late, time, bite, etc)
- "long " vowel sound in VV patterns (seat, coat, etc)
- Distinguishing "hard" c and g from "soft" c and g (cat vs city, game vs gem, etc.)

These and a multitude of other phonics approaches to reading can prove useful for learners at the beginnings level and especially useful for teaching children and non-literate adults.

3. **Use efficient silent reading techniques for relatively rapid comprehension (for intermediate to advanced levels)**
   If you are teaching beginners level students, this particular strategy will not apply because they are still struggling with the control of a limited vocabulary and grammatical patterns. Your intermediate to advanced level students need not be speed readers, but you can help them increase efficiency by teaching a few silent reading rules:

   - You don't need to "pronounce" each word to yourself.
   - Try to visually perceive more than one word at a time, preferably phrases
   - Unless a word is absolutely crucial to global understanding, skip over it and try to infer its meaning from its context.

   Aside from these fundamental guidelines which if followed can help learners to be efficient readers, reading speed is usually not much of an issue for all but the most advanced learners. Academic reading, for example is something most learners manage to accomplish by allocating whatever time they personally need in order to complete the material. If your students can read 250 to 300 words per minute further concern over speed may not be necessary.

4. **Skim the text for main ideas**
   Perhaps the two most valuable reading strategies for learners (as well as native speakers) are skimming and scamming. Skimming consist of quickly running one's eyes across a whole text (such as an essay, article or chapter), for its gist. Skimming give readers the advantage of being able to predict the purpose of the passage, the main topic, or message and possibly some of the developing or supporting ideas. This gives them a head start as they embark on more focused reading. You can train students to skim passages by giving them say, thirty seconds to look through a few pages of material, close their books and then tell you what they learned.

5. **Scan the text for specific information**
   The second in the most valuable category is scanning, or quickly searching for some particular piece or pieces of information in a text. Scanning exercises may ask students to look for names or dates to find a definition of a key concept or to list a certain number of supporting details. The purpose

of scanning is to extract specific information without reading through the whole text. For academic English, scanning is absolutely essential.
In vocational or general English, scanning is important in dealing with genres like schedules, manuals, forms, etc.

6. **Use semantic mapping or clustering**
Readers can easily be overwhelmed by a long string of ideas or events. The strategy of semantic mapping or grouping ideas into meaningful clusters, helps the reader to provide some order to the chaos. Making such semantic maps can be done individually, but they make for a productive group work technique as students collectively induce order and hierarchy to a passage.

7. **Guess when you aren't certain**
This is an extremely broad category. Learners can use guessing to their advantage to.

- Guess the meaning of a word
- Guess a grammatical relationship (e.g., a pronoun reference)
- Guess a discourse relationship
- Inter implied meaning ("between the lines")
- Guess about a cultural reference
- Guess content messages

Now, you of course don't want to encourage your learners to become haphazard readers. They should utilize all their skills and put forth as much effort as possible to be on target with their hypotheses. But the point here is that reading is after all, a guessing game of sorts, and the sooner learners understand this game, the better off they are. They key to successful guessing is to make it reasonably accurate.

You can help learners to become accurate guessers by encouraging them to use effective **compensation strategies** in which they fill gaps in their competence by intelligent attempts to use whatever clues are available to them. Language based clues include words analysis, word associations and textual structure. Non-linguistic clues come from context situation and other schemata.

8. **Analyze vocabulary**
One way for learners to make guessing pay off when they don't immediately recognize a word is to analyze it in terms of what they know about it. Several techniques are useful here:

a. Look for prefixes (co, inter, un, etc) that may give clues.
b. Look for suffixes (-tion, tive, ally, etc) that may indicate what part of speech it is.
c. Look for roots that are familiar (e.g. intervening may be a word a student doesn't know, but recognizing that the root comes from Latin "to come" would yield the meaning "to come in between".
d. Look for grammatical contexts that may signal information.
e. Look at the semantic context (topic) for clues

9. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings

This requires the application of sophisticated top-down processing skills. The fact that not all language can be interpreted appropriately by attending to its literal, syntactic surface structure makes special demands on readers. Implied meaning usually has to derived from processing pragmatic information, as in the following examples:
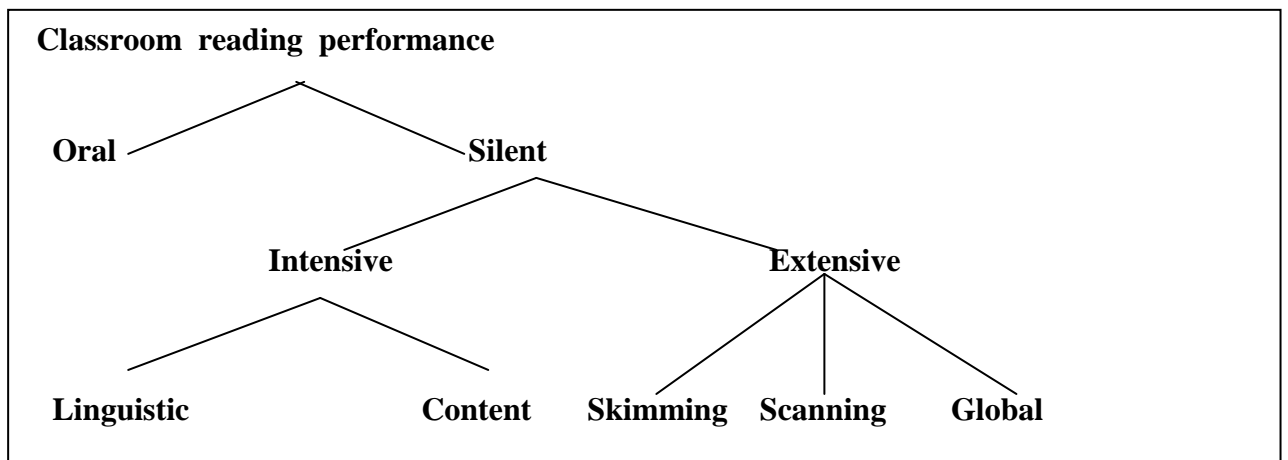
a. Bill walked into the frigid classroom and immediately noticed Bob, sitting by the open window.
"Brrr" he exclaimed, simultaneously eyeing. Bob and the open windows, "It's sure cold in here, Bob".
Bob glanced up from his book and growled, "Oh, all right, I'll close the window.

b. The policeman held up his hand and stopped the car.

c. Mary heard the ice cream man coming down the street. She remembered her birthday money and rushed into the house.

Each of these excerpts has implied information. The request in (a) is obvious only if the reader recognizes the nature of many indirect requests in which we ask people to do things without ever forming a question. We can't be sure in (b) if the policeman literally (physically) stopped the car with his hand, but the assumption is that this is a traffic policeman whose hand signal was obeyed by a driver. Rummel chart's classic example in (c) leads the reader without any other context, to believe Mary is going into the house to get money to buy ice cream until the last few words are supplied, "and locked the door"

10. Capitalize on discourse markers to process relationships

Many discourse markers in English signal relationships among ideas as expressed through phrases, clauses and sentences. A clear comprehension of such markers can greatly enhance learner's reading efficiency.

Types of classroom reading performance

```
Classroom reading performance
        /              \
     Oral            Silent
                    /        \
             Intensive      Extensive
             /      \        /    |    \
     Linguistic  Content  Skimming Scanning Global
```

❖ **Intensive and extensive reading**

Silent reading may be subcategorized into intensive and extensive reading. Intensive reading analogous to intensive listening, is usually a classroom oriented activity in which students focus on the linguistic or semantic details of a passage. Intensive reading calls students attention to grammatical, discourse markers, and other surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning, implications rhetorical relationships and the like.

A complex cognitive concept may be "trapped" inside the words of a sentence or paragraph, and a good reader will then very slowly and methodically extract meaning there from.

Extensive reading is carried out to achieve a general understanding of a usually somewhat longer text (book, long article, or essays, etc). Most extensive reading is performed outside of class time. Pleasure reading is often extensive. Technical, scientific and professional reading can under certain special circumstances, be extensive when one is simply striving for global or general meaning from longer passages.

The advantages of extensive reading were discussed in the first section of the chapter. By stimulating reading for enjoyment or reading where all concepts, names, dates and other details need not be retained, students gain an appreciation for the affective and cognitive window of reading an entrée into new worlds. Extensive reading can sometimes help learners get away from their tendency to overanalyze or look up works they don't know and read for understanding.

Lecture Skills

Almost all teachers and teaching assistants will need to lecture some of the time. An effective lecture can stimulate and involve students; however, a boring, poorly planned lecture becomes another requirement through which students must suffer. Lectures are useless as a learning tool if students do not pay attention during them. While some assume that lecturing is easy, effective teachers realize that lecturing well is often difficult and time-consuming. Planning an effective lecture, one that conveys information and captures student interest, involves analyzing both the subject matter and the learning styles of the students. Because they place students in a more active role, informal lectures that assume a conversational tone often are more effective in promoting student learning than formal lectures. The following suggestions work equally as well in large and small classrooms.

✓ **Plan ahead.**

Let students know as far in advance as possible which class periods will consist of lectures. Students who know what format class will take can prepare themselves mentally for the role appropriate to that format. Since effective instructors remain flexible in their approaches to student learning, sometimes they must quickly or unexpectedly alter their teaching methods to meet their students' needs. Students will respect teachers who plan ahead and, if necessary, clearly communicate the reasons for any changes that might occur.

Each time you choose to present a lecture, explain to your students why the lecture format is suitable for that particular class meeting. In order to show students that you value their input, allow opportunities for your students to suggest possible lecture topics, justify their choices, and write questions they have about the topics as a homework assignment. Incorporating well-organized and thorough student plans for lectures and explaining why you chose particular topics will encourage them to evaluate the lecture process and to participate during lectures. Always prepare other material or an additional activity in case your lecture is shorter than you intended. Students will become bored if you try

to draw out material you already have discussed at length. Some suggestions for discussion questions you could use here are: "What do you make of all this? How does what I've said today fit with the material we've already discussed? With what you read in the textbook(s)? What new questions does the lecture raise?"

An effective tool to check how your lecture has been received is the "1 minute paper": save the last 5 minutes of the class period for students to write down their reactions to difficulties with or questions about what you have said to turn in to you before they leave. Use this information to diagnose misunderstandings or clear up misunderstandings in the next session.

✓ **Explain and model for students how to behave during a lecture.**
Teachers should tell students that they are expected to ask and answer questions and also state when questions are appropriate. For example, some instructors prefer students to hold their questions until after the topic is covered. Others, however, use a more conversational approach in which they encourage students to raise questions at any time during the lecture.

If you wish students to hold their questions until after you make certain points, tell them to write their questions down as they think of them. To insure that everyone actively participates in your lectures, have each student write at least two questions during your lectures and ask them to share their thoughts. Do not wait for volunteers; try to call on as many students as possible. You might write some of their questions on the board and discuss which questions are similar. Student questions can reveal how successfully you conveyed information and can help you determine the material on which you need to focus.

Because students do not trust their ability to judge which parts of a lecture contain crucial information, they often attempt to copy word for word an entire lecture. Unfortunately, frantically scribbling notes inhibits their ability to engage with the material and to formulate questions.

Emphasize key points for your students (e.g., You will need to know these three steps in the order in which I have presented them.) So that your students can focus on listening rather than copying definitions, hand out a glossary, put specialized terms on the board, or explain special terms in a way they can understand and remember. To help your students develop effective listening skills, occasionally ask them to listen to your lectures without taking notes. Then, have them individually or collectively summarize the main points of your lecture. If they are hesitant because they think they might miss crucial information, tell them that you will fill in any gaps in their summary.

Those students who write down every word their teachers say are the same people who use magic markers to highlight entire pages in their text rather than a few key passages. You can help these students reduce their study time and also enjoy their class time if you show them how to determine key points in the material you present.

Most importantly, students need to know what teachers expect them to learn from lectures. Before each lecture, teachers should clearly state orally and write on the board, chart, or transparency the specific behavioral objective(s) they wish students to meet. Effectively stated behavioral objectives contain three ingredients: the acceptable performance **(end behavior),** the conditions in which the behavior will be demonstrated **(observed by the teacher),** and the level of performance expected **(primarily for evaluation purposes).**

✓ **Decide on three or four key points.**
To cover and organize material around these themes. Students need a clear framework based on some major themes in order to grasp and retrieve the ideas. Relating points to an outline and summarizing frequently can help students organize their thinking about the topic and see how different parts of the class are connected.

Provide a written as well as an oral outline of your lecture. To insure that your students are paying attention, ask them to summarize the points you have made so far in the lecture. Make sure that you encourage your students to discuss the common thread that runs throughout your lectures. Ask them to determine the relationship between your current lecture and your former lectures.

✓ **Capture student interest.**
In the beginning of the lecture. Read a powerful quotation, state a question that will be answered in the lecture or a strong generalization which contradicts common thought, introduce puzzling facts, tell a personal anecdote, give an example, tell a joke, or do a demonstration. Plan to set the stage by telling students what will be covered in that class session (e.g., "How many of you drank a soda this week? What did you do with the can? Today we will be talking about the economic impact of recycling").

Prepare several introductory examples in case your students do not seem to relate well to one example. If your students look blank when you use an example, ask them whether they have experienced the situation you are describing. If they have not, use your backup examples.

✓ **Pace lectures.**
In 15-20 minute segments. Doing the same thing for more than 20 minutes without a change of pace or transition causes students to tune out and lose interest. Instructors do not need to be entertainers, but they do need to change their pace at regular intervals.

Punctuate your lectures with rhetorical questions, vivid examples, or demonstrations. Pace-changing transitions often occur easily if you link them to the presentation of your three or four key points.

✓ **Develop a good summary.**
A major learning points at the end of the lecture and connect those with what is coming next.

You can encourage your students to participate by asking them to summarize for you (e.g., "Robert, state one of the key points we have been discussing today." "Jennifer, can you add to Robert's thoughts?)".

✓ **Develop <u>audiovisual aids.</u>**
Use instructional technologies to support the interactive lecture

<u>Presentation skills</u>

In order to present an effective lecture, a teacher not only must prepare effective examples and illustrations but also must use a stimulating style of delivery. Students will not listen to even the most carefully planned lectures if they do not find the teacher's delivery style appealing. Stimulating teachers find ways to present material that keep students interested.

Before you lecture for the first time, remember the most stimulating faculty member in your academic career. What made him or her so effective? Also, remember the droning monotone in your 3:30 class or the teacher who read his lecture notes and never seemed to notice the students. What could they have done to improve their lectures? How can you improve on their performances?

✓ **Maintain eye contact with the class**.
Eye contact captures student attention. Also, it allows the faculty member to observe student body language so that a sudden increase in doodling or increase in whispering can be used as a signal that the teacher needs to stop and ask for questions. Eye contact is one reason why reading lectures is ineffective.

✓ **Vary vocal tone, gestures, speed of talking, and position in the room.**
Pauses or changes in voice tone for emphasis can keep students involved. Walking around the room to make eye contact with those in the back helps to capture their attention.

When you do and say everything in the same tone and manner, your students might not be able to pay attention, even if the subject matter is interesting.

✓ **Be enthusiastic**.
Inexperienced teachers may have difficulty displaying enthusiasm without feeling like they are being insincere. They might wonder whether their attempts at enthusiasm seem forced. However, effective teachers consistently show interest in and enthusiasm for both their subject matter and their students.

Remember that your attitude toward the class sets the tone for your students. If you come in and say, "Okay, let's get this over with. I know it will be boring, but we have to get this done," your students will live up to the expectations you have set for them. They will be bored. Try to remember what made you like the subject you are teaching and share your interest with your students.

✓   **Avoid distracting gestures.**
A faculty member who clears his or her throat after every sentence or jiggles keys or coins in their pockets can be distracting to students.

Remember that clothing also can be distracting. If you wear clothes that are uncomfortable your students will sense your uneasiness.

✓   **Get feedback on your presentation.**
Even experienced teachers need to reevaluate their presentation skills periodically. Audio-taping and/or videotaping can reveal how teachers come across to their students.

3.7   RESEARCH ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE WRITING

Trends in the teaching of writing in ESL and other foreign languages have, not surprisingly, coincided with those of the teaching of other skills, especially listening and speaking. Over the past few decades of research on teaching writing to second language learners a number of issues have appeared, some of which remain controversial in spite of reams of data on second language writing.
Academic writing requires conscious effort and much practice in composing, developing, and analyzing ideas. Students writing in a second language are also faced with social and cognitive challenges related to second language acquisition. L1 models of writing instruction and research on composing processes have been the theoretical basis for using the process approach in L2 writing pedagogy. However, language proficiency and competence underlies the ability to write in the L2 in a fundamental way. Therefore, L2 writing instructors should take into account both strategy development and language skill development when working with students. This paper explores error in writing in relation to particular aspects of second language acquisition and theories of the writing process in L1 and L2. It can be argued that a focus on the writing process as a pedagogical tool is only appropriate for second language learners if attention is given to linguistic development, and if learners are able to get sufficient and effective feedback with regard to their errors in writing.

The ability to write well is not a naturally acquired skill; it is usually learned or culturally transmitted as a set of practices in formal instructional settings or other environments. Writing skills must be practiced and learned through experience. Writing also involves composing, which implies the ability either to tell or retell pieces of information in the form of narratives or description, or to transform information into new texts, as in expository or argumentative writing. Perhaps it is best viewed as a continuum of activities that range from the more mechanical or formal aspects of "writing down" on the one end, to the more complex act of composing on the other end **(Omaggio Hadley, 1993)**. It is undoubtedly the act of composing, though, which can create problems for students, especially for those writing in a second language (L2) in academic contexts.

A brief survey of the nature of L2 writing and L1 models of the writing process illustrates why it is difficult to apply L1 research to a model for second language writing. Further, certain social and cognitive factors related to second language acquisition show that strategies involved in the language learning process also affect L2 writing. With a discussion of these factors, fundamental questions about error in writing and L2 proficiency are raised. It should then become

apparent that the process approach to writing instruction can only be effective if these two components are taken into consideration.

✓ **Models of L1 and L2 Writing**
Most ESL students studying in post-secondary institutions have writing skills. However, their purposes for writing are sometimes not the kind valued by Western academic communities. The nature of academic literacy often confuses and disorients students, "particularly those who bring with them a set of conventions that are at odds with those of the academic world they are entering" **(Kutz, Groden & Zamel, 1993, p. 30).** In addition, the culture-specific nature of schemata--abstract mental structures representing our knowledge of things, events, and situations--can lead to difficulties when students write texts in L2. Knowing how to write a "summary" or "analysis" in Mandarin or Spanish does not necessarily mean that students will be able to do these things in English **(Kern, 2000)**. As a result, any appropriate instruction must take into consideration the influence from various educational, social, and cultural experiences that students have in their native language.

One of the problems they note is the transition students are required to make when entering the academic discourse community (a peculiar, socially constructed convention in itself), where students need to learn how to operate successfully in an academic conversation that implies knowledge of the textual conventions, expectations, and formulaic expressions particular to the discourse.

Writing skills are acquired and used through negotiated interaction with real audience expectations, such as in peer group responses. Instruction should, then, afford students the opportunity to participate in transactions with their own texts and the texts of others **(Grabe & Kaplan, 1996).** By guiding students toward a conscious awareness of how an audience will interpret their work, learners then learn to write with a "readerly" sensitivity **(Kern, 2000).**

✓ **The Sources of Error in L2 Writing: Social and Cognitive Factors and Social Factors**
Both social and cognitive factors affect language learning. Exploration of social factors gives us some idea of why learners differ in rate of L2 learning, in proficiency type (for instance, conversational ability versus writing ability), and in ultimate proficiency **(Ellis, 1994).** Research based on direct (self-report questionnaires) and indirect measures generally shows that learners with positive attitudes, motivation, and concrete goals will have these attitudes reinforced if they experience success. Likewise, learners' negative attitudes may be strengthened by lack of success or by failure **(McGroarty, 1996).** Needless to say, although ESL learners may have negative attitudes toward writing for academic purposes, many of them are financially and professionally committed to graduating from English-speaking universities, and as a result, have strong reasons for learning and improving their skills.

Integrative motivation involves a desire to learn an L2 because individuals need to learn the target language to integrate into the community. In addition to this interest, the people or the culture represented by the other language group may also inspire them. On the other hand, instrumental motivation acknowledges the role that external influences and incentives play in strengthening the learners'

desire to achieve. Learners who are instrumentally motivated are interested in learning the language for a particular purpose, such as writing a dissertation or getting a job. According to the theory, if foreign language learning takes place in isolation from a community of target language speakers, then it benefits more from integrative motivation, whereas if it takes place among a community of speakers, then instrumental orientation becomes the more effective motivational factor. Despite problems in Gardner's research design, it can be concluded that motivational factors "probably do not make much difference on their own, but they can create a more positive context in which language learning is likely to flourish" **(Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994, p. 140)**.

Learners' attitudes, motivations, and goals can explain why some L2 writers perform better than others. For example, at the beginning of each of my ESL writing classes, I often ask students to fill out a personal information form to determine their needs and interests when planning my course. The answers to questions such as, **"Do you enjoy writing in English?"** and **"What are your strengths and weaknesses in writing?"** are revealing.

Most students will answer that they hate writing in English (and in their native language, for that matter), and are only taking the course for educational and/or career purposes. In fact, it seems that many of the students would prefer to be practicing conversation. Students may enjoy writing e-mail messages to friends around the world, but challenges, such as difficulties getting started, finding the right words, and developing topics, abound. However, if students show an overall interest in the target language (integrative motivation), perceive that there is parental and social support, and have a desire to achieve their professional goals (instrumental motivation), they can become more proficient in their ability to write in English, despite the initial lack of self-motivation.

Writing teachers should be aware of how the instrumental motivation of their L2 students will influence the effectiveness of their lessons. Common purposes for learners writing in an EAP context include writing a research paper for publication in an English-speaking journal or writing a business report for a multinational company. These learners may be less motivated to write stories or poetry, because they perceive that these tasks are not related to their needs. Even writing a standard research essay may seem like a waste of time for those who will need to write project reports and memos. If learners perceive writing tasks to be useless, they may approach them in a careless manner. Consequently, it is likely that they will be inattentive to errors, monitoring, and rhetorical concerns **(Carson, 2001)**. However, if students are highly motivated, then any sort of writing task, expressive or otherwise, are welcomed.

Social factors also influence the quality of contact that learners will experience. Indeed, we cannot assume that "more contact" with the target language will result in more acquisition of the L2. Certainly, instructors recommend that students studying English for academic purposes should read academic texts, attend academic lectures, and even work with students who are native speakers in order to become more acquainted with the discourse.

However, if they do not engage in the texts, understand the talks, or actively contribute to the study sessions, these activities will have little effect on student progress. Interaction is key. A common complaint among ESL students at

university is that they have difficulty meeting native speakers and getting to know them. Students are often disappointed that they do not have as much interaction with native speakers as they had expected. In addition, they often associate with other students from their L1 and speak their native language. Unfortunately, this pattern can slow down L2 development in all skill areas. The instructor is often responsible for providing incentives or opportunities for interactions with native speakers. Generally speaking, if L2 learners are motivated to integrate into the L2, they will develop a higher level of proficiency and positive attitudes, which can have a positive effect on their writing.

In short, learners may continue to exhibit errors in their writing for the following social reasons:

1. negative attitudes toward the target language
2. continued lack of progress in the L2
3. a wide social and psychological distance between them and the target culture, and,
4. a lack of integrative and instrumental motivation for learning.

✓ **Cognitive Factors**

Learner strategies can be effective, but they need to be internalized so that they can be utilized in adverse learning situations. For example, if an environment is perceived to be stressful or threatening, for example, writing as part of a job interview process, or performing under timed test conditions, learners' affective states can influence cognition. Emotional influences along with cognitive factors can account for achievement and performance in L2, to a certain extent. **Schumann (1998)** argues that affect may influence cognition through its role in framing a problem and in adopting processing strategies. He states that we very often use feelings as information: "When faced with a situation about which we have to make a judgment we often ask ourselves how we feel about it we may also employ feelings when time constraints and competing tasks limit our cognitive capacities" (p. 247). This outcome may affect the way second language students perform when they are under stress.

Language transfer is another important cognitive factor related to writing error. Transfer is defined as the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired **(Odlin, 1989)**. The study of transfer involves the study of errors (negative transfer), facilitation (positive transfer), avoidance of target language forms, and their over-use **(Ellis, 1994).**

Learners lack the necessary information in the foreign language or the attentional capacity to activate the appropriate second-language routine. But such an account says little about why certain linguistic forms transfer and others do not**. (1988, p. 50)**

Input and interaction also play important roles in the writing process, especially in classroom settings. Some studies have indicated that input, along with L1 transfer and communicative need may work together to shape inter-language **(Ellis, 1994; Selinker, 1972).**

However, if the interaction, oral or written, allows for adequate negotiation of meaning, peer responses can be very useful. (**See Pellettieri (2000)** for what happens when learners respond to each other on the computer and read texts containing spelling and grammar errors).

We can see that writing in a foreign language is a complex process involving the ability to communicate in L2 (learner output) and the ability to construct a text in order to express one's ideas effectively in writing. Social and cognitive factors and learner strategies help us in assessing the underlying reasons why L2 learners exhibit particular writing errors. For instance, the writing problems experienced by Spanish speakers living in the United States may be due to a multiplicity of factors, including the effects of transfer and interference from the Spanish language, and cultural norms (Plata, 1995). Spanish-speaking writers must undergo the task of cognitively exchanging the style of the Spanish language for that of English. For this transformation to happen, some students find that creating another people, such as replacing their birth name with an English one, can help them to become more immersed in the target language and culture. In short, because learners are less familiar and less confident with structural elements of a new language, rhetorical and cultural conventions and even new uses of writing, writing in an L2 can have errors and be less effective than writing in L1 **(Kern, 2000)**.

First of all, students may be able to communicate more effectively if they are exposed to models of not only standard paragraphs and essays, but also a variety of genres of writing, including flyers, magazine articles, letters, and so forth. By examining a variety of written texts, students' awareness can be raised with regard to the way words, structures, and genre contribute to purposeful writing. They can also be made aware of different types of textual organization, which can in turn affect L2 students' composing processes **(Swales, 1990; Raimes, 1991, 1998).**

Students come to class both to improve their language proficiency and become more confident in their writing abilities. Writing practice can also present diagnostic feedback that helps learners improve their linguistic accuracy at every level of proficiency. Instruction should provide students with ample amounts of language input and instruction, as well as writing experience (preferably through the interweaving of writing and reading, referred to as "intertextuality" **(Blanton, 1999)**, *and* feedback to fulfill their goals. Overt classroom instruction through modeling, for instance, is only one part of the teaching process; providing students with feedback on their writing is the other. Essentially, we need to consider factors related to language proficiency, second language acquisition, and writing skill development when giving feedback. Specifically, the effectiveness of feedback may depend on the level of students' motivation, their current language level, their cognitive style, the clarity of the feedback given, the way the feedback is used, and the attitudes of students toward their teacher and the class **(Ferris, 1997; Goldstein, 2001; Omaggio Hadley, 1993).** Classroom settings, course goals, and grading procedures and standards are also important **(Leki, 1990)**. Systematically encouraging learners to reflect on what they want to write and then helping them to make an appropriate choice of language forms has pedagogic value.
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✓ Micro-skills for Writing

Micro-skills for writing production are enumerated in the following table:

1. Produce graphemes and orthographic patterns of English

2. Produce writing at an efficient rate of speed to suit the purpose.

3. Produce an acceptable core of words and use appropriate word order patterns.

4. Use acceptable grammatical systems (e.g., tense, agreement, pluralization), patterns and rules.

5. Express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.

6. Use cohesive devices in written discourse.

7. Use the rhetorical forms and conventions of written discourse.

8. Appropriately accomplish the communicative functions of written texts according to form and purpose.

9. Convey links and connections between events and communicate such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization and exemplification.

10. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings when writing.

11. Correctly convey culturally specific references in the context of the written text.

12. Develop and use a battery of writing strategies, such as accurately assessing the audience's interpretation, using prewriting devices, writing with fluency in the first drafts, using paraphrases and synonyms, soliciting peer and instructor feedback and using feedback for revising and editing.

✓ Types of classroom writing performance

While various genres of written texts abound classroom writing performance is by comparison, limited. Consider the following five major categories of classroom writing performance.

1. **Imitative or writing down**
   At the beginning level of learning to write, students will simply "write down" English letters , words and possibly sentences in order to learn the conventions of the orthographic code. Some forms of dictation fall into this category; although dictations can serve to teach and test higher-order processing as well. Dictations typically involve the following steps:

a. Teacher reads a short paragraph once or twice at normal speed.
b. Teacher reads the paragraph in short phrase units of three or fourth words each and each unit is followed by a pause.
c. During the pause, students write exactly what they hear.
d. Teacher then reads the whole paragraph once more a normal speed so students can check their writing.
e. Scoring of students' written work can utilize a number of rubrics for assigning points. Usually spelling and punctuation errors are not considered as severe as grammatical errors.

2. Intensive or controlled

Writing is sometimes used as a production mode for learning, reinforcing or testing grammatical concepts. This intensive writing typically appears in controlled, writing grammar exercises. This type of writing does not allow much, if any, creativity on the part of the writer.

A common form of controlled writing is to present a paragraph to students in which they have to alter a given structure throughout. So for example, they may be asked to change all present tense verbs to past tense, in such a case students may need to alter other time references in the paragraph.

Guided writing loosens the teacher's control but still offers a series of stimulators. For example, the teacher might get students to tell a story just viewed just viewed on a video tape by asking them a series of questions. Where does the story take place?. Describe the principal character. What does he say to the woman in the car?

Yet another form of controlled writing is a **dicto-comp.** here a paragraph is read at normal speed, usually two or three times, then the teacher asks students to rewrite the paragraph to the best of their recollection of the reading. In one of several variations of the dicto-comp technique, the teacher after reading the passage, puts key words from the paragraph in sequence on the chalkboard as cues for the students.

3. Self-writing

A significant proportion of classroom writing may be devoted to self-writing, or writing with only the self in mind as an audience. The most salient instance of this category in classrooms is note-taking may be done in the margins of books and on odd scraps of paper.

Diary or journal writing also falls into this category. However, in many circumstances a **dialogue journal,** in which a student records thoughts, feelings and reactions and which an instructor reads and responds to, while, ostensibly written for oneself, has two audiences.

4. Display writing

It was noted earlier that writing within the school curricular context is a way of life. For all language students, short answer exercises, essay examinations, and even research reports will involve an element of display. For academically bound ESL students one of the academic skills that they need to master is a whole array of display writing techniques.

5. **Real writing**

   While virtually every classroom writing task will have an element of display writing in it, some classroom writing aims at the genuine communication of messages to an audience in need of those messages. The two categories of real and display writing are actually two ends of a continuum, and in between the two extremes lies some combination of display and real writing. Three subcategories illustrate how reality can be injected.

   a. **Academic:** The language Experience Approach give groups of students opportunities to convey genuine information to each other. Content based instruction encourages the exchange of useful information and some of

      this learning uses the written word. Group problem solving tasks, especially those that relate to current issues and other personally relevant topics, may have a writing component in which information is genuinely sought and conveyed.
      Peer editing work adds to what would otherwise be an audience of one (the instructor) and provides real writing opportunity. In certain ESP and EAP courses, students may exchange new information with each other and with the instructor.

   b. **Vocational/technical:** Quite a variety of real writing can take place in classes of students studying English for advancement in their occupation. Real letters can be written, genuine directions for some operation or assembly might be given and actual forms can be filled out. These possibilities are even greater in what has come to be called "English in the Workplace," where ESL is offered within companies and corporations.

   c. **Personal:** In virtually any ESL class, diaries, letters, post cards, notes, personal messages and other informal writing can take place especially within the context of an interactive classroom. While certain tasks may be somewhat contrived, nevertheless the genuine exchange of information can happen.

3.8 EVALUATING STUDENT WRITING

The evaluation of writing, especially in a process – oriented classroom, is a thorny issue. If you are a guide and facilitator of students performance in the outgoing process of developing a piece of written work, how can you also be the judge? What do you judge? The answer to the first question how can you be a judge and a guide at the same time is one of the primary dilemmas of all teachers. Juggling this dual role requires wisdom and sensitivity. The key to being a judge is fairness and explicitness in what you take into account in your evaluation.

In the following table shows the six general categories that are often the basis for the evaluation of student writing.

Categories for evaluating writing (adapted from) D. Brown 1991)

Content

- Thesis statement
- Related ideas
- Development of ideas through personal experience, illustration, facts opinions
- Use of description, cause / effect, comparison /contrast
- Consistent focus

Organization

- Effectiveness of introduction
- Logical sequence of ideas
- Conclusion
- Appropriate length

Discourse

- Topic sentences
- Paragraph unity
- Transitions
- Discourse markers
- Cohesion
- Rhetorical conventions
- Reference
- Fluency
- Economy
- Variation

Syntax
Vocabulary
Mechanics

- Spelling
- Punctuation
- Citation of references (if applicable)
- Neatness and appearance

Experts disagree somewhat on the system of weighting each of the above categories that is, which of the six is most important, next and so on. Nevertheless, the order in which the six are listed here at the very least emphasizes the importance of content over syntax and vocabulary which traditionally might have had high priority.

In your evaluation of student writing, the most instructive evaluative feedback you can give is your comments, both specific and summative, regarding the student's work. The six category list in the before table can serve as the basis for such evaluations. If numerical scores are either pedagogically or administratively important to you, then you can establish a point scale (say 0 to 5) for each of the categories and return papers with six different scores on them. By avoiding a single overall score, you can help students to focus on aspects of

writing to which they need to give special attention. If you still need to assign a single "grade" or score to each paper then consider weighting the first few categories more heavily. You can thereby emphasize the content based flavour of your evaluation. Such a weighting scale might look like this:

Content: 0 -24
Organization: 0 -20
Discourse: 0 -20
Syntax: 0 -12
Vocabulary: 0 -12
Mechanics   0 -12
                _____

TOTAL   100

A key of course to successful evaluation is to get your students to understand that your grades, scores and other comments are varied forms or feedback from which they can benefit. The final evaluation on one composition simply creates input to the learner for the next composition.

Writing instruction in a communicative, interactive language course should be deeply rooted in the twelve principles of language learning and teaching that have formed a train of thought throughout this book. As you think about each principle, you can make the connections. Automaticity, for example, is gained as students develop fluency in writing which can best be promoted through the multiple stages of a process writing approach. Meaningful learning is paramount as you try to get your students involved in topics of interest and significance to them and in authentic writing tasks. Perhaps you can continue down the list yourself.

3.9 Hypothesis system:

3.9.1 Working Hypothesis

- The interactive teaching methodologies in the English classroom **will influence positively** for improving communicative skills in the students of second year of school "Emiliano Ortega Espinoza" in the period: May – July 2007).

3.9.2 Null Hypothesis

- The interactive teaching methodologies in the English classroom **will influence negatively** for improving communicative skills in the students of second year of school "Emiliano Ortega Espinoza" in the period: May – July 2007).

3.9.3 Alternative Hypothesis

- Provide plenty of extra-class learning opportunities; such as assigning an English speaking expositions about different actual topics; for example Social Problems in Ecuador, where students will develop the four skills: writing, (grammar) reading, (pronunciation) speaking (oral production), and listening (comprehension).

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PART THREE
METHODOLOGICAL DESIGN

"Education is an admirable thing, but nothing that is worth knowing can be taught". **(Oscar Wilde)**

3   METHODOLOGICAL DESIGN

3.1   Research type and design:

This is not a field research, this project is concerned to a formal experiment. Where we want to do a experimental work with the students of the second year of the "Emiliano Ortega Espinoza High School" , in order to improve the level of learning of the English. Applying basically the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), but focusing speaking, through of Interactive Teaching.

3.2   Population and sample:

To develop this research about interactive teaching principles in the English classroom I have decided use a experimental study where I chose two groups of students of the same level of learning. One group of the students will be experimental group and the other control group. Both groups will serve to start the experimentation in order to compare which group obtain good results during the period of experimentation.

In the "Emiliano Ortega Espinoza High School" actually, I have to near 120 students during 2006 -2007 academic year. but I have decided to work with the students of second year who are near of finishing school and then will continue their studies at the university. They are preparing in two careers. The one course are 24 students of Biologics Chemical and the other 30 students of Mathematics Physique. The experimental group will be the 24 students of Biologics Chemical and the control group will be the 30 students of Mathematics Physique.

The experimental group will work applying the interactive teaching method, while that the control group will apply the traditional method. At the end of the research period all students are tested to determine which of the two competing methods is the more effective.

3.3 Fielding

In order to carry out the present research will use the following methods, and techniques, the same will apply during the last trimester. May – July 2007.

Class Methodology:

- Use of student's book for developing the different tasks.

- Using a tape recorder for applying listening exercises

- Students should realize that studying in groups is only one of several ways of learning that will go on in the class.

- Discussing the advantages that students can derive from learning in groups may help overcome resistance to group activities. These potential advantages include learning more , having more fun and preparing for tasks away from high school in which collaboration is necessary.

- Using games and activities to encourage the students to look forward to other group –learning activities. Many enjoyable games also teach academic and social skills.

- Start with pairs work/ group work and develop tasks that require exchange information such as: sharing personal experiences, opinions, exchange tasks.

- Provide language support in terms of useful vocabulary and structures, so that students are more likely to succeed. Success here will build confidence in the ability to work in groups.

Techniques:

- Working in pairs/ groups of students. Taking the number of students in your class, divided by the number of students you want per group, and the result will be the number students should count to.

- Participating in expositions, discussions, debates, conversations, role play, games and activities. for develop the four skills..

- Listening and resolving activities of the CD, ordering and sorting, jigsaw tasks, information gap tasks, comparing, creative tasks.

3.4 Instruments for data collection:

In the proposed research work I intent to collect data using a register of scores obtained by the students, survey questionnaires, interview reports, the use of tape recorder during the experimentation in order to hear student's error while they develop the activities, and final survey.

3.5 Processing and analysis:

I will use different techniques for the result analysis and interpretation of the research after carrying out a series of statistical procedures such the calculation of the mean, the modal value, the standard deviation, the variance, among other percentages. The analysis will be described in charts, graphs, and summaries.

PART FOUR
TESTING THE HYPOTHESES

"Good Teaching is more a giving of right questions than a giving of right answers". **(Jose Albers)**

After analysing the results of the surveys carried out among students of the second year of chemical biologics and mathematic physics in the last three months developed in the "Emiliano Ortega Espinoza School" plus the valuable statements and theories exposed after the research done in related fields, I can demonstrate that working hypothesis of this research, which states that the interactive teaching methodologies in the English classroom have a positive influence for improving communicative skills in the students of second year of school "Emiliano Ortega Espinoza" especially in the experimental group.

In this case, the null hypothesis that states the interactive teaching methodologies in the English classroom influences negatively for improving communicative skills in the students of second year of Emiliano Ortega Espinoza School will be hopeless once the working hypothesis has been proved. Therefore, neither an alternative hypothesis will be necessary to proved in this research.

4.1 Graphical exposition and analysis of results.

The results of the survey carried out are graphically exposed in the following point together with their analysis.

4.1.1 Students' survey.

During the last three months I have applied to the students 3 surveys, in the two first surveys is to do a evaluation about personality of them, The two surveys were applied to the control group and experimental group of the students and the last survey carried out to the students of the second year of chemical (experimental group) I could find the following results together with their analysis.

SURVEY TO THE STUDENTS OF THE SECOND YEAR OF BIOLOGICS CHEMICAL

Question 1
Do you know what interactive English is? Give a definition

|			%
1	YES	21	88
2	NO	2	8
3	OTHER	1	4
	TOTAL	**24**	**100**
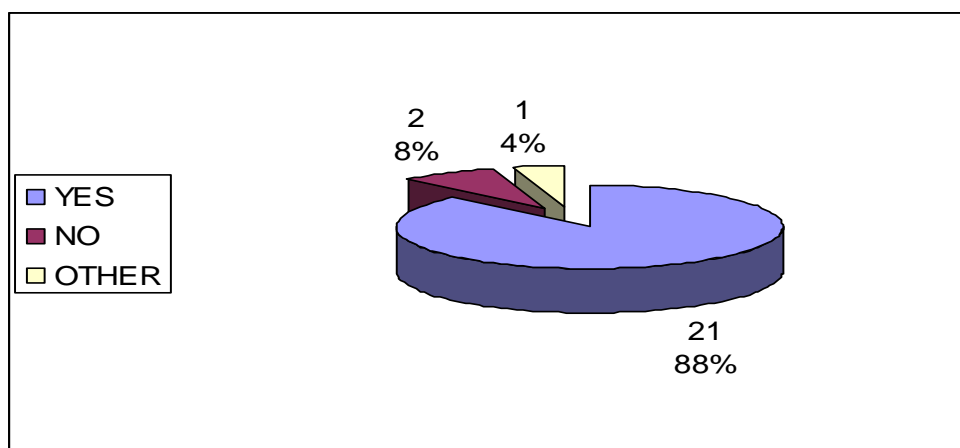
In the first question, the results show that the 88% of 24 students, answered that they know about interactive English, and they think that the English Interactive Teaching is very important because is an active form in the learning process, besides the 8 % answered that they don't know about interactive English, while the 4% do not give their opinions.

Question 2
How do you feel working with interactive teaching methodologies? Why?

|			%
1	EXCELLENT	14	59
2	VERY GOOD	8	33
3	GOOD	1	4
4	POOR	1	4
	TOTAL	**24**	**100**
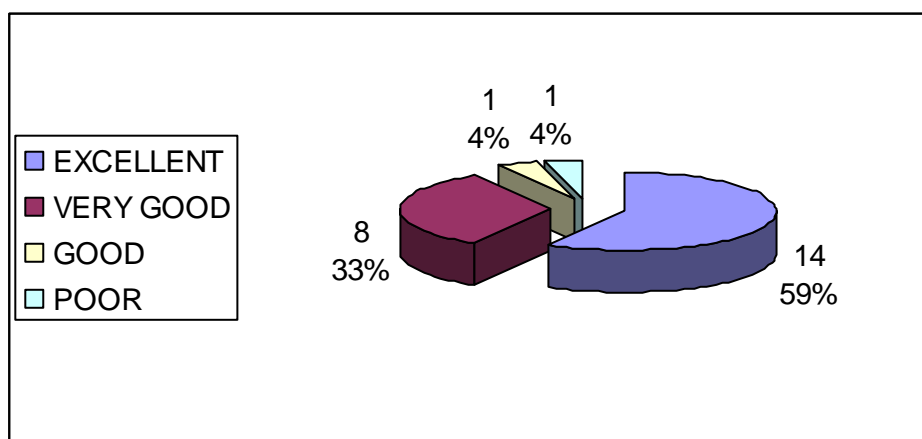
In the second question, I could observe that the results show that near 59% of 24 students, answered that applying this method of interactive English is excellent because they learned to communicate and speak in English with the classmate, other students said that with this method there was a classroom integration , the 33 % answered that interactive English is very good, while the 4% answered that this method is good, because for them it is too difficult to speak in English because they don't know vocabulary. One student said that he doesn't like to work in group.
In summary most of the students of second year of chemist sciences were motivated by the teacher to do this work applying this method..

Question 3
What difficulties did you have while learning with this new approach? Why?

|			%
1	VOCABULARY	3	12
2	PRONUNCIATION	18	69
3	SPEAKING	5	19
	TOTAL	**24**	**100**
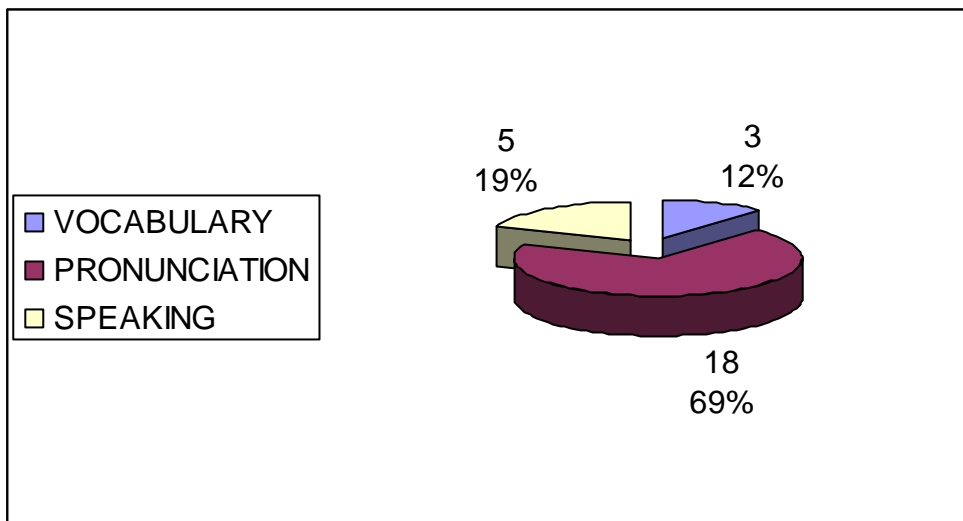
In this question near 69% answered that in this new methodology them have had many difficulties in pronunciation, 19% said that have difficulties in speaking, while 12% said that have problems in vocabulary. Therefore during the activities done by the teacher, she has corrected some mistakes that students had during conversations, role plays, expositions etc, in order to improve speaking.

Question 4
Would you like to continue working with expositions, role plays, games, interviews, dialogues, etc, in order to improve your language?

|			%
1	YES	23	96
2	NO	1	4
3	OTHER		
	TOTAL	24	100
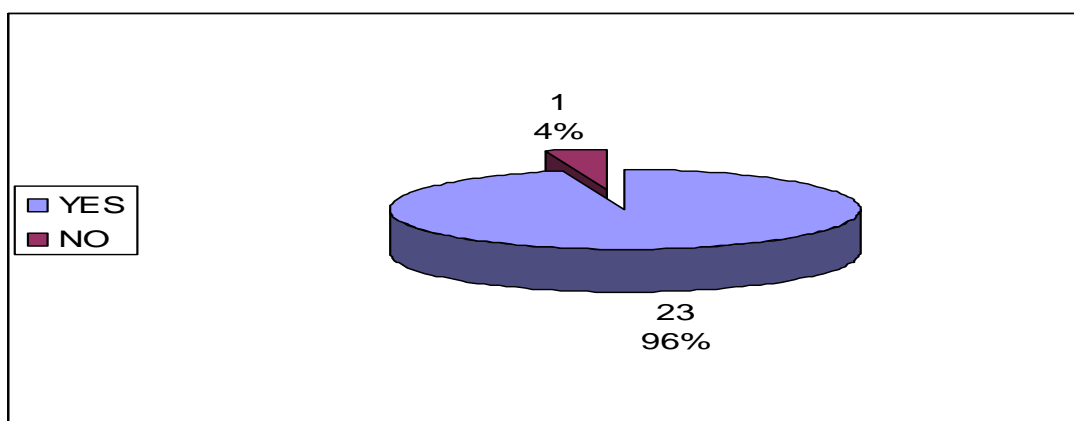
In this question the results show that 96% of the students answered that is very important to do these activities, because they said that are afraid and feel security in front of the teacher and their classmates. Other students said that doing these activities help to improve the learning process for: enjoying the language, to create dynamic classes, and for understanding the teacher. While 4% said that preferred work alone nor in group.
In summary I can say that these activities have been very successful in learning English language applied to the students of the second year of chemist sciences.

Question 5
Which of the four skills is the most important? and which do you like the most?   Why

|			%
1	LISTENING	10	19
2	SPEAKING	19	35
3	READING	11	11
4	WRITING	13	25
	TOTAL		100
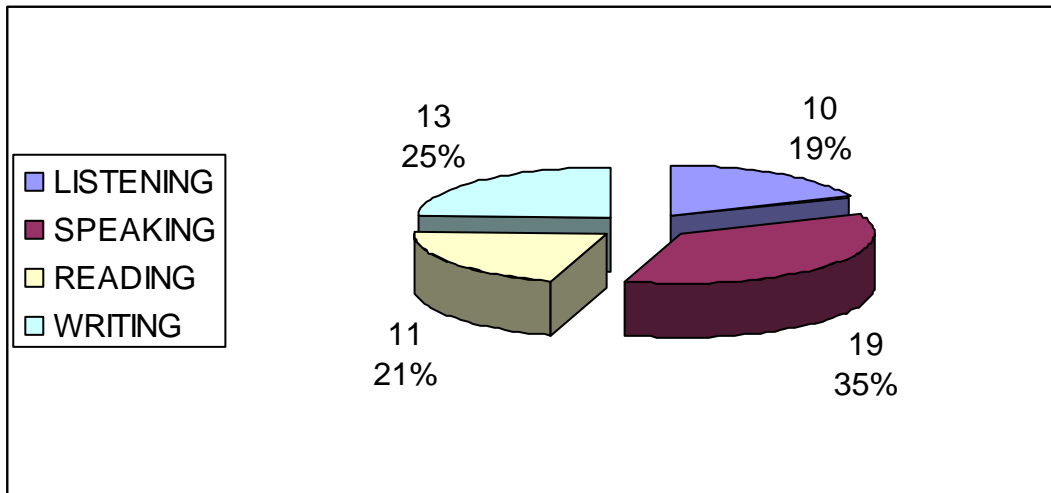
In this question the results show that near 35% of students consider speaking as the most important skill, because this skill lets them to develop a good language and improve pronunciation. 25% of students considered writing as the most important skill because they can write correctly, translate and learn more vocabulary. While 21% of students considered reading as the most important   because they said they learn more vocabulary, to improve pronunciation. Therefore a 19% of students consider listening because they learn to pronounce and speak correctly the language.

Question 6
Would you like to work in groups or alone while learning English?. Which of both do you believe could be good methodology? Why

|			%
1	WORK IN GROUP	20	83
2	WORK ALONE	4	17
	TOTAL	24	100
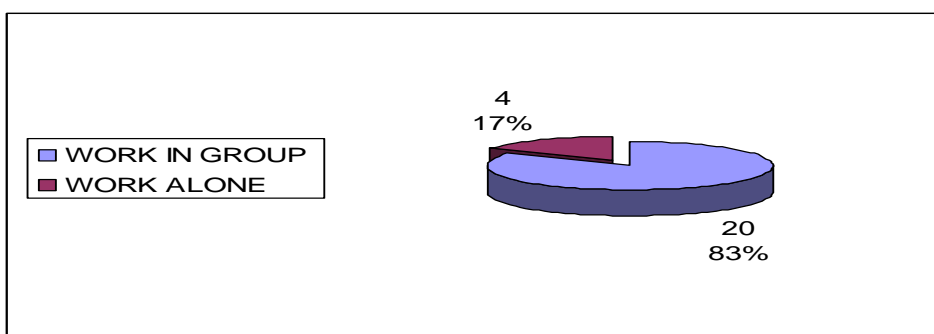
In this question the results show that 83% of the students enjoy working in groups, because they think best and do a good work, other students learn to share and integrate more among classmates, while 17% of students prefer working alone because they can concentrate better, other students don't like working in groups because sometimes one person do the work and the other students get a score easy without working.

In summary most of students agree on working in groups, because learn more English and in groups they feel sure to speak in front of the teacher.

Question 7
Do you like to study English? Why?

			%
1	YES	22	92
2	NO	2	8
3	OTHER		
	TOTAL	**24**	**100**
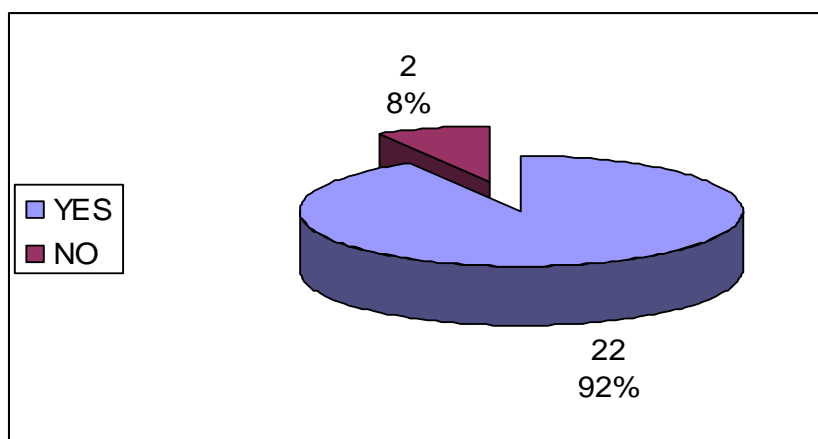
92% of students answered that English is very important and like it, because it is very necessary to get a good job, while 8% answered that don't like English, because it is too much difficult , because don't understand the meaning of the words.

Question 8
What do you think of the textbook "Our World Through English"? Why

			%
1	EXCELLENT	6	25
2	VERY GOOD	8	33
3	GOOD	7	29
4	POOR	3	13
	TOTAL	**24**	**100**
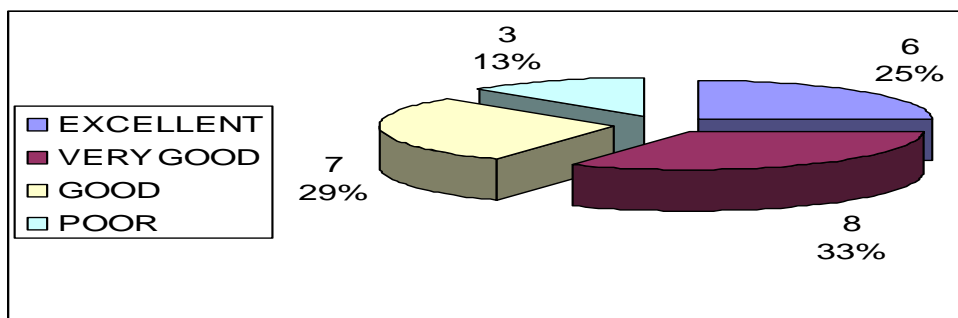
Following the statistics near 33% answered that the textbook "Our World Trough English" is a very good and useful material, 29% of the students answered that the book is good, but it is necessary to improve the materials to facilitate the student a good learning. Therefore, near 25% said that is an excellent book and easy to learn to speak English, while 13% don't agree with this book, because they suggested that investigating in the internet and doing work groups and working with dialogues, watch videos in English and commenting about them would be great for learning English.

Question 9
Do you believe that we must continue working with this textbook?

			%
1	YES	15	
2	NO	9	
3	OTHER		
	TOTAL	24	100
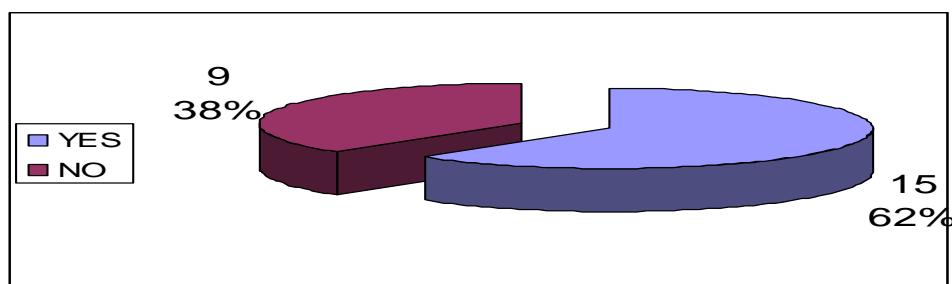
In this question, near 62% agreed working with the textbook "Our Trough English" because is very interesting and economic material, working with other material would be difficult for the cost because their parents don't have enough money to support, while 38% said it would be great to change the material for better results.

Question 10
Which of the extra activities while working with the text did you like the most ? Why

			%
1	Expositions	13	42
2	Role Plays	6	19
3	Games	5	16
4	Discussions, debates (group in work)	7	
	TOTAL		100

7
23%

13
42%

5
16%

6
19%

- ☐ Expositions
- ☐ Role Plays
- ☐ Games
- ☐ Discussions, debates (group in work)
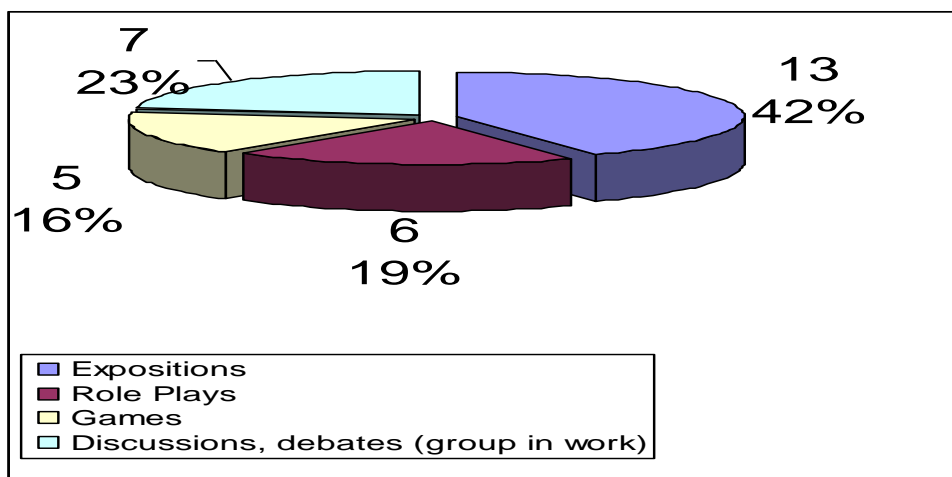
In this question, 42% answered they enjoyed working with expositions, because they learned to improve our English, 23% said they enjoyed working with discussions and conversations about a topic, because it helped them to improve their pronunciation and learn more vocabulary, 19% said that enjoyed working with role plays, because learned to integrate more and smiled of their errors, while 16% said that enjoyed working with games, because the teacher gave prizes when someone won a game or contest.

Question 11
What could be done to improve the learning of the English language at Emiliano Ortega Espinoza School?. Write two suggestions

In this question, there aren't statistics formulated , because there were different opinions as follows:

- To motivate teachers to work with new methodologies
- To increment the materials for learning the language
- Implementing a video room or lab for achieving the language in a better way.
- Increasing the study hours
- Among others.

Question 12
Is it important to learn how to speak a foreign language? explain Yes ( )   No ( ) Why

In this question, there aren't formulated statistics, because the 24 students answered positively that is very important to learn to speak a second language, because We need to know English to get a good job.

4.2 Conclusions:

- I can say that during the development of my project, the interactive teaching English has been an excellent strategy to teach the students, because students and teachers can enjoy and learn too much.

- The results of the survey carried out among students of "Emiliano Ortega Espinoza School" show us the positive influence in the experimental group, which has worked with English interactive teaching applying the four

skills, focusing mainly listening and speaking that more need the students, to learn best the language.

- Some things did not happen in the same way in both groups due to the materials used, the control group used the text "our world through English", while the experimental group used a series of things which were of a lot of interest.

- Finally, I can say that we as teachers should apply English interactive teaching in all grades or courses, because, it is very important for developing an excellent English in the students of the new generation.

4.3 Recommendations:

1. This research work has lots of information, which can provide some strategies and survey results, which can be taken account as possible solutions for the teaching and learning proves in the "Emiliano Ortega Espinoza" high school. Therefore, it is recommended to take seriously the research that will help in our daily professional -and the future life of the students.

2. This research was done between two groups of students one experimental group and the other control group, the experimental group learned to develop more the four skills, basically speaking, on the other hand the control group level was a little lower, therefore it is very important to follow the same teaching program taking in advance all the available materials in order to get the best results as possible with the students..

3. Finally, I would like to recommend following with the use of the Interactive Teaching Methodology to all the teachers of Emiliano Ortega Espinoza, school because it will let the student to have a good English level, which helps students to get a foreign language in an easy and funny way, and especially because it deals with contemporary and relevant topics to both teachers and students.

ANNEX

SURVEY TO THE STUDENTS OF THE SECOND YEAR OF BIOLOGICS CHEMICAL

This is a survey with the propose of knowing student opinions about of the new approach of learning of the English idiom

Mr. Student:
Please answer the following questions sincerely and explain why

1.- Do you know what interactive English is? Give a definition   Yes ( )   No ( )

_____
_____

2.- How do you feel working with interactive teaching methodologies? Why?

Excellent ( )   Very Good ( )   Good ( )   Poor ( )

_____
_____

3.- What difficulties did you have while learning with this new approach? Why?

Vocabulary ( )   Pronunciation ( )   Speaking ( )

_____
_____

4.- Would you like to continue working with expositions, role plays, games, interviews, dialogues, etc, in order to improve your language?

Yes ( )   No ( )   Why

_____
_____

5.- Which of the four skills is the most important? and which do you like the most? Why

Listening ( )   Speaking ( )   Reading ( )   Writing ( )

_____
_____

6.- Would you like to work in groups or alone while learning English?. Which of both do you believe could be good methodology? Why

_____
_____

7.- Do you like to study English?   Yes ( )   No ( )   Why

_____
_____

8.- What do you think of the textbook "Our World Through English"? Why

Excellent ( )   Very Good ( )   Good ( )   Poor ( )

_____
_____

9.   Do you believe that we must continue working with this textbook?   Yes ( )   No ( ) Why

_____
_____

10.- Which of the extra activities while working with the text did you like the most ? Why

_____
_____

11.- What could be done to improve the learning of the English language at Emiliano Ortega
      Espinoza School?. Write two suggestions

_____
_____

12.   Is it important to learn how to speak a foreign language? explain   Yes (   )   No (   )   Why

_____
_____

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PART FIVE
PROPOSAL
(INTERACTIVE TEACHING METHODOLOGY)

"The success of good learning is people's behaviour makes sense if you think about it in terms of their goals, need and motives".
(Thomas Mann)

5.1 INTRODUCTION

During the last three months of working in the year 2006 -2007 with the two groups of students of the second year of chemistry and physics science applied in the Emiliano Ortega Espinosa School, I could observe many important things that students should practice to improve the development of the four skills.

Firstly, the students need to learn English grammar rules and vocabulary, Secondly, learners should learn to communicate your ideas between classmates and the teacher, it will enable to the students develop a general command of real English for using outside the classroom.   I believe that if we get that the students practice the skills, teachers will get good results, for example: the first sign of good teaching is the attention and interest shown by the learners, if they are voluntarily paying attention, something good is probably happening, if they are showing clear interest listening eagerly, following instructions, asking and answering questions, mostly in English something very good is probably happening. Holding the learners attention, getting their interest and their active participation, are essential in English language teaching as in all teaching.

.   It will help us to understand and to prove at the same time the important academic achievements gotten with ongoing training, interactive techniques and methods in order to improve the four skills: Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing to an excellent learning of the English language.

5.2 JUSTIFICATION

Interactive learning, in the heart of current theories of communicative competence is the essentially interactive nature of communication. When you speak, for example, the extent to which your intended message is received is a factor of both your production and the listener's reception. Most meaning, in a semantic sense, is a product of negotiation, of give and take, as interlocutors attempt to communicate. Thus, the communicative purpose of language compels us to create opportunities for genuine interaction in the classroom. An interactive course or technique will provide for such negotiation, Interactive classes will most likely be found.

- Doing a significant amount of pair work and group work.
- Receiving authentic language input in real world contexts
- Producing language for genuine, meaningful communication.
- Performing classroom tasks that prepare them for actual language use "out there".

- Practicing oral communication through the give and take and spontaneity of actual conversations.
- Writing to and for real audiences, not contrived ones.

Learners interact with each other through oral and written discourse their communicative abilities are enhanced.

In this chapter we will look at group work as central to maintain linguistic interaction in the classroom. you will get some answers to questions such as: What are the advantages of group work? What are some problems to overcome in successful group work? What different kinds of tasks are appropriate for group work? What are some steps for implementing group work? What are some rules for successful group work?.

5.3 ADVANTAGES OF GROUP WORK

According to **Long &Porter (1985),** says that a group work is a generic term covering a multiplicity of techniques in which two or more students are assigned a task that involves collaboration and self-initiated language. Note that what commonly call pair work is simply work group in groups of two. It is also important to note that group work usually implies "small" group work that is, students in groups of perhaps six or fewer. Large groupings defeat one of the major purposes for doing group work: giving students more opportunities to speak.

Group work is solidly grounded in research principles, consider the importance of interaction in the language classroom discussed in previous chapter. An integration of these principles and issues yields a number of advantages of group work for your English language classroom.

1. **Group work generates interactive language**

   In so-called traditional language classes teacher talk is dominant. Teachers lecture explain grammar points, conduct drills and at best lead whole-.class discussions in   which each student might get a few seconds of a class period to talk. Group work helps to solve the problem of classes that are too large to offer many opportunities to speak..

   Long &Porter (1985), says if just half of your class time were spent in group work, you could increase individual practice time five-fold over whole class traditional methodology.

   Closely related to the sheer quantity of output made possible through group work is the variety and quality of interactive language. With traditional methods, language tends to be restricted to initiation only by the teacher in an artificial setting where the whole class becomes a "group interlocutor".

2. **Group work offers an embracing affective climate**

   The second important advantage offered by a group work is the security of a smaller group of students where each individual is not so starkly on public display, vulnerable to what the student may perceive as criticism and rejection. In countless observation of classes, I have seen the magic of small groups. Quite suddenly, reticent students become vocal participants in the process. The small group becomes a community of learners cooperating with each other in pursuit of common goals.

A further affective benefit of small group work is an increase in student motivation. With **Maslow's** "security/safety" level satisfied through the cohesiveness of the small group learners are thus freed to pursue higher objectives in their quest for success.

3. **Group work promotes learner responsibility and autonomy**

   Even in a relatively small class of fifteen to twenty students, whole class activity often gives students a screen to hide behind. I remember a college French class I took in which the teacher's single teaching technique was to call on students one by one to translate a sentence in our reading passage of the day. My way of playing that game was simply to keep one sentence ahead of the teacher so that when my name came up. I was ready. I paid no attention to what was currently being translated, to the meaning of the whole passage, to comments by the teacher, or to follow classmates. An extreme case to be sure!. But even in less deadly classroom climates, climates, students can "relax" too much in whole class work. Group work places responsibility for action and progress upon each of the members of the group somewhat equally. It is difficult to "hide" in a small group.

4. **Group work is a step toward individualizing instruction**

   Each student in a classroom has needs and abilities that are unique, Usually the most salient individual difference that you observe is a range of proficiency levels across your class and, even more specifically, differences among students in their *speaking, listening, writing,* and *reading* abilities. Small groups can help students with varying abilities to accomplish separate goals. The teacher can recognize and capitalize upon other individual differences (age, cultural heritage, field of study, cognitive style to name a few) by careful selection of small groups and by administering different tasks to different groups.

Follow **Karl Lawrence,** says that a group work involves a number of persons coming together on some common ground with the same objectives and goals in mind. In my particular case, involvement in group working consist of other student members forming into groups, to achieve more or less the same stated objectives.

A well-functioning group is effective and people like to belong to it. Working in a group must be practiced, as collaboration will develop with the experience. Cooperation is useful because groups

- Take decisions and solve problems more effectively than individuals working alone,
- friendship, empathy, and responsibility,
- distribute and specialize work, which produce advantages for every member,
- conflicts, both intellectual and social, easier than individual, and
- make friendship, love, and companionship possible through interaction.

There are some aims to identify the advantages and disadvantages to working in a group/team setting.

Advantages:

The first advantage in working in a group setting is that it enables the group as a whole to be many times more productive than individuals working on their own. It allows each member to focus on the task and the problems that might arise. Receiving the individuals' contributions to both. Discussing the pros and cons of the various ideas and thoughts on the problems, and in a spirit of cooperation, elect a particular course of action, being prepared that should it not worked out as plan, to revisit, as a group, to find alternative solutions.

The second advantage is that the group can be seen as a resource, from which each member can draw or call upon. Members are working on their allotted tasks, and find they need further information or advice, or discover an easier method of approaching an aspect of their problem (but one which each member will at sometime encountered).

The third advantage is where a member needs encouragement to put their views across. It might be 'how they feed about a particular approach' or a decision that has been implemented, how is it working from their point a view e.g. feedback. It is incumbent on each member of the group, and this must be shown to the individual concern, to have that individual playing his/her part in the overall scheme of things.

And a forth advantage is the 'manners and people management skills' that a group/team develops in order to communicate, bearing in mind the **medium** over which communication take place.

Disadvantages:

One of the disadvantage is that a member cannot take upon an issue and pursue it, on his/her own, to its logical conclusion. The whole idea of group-work is that members consult the group as a whole, and especially when new ideas are introduce. One must be prepared to have their ideas examined and scrutinized.

Members of group, as prerequisite, must interact constantly to ensure processes, strategy and objectives are being met. It's necessary to develop interpersonal skills - in order to communicate with fellow members, within and outside the group.

Reaction from members will not be instantaneous, as would if face to face or on the telephone: response might take a few minutes, a hour or days. Members has to come to terms with these new ways of working, and yet be prepared that group work by this medium still require group consensus. One cannot decide to go it alone.

It is incumbent on members to ensure that their system for communication is in working order, and regularly checks' for messages, in order to play their full part.

5.4 IMPLEMENTING GROUP WORK IN YOUR CLASSROOM

We saw in the scene that opens this chapter group work can go wrong if it is not carefully planned well executed monitored throughout and followed up on in some way: We'll now look at practical steps to take to carry out successful group work in your classroom.

1   Working in groups: how to get started:
- Role of the contact person
- Plenary Sessions
- First Activity
- Initial investigation
- Group Mechanics
- Presentations
- Group Discipline
- Summing up

Role of contact person
The role of the contact is not to manage the group but to be the first line link between the lecturers in charge of the module and the members of the group.

The main mechanisms for this will be meetings between the lecturer and the contact person and also e-mail contact.. This meeting will cover general matters and problems .We will deal with any queries from group contacts about individual group problems through the Moodle system.

Plenary sessions
Regular lectures for this module only take place in the first few weeks. These are called plenary sessions and all students are expected to attend. The plenary sessions include the introductory lecture, the guest lectures at the start of the period and the group presentations towards the end. In addition, all students are expected to attend all meetings of their group. Marks will be deducted from individuals who do not support this overall activity.

First activity (group organization)
The immediate tasks for the group are to decide firstly, which of the scenarios to investigate for the major group investigation and for which of the presentation topics to prepare. These two activities should be considered as separate projects and managed accordingly (though the activity carried out may well contribute to both areas). Consequently, members of the group should be allocated roles that enable each project to be brought to a successful conclusion e.g. project managers, meetings secretary, librarian for version control of documents, etc.

The first report should summarize the above decisions, spell out who is allocated to the roles, and also outline a plan of action with deadlines for the initial individual activity. All members of the group should contribute to both projects in a roughly equitable manner.

Initial investigations
There is a wealth of material to cover - more than one individual can assimilate on his/her own. One accepted way of covering a lot of ground is to work together in a team and delegate different areas of study to each individual.

An individual accepts the responsibility to read up that area and then to present the findings in an appropriate summarized form to the rest of the group. In this way a small team can cover a number of major areas, certainly many more than each individual could tackle. It is up to the groups to decide whether to nominate individuals to each of the areas or perhaps allocate two members, so that with six topics, say, each member covers two areas.

In order to produce a group investigation report of adequate depth, aspects of all the major topic areas (and beyond) will need to be addressed. It is suggested that the first bout of activity should be to examine all the relevant areas through background reading and then to come together to see how issues in any area affect the scenario under investigation.

Group Mechanics

Groups should meet at least twice weekly (unless there is good reason not to). The meetings should be minute and minutes of meetings held so far should be appended to the reports.

The essence of successful group work is executing planned activity according to agreed deadlines. This means that a group need agreed procedures, with individuals accepting the discipline of working together in the agreed manner. For example, a timetable needs to beset so that draft submissions are prepared, discussed, modified and agreed well before the final submission deadline. Also it may well be an individual takes on a task that s/he then finds difficult to execute. If this is the case then a mature way of working is to share the problem within the group and then negotiate the tasks around to accommodate for this. Two people working together on a task, where one is acting as a mentor, can often tackle problems before they get out of hand.

The amount of investigatory work required to enable a group to submit reports of quality is substantial though not excessive. On the one hand the exercise demands that work be carried out from week 1 of the semester. This activity is not one to be put off until a week before the final report is due! On the other, you are not expected to become lawyers, having read tomes of material. As a group you must balance the demands of this module with those of others - particularly as it will prove tempting to go chasing areas which may not be strictly relevant. This is good educationally - you learn a lot - but remember the real-life constraints you are working under in attempting to pass the course as a whole. Good luck and Good hunting !

Presentations

The first presentations will given from around week 5 onwards. Once groups have chosen their topic an attempt at a rational timetable will be published.

There are enough topics for groups not to have to choose the same topic. The contact person must submit the proposed topic for his/her group via Moodlel to the lecturer in charge and receive approval back. Groups should submit a back-up topic if their first choice has already been allocated. The allocations will be done on a first-come first-served basis. Although each presentation topic will be unique, groups should explore which other groups are contemplating a topic in the same area to ensure that there is not too much overlap.

The presentation should last about 40 minutes (depending on the size of the group). The presentation activity should not be seen as the sole work of just one or two individuals. All should contribute to gathering the material presented and synthesizing it for the presentation. Individual roles should be clearly indicated in the summary report.

Group Discipline

The initial assumption is that groups will organize themselves so that each member can make a roughly equal contribution to the activity. Part of the ethos of the module is to encourage a professional attitude to both individual and group work. Amongst the lessons from previous yeas is the case where an individual thought that s/he was being held back by the poor quality of the other group members. In the end, having tried to do her/his own thing, the complaint was that there was too much work to produce good reports.

Groups work best where there is a positive atmosphere engendered, where those experiencing problems are supported, and where there is continual consensus agreement. Groups do not work where there is an atmosphere of dictation, recrimination and backbiting. The results of group work are allied to game theory where the sum of the effort is greater than the individual contributions. This is achieved by agreeing to work within the consensus even when, as an individual, you may not like a particular decision. If relationships break down, then this must be brought to the attention of the lecturer in charge, who will attempt to resolve the situation. It is strongly advised that ground rules for group activity are explored early on, and that group members agree to abide by these.

Our personal expectation is that groups will be able to work without these formalities. With 30 groups - 24 had no major problems, 1 group split up, 1 group, consisting mainly of repeat students, disintegrated, and individuals in four other groups did not contribute fully to the activity. If an individual continues not to contribute after sufficient warning, then this should be brought to the attention of the lecturer in charge and also reported in the evaluation section of the final report.

To sum up,

1. allocate roles
2. agree procedures for working together
3. agree timetable for future meetings
4. choose one topic for the group presentation (and a back up topic)
5. choose the scenario to be investigated
6. identify major areas of investigation relevant to scenario
7. create a draft action plan (with milestones) for carrying out the initial investigations
8. carry out initial investigations in range of areas
9. carry on investigating . . .

2. Guidelines for successful group activity

- Working in Groups
- Benefits of group work
- Dangers of group work
- Building an effective team
- Characteristics of effective groups
- Interpersonal Skills
- Group Decision Making
- Having Trouble?
- Assessing group effectiveness

The Importance of Group Work

The ability to work with other people in a team is an especially valuable life skill. There will be many occasions in both professional and social situations when you will be called on to function as a member of a group. Whatever your level of experience to date, it is almost certain that after graduation in your professional life you will frequently be expected to participate as a team member or leader. The team in question may, for example, be a department within an organization or a project group assembled to undertake a particular assignment. Many workplace tasks are simply too large to be accomplished by an individual operating in isolation: others may require a wide variety of different skills and expertise beyond the scope of any one person. For these reasons, group work is extremely commonplace.

These guidelines are designed to support your group work. It contains checklists of ideas on a wide range of issues such as how to build a successful team, how to make group decisions and how to assess group effectiveness. Above all, the manual contains lots of hints on how to improve your own performance as a group member or leader. These will enable you both critically to review any group activities in which you have already taken part and to prepare you for future group work.

To get the most out of this manual you will need to read it actively. This means thinking critically about the ideas presented, relating them to your personal experience and seeking to identify the strengths and weaknesses in your own approach to team work.

WORKING IN GROUPS
✓ What is a group?
A group can be defined as two or more people who have:

- a common task or objective
- an awareness of the group's identity and boundaries
- a level of interdependence
- a minimum set of agreed values and norms which regulate their interaction and conduct.

The benefits of group work

1. Many tasks are simply too big to be undertaken by people working on their own or in isolation. For example, in human geography social-survey work it may not be possible to generate sufficient data without a team of interviewers working together.

2. Group work allows individuals to specialize in the roles and activities for which they are best suited.

3. Some tasks require a mixture of diverse skills which no one individual is likely to possess.

4. Groups can encourage creativity: people can bounce ideas off each other.

5. Groups can provide a forum in which the ideas of individuals can receive a balanced evaluation and review. They provide feedback.

6. Teamwork can give a sense of security. Individuals feel protected when working with other people.

7. Working with others can provide friendship and mutual support.

8. Groups offer a sense of identity and belonging. Being a group member can give confidence and bestow credibility.

9. Belonging to a team can increase motivation and job satisfaction.

10. Most importantly, in the light of the considerations listed above, co-operative working can often produce a better outcome (in terms of quality, speed or efficiency) than can be achieved by individuals working on their own.

The dangers of group work

1. When operating as a member of a team it is possible for individuals to "free-wheel" and to be pulled through by their more enterprising and energetic colleagues.

2. Group decision making can be slow, cumbersome and time-consuming. There may be difficulties in assembling the team members. Groups can become engaged in protracted discussions which slow down the decision process. The more people there are involved, the longer it will take to reach a decision.

3. Group work can be adversely affected by conflicts between the members. Such disputes may be about substantive issues, for example competing goals and strategies, or they may be about personalities and clashes of outlook or temperament.

4. In certain circumstances it may be necessary for the group to have a leader. This can cause problems relating to the selection of the leader(s), their style of operation and their relationships with the other members of the team.

5. Group work requires co-ordination. This kind of management (generally undertaken by the leader) is not necessary when people operate on their own or in isolation.

6. In appraisal terms, group working can make it difficult for mangers to assess separately the performance and effectiveness of each individual team member.

7. Two further problems of groups, discussed below, are "groupthink" and the diffusion of responsibility.

✓ **The Danger of Groupthink**
When groups become very close and loyal, they can become victims of their own cohesion. This can lead to the stifling of debate, the avoidance of critical but sensitive issues and hence the making of bad decisions. The American psychologist Irving Janis coined the term "groupthink" to describe this phenomenon. He defined groupthink as "the psychological drive for consensus at any cost that suppresses dissent and appraisal of alternatives in cohesive decision-making groups". The symptoms are:

- Illusions of the group as infallible, virtuous and superior.
- Stereotyping of opponents as stupid, weak and evil.
- Rationalizing away `uncomfortable' information which challenges the group's beliefs.
- Self-censorship so as not to disturb the consensus.
- Illusion of unanimity (silence equals consent).

✓ **The Danger of Diffusion of Responsibility**
When a person makes a decision in a group situation, the responsibility if it proves mistaken is felt to be shared amongst the group members. For this reason each individual perceives themselves to be less personally responsible for failures or adverse consequences. Group decision-making can sometimes therefore become careless or can result in risks being taken which individual members would not personally accept (this is known as the risky-shift phenomenon).

Building an effective team
If groups are to be effective, it is important that attention is given at the outset to a number of key design considerations which are listed below. In practice, of course, the scope for discretion in some of these areas may on occasion be limited: for example, the group's membership may already be fixed and the resources at its disposal may not be open to negotiation. Nonetheless, in so far as is possible, when preparing the launch of a team the following questions should be addressed.

1. *Goals.* Groups need explicit objectives. What brief should the team be given? Over what timescale is the group expected to operate? By when should its objectives be met?

2. *Authority.* The level of authority and lines of report need to be made clear. What powers does the group command? To whom is it responsible? To whom will it report?

3. *Size and Membership.* Who should participate in the group? What kinds of people and expertise are needed? How big should the team be?

4. *Role Assignment.* Who within the group is to have which responsibilities? How is the issue of leadership to be handled?

5. *Resources.* What kinds of resources will the team need? How are they to be obtained? What is the resource framework (money, time etc.) within which the team will have to operate?

6. *Monitoring and Evaluation.* How is the group to be monitored? At what stage(s), if any, should there be an external progress review? By what means will any changes be introduced? How will the group monitor its own performance? How at the end of the project will the team's effectiveness be assessed?

The characteristics of effective groups ("the ten commandments")

There shall be:

1. A commitment by all the group members to the achievement of the agreed objectives: a sense of common purpose.

2. Realistic resourcing with the goals therefore considered "achievable".

3. The right mix in terms of both skills and personalities.

4. A clear assignment of roles and responsibilities within the group.

5. Full participation: no passengers!

6. An informal but purposeful atmosphere with personal relationships built on trust and mutual regard.

7. Open and frank discussions without personal criticisms or attacks.

8. Consensus as the usual method of decision-making.

9. Leadership based on expertise and knowledge rather than formal status.

10. An awareness among the group members of their own methods and styles, with regular reviews of group procedures and the way business is transacted.

Interpersonal skills

The effectiveness of a group depends in no small measure on the ability of the team to work together. Interpersonal skills are vital. Here are some of the "Dos" and "Dont's":

DO	DON'T
contribute to discussion	be passive, silent and withdrawn
listen attentively	turn off
keep an open mind	be dogmatic
think critically about ideas	be critical of individuals
pull your weight	rely on others to do the work
respect other people's opinions	be dismissive
be constructive	be negative
look people in the eye	avoid eye contact
be co-operative	be selfish
be willing to accept criticism	be hostile to advice
avoid cliques	be divisive
be adaptable	be inflexible
be cheerful and friendly	be cold and miserable
seek the best decision	try to "win" the argument
read body language	ignore physical signs
be courteous and sensitive	be abrasive
be self-confident	apologize for everything
use humour to relieve tension	ridicule other members
smile	scowl

Group decision making

Seven Methods of Decision Making

1. By the leader
2. By a small group of senior team members
3. By the expert on this particular subject
4. By plurality (there is no majority view, so the opinion of the largest minority is accepted).
5. By majority vote
6. By unanimity
7. By consensus.

QUESTION

What are the advantages and disadvantages of each of these seven methods?

✓ **Brainstorming**

This is a technique intended to stimulate creative thinking in advance of taking a final decision. The group encourages members to throw up ideas and bounce them off each other. The emphasis is on speed and producing lots of suggestions quickly (however bizarre!). This rapid flow of ideas may well trigger further radical or innovative proposals. Participants are encouraged to "hitch-hike" by combining new ideas with old ones and by taking further the suggestions of other group members. So as not to stifle imagination and creativity, the evaluation of the suggestions made is undertaken afterwards.

Brainstorming rests on the assumptions (perhaps questionable) that people are most creative when there are no obstacles to the stream of consciousness and that amongst the torrent of ideas there are bound to be some value. It is likely to work best in established groups where the members trust each other and are not shy about letting their imaginations run free!

✓ **Good decision making**

The best group decisions involve:

- *Impartial leadership.* The leader should not state their own view at the outset. There will be a wider debate if other members are encouraged to put forward their ideas first.

- *Critical evaluation.* While avoiding personal frictions, it is important that members should not soft-pedal their disagreements. There is a need for structured controversy.

- *Devil's advocate.* It can be helpful to assign one group member the role of challenging the majority opinion and testing its validity.

- *An avoidance of groupthink.* It is important to minimize the dangers associated with groupthink and the diffusion of responsibility.

Having trouble?

If your team is having difficulty in reaching a decision, try to identify the reasons. It might be:

- A lack of understanding of the item, problem or issue under consideration.
- Insufficient information, data or evidence.
- The decision method being adopted does not fit the circumstances.
- Conflicts of interest or personality within the group.
- The participants are tired, weary or in the wrong frame of mind.

Having identified the impediment, look for the appropriate means of breaking through the impasse. The solution may be as varied as requesting further information or suggesting a break for refreshments!

✓ **Group roles**

Each group must appoint members to appropriate roles for supervising the work e.g. a group contact, negotiator, coordinator, etc., as well as deciding who is going to make any particular contribution. Whilst some members of the group may prefer to put more effort into preparing the presentation, others into researching material and preparing the group reports, it is expected that all should contribute to both activities. Your group supervisor will be available to meet briefly with each group contact at this time.

✓ **Suggested mechanism for sharing knowledge.**

Each of the investigations will need addressing from many different aspects. It is suggested that each member of the group take responsibility for one major area. They should carry out some in-depth reading/study in the area and bring this knowledge back to share with the group. This is an efficient way of covering a wide area of study. The group can then decide the relevance of the material to the investigation in hand. Do not get upset if the group decides your area has little relevance to the particular scenario you have chosen. It does not mean that that area is not important more generally. Using the Moodle group bulletin boards is the recommended way to do this. It is also a way of accruing extra individual marks. (see below under assessment)

✓ **Working together**

One of the main aims of this module is to reinforce an awareness of the need for everybody to behave in a responsible and professional manner. With respect to group work, students will be given several weeks to organize themselves into groups of six (or will then be placed in arbitrary groups). It will be part of the process for individuals within the group to organize themselves so that all can make a positive and integrated contribution to the activity. It is the responsibility of the group to accommodate individuals in the process and it is the responsibility of each individual to make a positive contribution to the team. For example, agreeing a time for the group to meet and being on-time for such meetings; allocation of tasks and completion of tasks allocated by the group to you; agreeing a plan of action with time scales and producing results for the group accordingly.

Each group report must be signed off by all members of the group. Any problems encountered in carrying out the process should be reported through the contact person to your group supervisor.. The final report should contain an evaluation section covering how the process went and what has been learnt from the activity (of working together). Any individual can submit a supplement to the report if a major disagreement occurs, but every effort must have been made to work together. This includes individuals who would regard themselves as being hampered by others. It will not be an advantage for an individual to have gone their own way and produced a brilliant report if s/he has not contributed to the group as a whole.

✓ **Contact person**

Each group needs to allocate one person to be the main contact. The contact person will be allocated (at random) to each group if a named person is not provided with the other group membership details. Groups may re-allocate this responsibility if they need to later in the module, subject to suitable agreement with us. The contact person is expected to communicate regularly with the group supervisor to report on progress and discuss any difficulties encountered.

Assessing group effectiveness
Although the success of a group can be measured against a variety of detailed criteria, in practice there are two main considerations to be taken into account. These are the extent to which the goals were achieved and the success of the team in social terms.

1. *Goal Achievement.* The ease with which this can be measured will depend on the precision with which the goal or goals were stated. Quantitative targets, such as production or profit figures, allow the most straightforward appraisal. But even in these cases some interpretation may be needed of how far the team can be held responsible for any gap between achievement and target. It may be helpful to compare the team's performance with that of other groups doing similar work. Another possible consideration is the time scale and the possible difference between immediate and long-term performance. For example, a group may fail to achieve its target but in so doing may learn lessons which will help it perform much more strongly in the future.

2. *Group Satisfaction.* Individual members may assess the group's performance in terms of friendship, camaraderie and a sense of unity and shared purpose. There is usually, though not inevitably, a strong correlation between group satisfaction and task effectiveness.
Dr. Meredith Belbin (**Cambridge University Press 2003**)

Other types of classroom teaching are rife with challenges. The resources below can help you meet them. Jump down to:

- Large lecture classes
- Improving students' writing skills
- Getting groups to work well

Large lecture classes
"As you enter a classroom ask yourself this question: 'If there were no students in the room, could I do what I am planning to do?' If your answer to the question is yes, don't do it."
(Gen. Ruben Cubero, Dean of The Faculty, United States Air Force Academy).

Large lecture halls impose physical constraints on what you can do effectively. But there are techniques for addressing those challenges:

- Interactive Lecture techniques can be used in any size classroom, as can Just-in-Time Teaching. In many cases, jigsaws and case studies can be adapted for use in large classes, too.

- Innovation in Large Lectures - Teaching for Active Learning

- Beating the Numbers Game: Effective Teaching in Large Classes lists in-class activities, out-of-class group exercises, and other ideas for keeping students engaged in large classes.

Improving students' writing skills
"No matter what the subject, the people who read it, write it, and talk it are the ones who learn it best." **(National Council of Teachers of English, 1997)**

Getting groups to work well

Many students, particularly high-achievers, resist group work. Yet the ability to work well in a group is an essential skill for most college graduates. In addition, students who learn in collaborative settings both learn and retain 1.5 times as much as students who learn individually **(Johnson et al., 1998).**

5.5 SELECTING APPROPRIATE GROUP TECHNIQUES

So far in this chapter as your attention has been focused on group work, differences between **pair work** and **group work** have not been emphasized. There are in fact, some important distinctions. *Pair work* are more appropriate than *group work* for tasks that are:

a) short
b) linguistically simple
c) quite controlled terms of the structure of the task.

Appropriate pair activities (that are not recommended for groups of more than two) include:

- practicing dialogues with a partner
- simple question and answer exercises
- performing certain meaningful substitution "drills"
- quick (one minute or less) brainstorming activities
- checking written work with each other
- preparation for merging with a large group
- any brief activity for which the logistics of assigning groups, moving furniture, and getting students into the groups is too distracting.

Pair work enables you to engage students in interactive (or quasi-interactive communication for a short period of time with a minimum of logistical problems. But don't misunderstand the role of pair work. It is not to be used exclusively for the above types of activity; it is also appropriate for many group work tasks (listed below)

The first step in promoting successful group work then is, to select an appropriate task. In other words choose something that lends itself to the group process, lectures, drills, dictations, certain lists tasks, silent reading and a host of other activities are obviously not suitable for small group work .

1. **Games.-** A game could be any activity that formalizes a technique into units that can be scored in some way. Several of the other group tasks outlined below could thus become "games". Guessing games are common language classroom activities. For example; twenty questions is easily adapted to a small group. One member secretly decides that he or she is some famous person, the rest of the group has to find out, who within twenty yes/no questions, with each member of the group taking turns asking questions. The person who is it rotates around the group and points are scored.

2. **Role play and simulation role play.-** minimally involves **(a)** giving a role to one or more members of a group and **(b)** assigning an objective or purpose that participants must accomplish. For example: In pairs one student A is an

employer, student B is a prospective employee; the objective is for A to interview B. In groups, similar dual roles could be assumed with assignments to others in the group to watch for certain grammatical or discourse elements as the roles are acted out . Or a group role play might involve a discussion of a political issue, with each person assigned to represent a particular political point of view.

Simulations.- usually involve a more complex structure and often larger groups (of 6 to 20) where the entire group is working through an imaginary situation as a social unit, the object of which is to solve some specific problem. A common genre of simulation game specifies that all members of the group are shipwrecked on a "desert island". Each person has been assigned an occupation (doctor, carpenter, garbage, collector, etc) and perhaps some other mitigating characteristics (a physical disability, an ex-convict a prostitute, etc)
Only a specified subset of the group can survive on the remaining food supply, so the group must decide who will live and who will die.

3. **Drama.-** Drama is a more formalized form of role play or simulation, with a pre-planed story line and script. Sometimes small groups may prepare their own short dramatization of some event writing the script and rehearsing the scene as a group. This may be more commonly referred to as a "skit". Longer more involved dramatic performances have been shown to have positive effects on language learning, but they are time consuming and rarely can form part of a typical school curriculum.

4. **Projects.-** For learners of all ages, but perhaps especially for younger learners who can greatly benefit from hands-on approaches to language, certain projects can be rewarding indeed. If you were to adopt an environmental awareness theme in your class. For example: various small groups could each be doing different things. Group A creates an environmental bulletin board for the rest of the school . Group B develops fact sheets; Group C makes a three dimensional display. Group D puts out a newsletter for the rest of the school, Group E, develops a skit, and so on. As learners get absorbed in purposeful projects, both receptive and productive language is used meaningfully.

5. **Interview.-** A popular activity for pair work, but also appropriate for group work, interviews are useful at all levels of proficiency. At the lower levels, interviews can be very structured, both in terms of the information that is sought and the grammatical difficulty and variety. The goal of an interview could at this level be limited to using requesting functions, learning vocabulary for expressing personal data, producing questions, etc. Students might ask each other questions like:

   o What is your name?
   o Where do you live?
   o What country (city) are you from?

And learn to give appropriate responses. At the higher levels, interviews can probe more complex facts, opinions, ideas, and feelings.

6. **Brainstorming.-** brainstorming is a technique whose purpose is to initiate some sort of thinking process. It gets students "creative juices" flowing without necessarily focusing on specific problems or decisions or values. Brainstorming is often put to excellent use in preparing students to read a text , to discuss a complex issue, or to write on a topic. Brainstorming involves students in a rapid fire, free association listing of concepts or ideas or facts or feelings relevant to some topic or context.

7. **Information Gap.-** information gap activities include a tremendous variety of techniques in which the objective is to convey or to request information. The two focal characteristics of information gap techniques are **(a)** their primarily attention to information and not to language forms and **(b)** the necessary of communicative interaction in order to reach the objective. The information that students must seek can range from very simple to complex.

8. **Jigsaw.-** jigsaw techniques are a special form of information gap in which each member of a group is given some specific information and the goal is too pool all information to achieve some objective. Imagine four members of a group each with a (fictitious) application form, and on each form different information provided As students ask each other questions (without showing anyone their own application form), they eventually complete all the information on the form.
One very popular jigsaw technique that can be used in larger groups is known a strip story". The teacher takes a moderately short written narrative of conversation and cuts each sentence of the text into a little strip, shuffles the strips and gives each student a strip. The goal is for students to determine where each of their sentences belongs in the whole context of the story, to stand in their position once it is determined and to read off the reconstructed story, students enjoy this technique and almost always find it challenging.

9. **Problem solving and decision making.-** problem solving group techniques focus on the group's solution of a specified problem. They might or might not involve jigsaw characteristics and the problem itself might be relatively simple (such as giving directions on a map), moderately complex (such as working out an itinerary from train, plane, and bus schedules), or quite complex (such as solving a mystery in a "crime story" or dealing with a political or moral dilemma).
Decision making techniques are simply one kind of problem solving where the ultimate goal is for students to make a decision. Some of the problem solving techniques alluded to above (say, giving directions to someone and solving a mystery don't involve a decision about what to do.

10. **Opinion exchange.-** an opinion is usually a belief or feeling that might not be founded on empirical data or that others could plausibly take issue with.
Opinions are difficult for students to deal with at the beginning levels of proficiency, but by the intermediate level, certain techniques can effectively include the exchange of various opinions.

Many of the above techniques can easily incorporate beliefs and feelings. Sometimes opinions are appropriate, they are not especially when the objective of a task is to deal more with "facts".

This booklet looks at another of the key stages in any systematic approach to course or curriculum development- selecting appropriate teaching/learning methods for achieving your chosen educational objectives and learning outcomes. It begins by re-visiting the model of the systems approach to instruction that was introduced in the first of these booklets and demonstrating the importance of matching teaching/learning methods with both educational objectives and planned outcomes. Next, it reviews the full range of instructional methods that are available to the modern lecturer, showing how they can be divided into three broad categories - mass-instruction methods, student-centred learning methods based on individualised study, and group-learning methods. Each of these three classes is then examined in detail, beginning with a short history of its development and following with a survey of the range of techniques available and an analysis of their educational strengths and weaknesses. The booklet ends by providing some general guidance on the selection of teaching/learning methods.

5.6 PLANNING GROUP WORK

Small group or cooperative group work is an essential element of learning-based instruction. It provides variety and can help motivate students to succeed. Dividing classes into smaller groups that work on the same or different tasks provides several benefits to students. First, they learn the skills of group work by using roles, following rules, keeping records, and focusing on results. Second, students can review what you have just taught, or they can build on prior knowledge by pursuing something new. Third, like learning stations, cooperative groups provide hands-on learning experiences that require practice of essential skills and knowledge. Group work is also more likely to meet individual student needs.

✓ **Purposeful Group Work**

There are a variety of small group learning structures that you can implement to both increase your students' learning and maximize classroom time.

- Have **study groups** review previously taught material to prepare for a test or quiz that you make.

- Allow **drill teams/drill partners** to serve as coaches and trainers to each other to learn new material.

- Create **problem-solving teams** and have them propose, build, and test a solution to a problem by making drawings, models, and prototypes.

- Ask **research teams** to conduct investigations by sharing ideas, information, and responsibilities.

- Organize **expert panels** (groups of students who have become expert in some aspect of a class study or unit) and have them share their knowledge.

- Have **enactment groups** prepare, rehearse, and present a reenactment of a significant literary, historical, or scientific event to the rest of the class or an audience beyond the class.

- Encourage **shop/lab/studio helpers** to serve as work group supervisors in a course for younger students.

- Group **interdisciplinary investigation teams**, sometimes called "area studies" teams, by interest or requisite skills to complete a study of a community resource.

- Form **debate teams** and have them research a controversial issue and marshal arguments for and against a particular position.

- Form **student teams achievement divisions.** Then, present (teach) new information, and have students review (study) in teams. Once students are done studying, give them a test and recognition (certificate) of team performance.

- Form **team/games/tournament structures.** Then, present (teach) new information, and have students review (study) in teams. Once students are done studying, play a game (tournament). Match students by ability and assign them points (for their study team) when they win. Follow this with a recognition (certificate) of team performance.

✓ **Preparing Students for Working in Groups**

Because many students are not used to working in groups, it is important that you teach, model, and assess the skills of teamwork as if they were the content of the class. Focus on social skills: listening, taking turns, encouraging, supporting one another, staying on task, cleaning up the work area, etc. Give teams simpler tasks at first, and then build to more complex assignments.

Pick the right-sized task for your class when designing an activity. The task should be challenging enough to keep students interested, but easy enough for students to achieve success (with effort) in the time allotted. Not every group will finish at the same time, however. Have a classroom poster or handout with a list of ideas for what students who finish early can do. Ideas might include having students write in a journal in response to a writing prompt, helping other team members, etc.

Change the composition of groups frequently so that students of different backgrounds, academic achievement levels, and social skills learn to work together. This mixing and matching will build familiarity, insights, and trust among your students. Use flexible grouping strategies to ensure that students don't always work in the same group. Some flexible grouping strategies include:

- groups that you determine.
- groups that students determine.
- groups that both you and your students determine.
- groups that are determined by chance, such as location, birthday month, etc.
- groups that are formed based on skills and/or interests.

Organizing the work so that each team member contributes to the achievement of the team goals also builds a sense of individual—and group—responsibility. It makes every member of the group an important member.

When projects last over a period of time, it is easy for inexperienced groups to let assignments slide. Therefore, try holding groups accountable for completing specific tasks or project steps during work sessions. Include a very specific assignment or menu of options for teams to work on. Every meeting should result in some kind of a project, whether it is a list to create, a diagram to draw, an outline to display, a form to fill out, etc. This strategy also promotes group responsibility.

While you will be using observations, tests, checklists, and individual assignments to measure each student's achievement, it is important that team members also assess their own work. Two important outcomes of alternative approaches in student assessment are better understanding of self and increased responsibility for one's own learning. You will need to provide opportunities for both individuals and groups to use self-assessment tools, to reflect on progress over time, and to set new goals for performance. Teams need to assess how well they work together and what improvements they might make, and individual members need to assess how their actions contribute to the overall team. Reflection should be seen as part of every activity. **Pearson Education (2007).**

According to **H. Douglas Brown, Master in Tesol (Vermount, U.S.A),** says that once you have selected an appropriate type of activity your planning phase should include the following seven "rules" for implementing a group technique.

1. **Introduce the technique:**
   The introduction may simply be a brief explanation. For example: "Now, in groups of four, you're each going to get different transportation schedules (airport limo, airplane train, and bus) and your job is to figure out, as a group, which combination of transportation services will take the least amount of time". The introduction almost always should include a statement of the ultimate purpose so that students can apply all other direction to that objective.

2. **Justify the use of small groups for the technique:**
   You may not need to do this all the time with all your classes, but if you think your students have any doubts about the significance of the upcoming task, then tell them explicitly why the small group is important for accomplishing the task. Remind them that they will get an opportunity to practice certain language forms or functions, and that if they are reluctant to speak up in front of the whole class, now is their chance to do so in the security of a small group.

3. **Model the technique:**

   In simple techniques especially those that your students have done before, modeling   may not be necessary. But for anew and potentially complex task it never hurts to be too explicit in making sure students know what they are supported to do.

4. **Give explicit detailed instructions:**

   Now that students have seen the purpose of the task and have had a chance to witness how their discussion might proceed give them specific instructions on what they are to do. Include

   - A restatement of the purpose
   - Rules they are to follow (**e.g.** Don't show your schedule to anyone else in your group. Use "if" clauses as in "if I leave at 6:45 A.M. I will arrive at the airport at 7:25.")
   - A time frame (**e.g.** You have 10 minutes to complete the task)
   - Assignment of roles (if any) to students (**e.g.** The airport limo person for each group is the "chair". The airplane person is the timekeeper, etc.)

5. **Divide the class into groups:**

   This element is not as easy as it sounds. In some cases you can simply number off (e.g. 1,2,3,4,….) and specify which area of the room to occupy. But to ensure participation or   control you may want to pre-assign groups in order to account for one or two of the following:

   - Native language (especially in ESL, classes with varied native language backgrounds)
   - Proficiency levels
   - Age or gender differences
   - Culture or sub-cultural group
   - Personality types
   - Cognitive style preferences
   - Cognitive developmental stages (for children)
   - Interests
   - Prior learning experience
   - Target language goals

6. **Check for clarification:**

   Before students start moving into their groups, check to make sure they all understand their assignment. Do not do this by asking "Does everyone understand?". Rather test out certain elements of your lead-in by asking questions like, "Keiko please restate the purpose of this activity".

7. **Set the task in motion:** This part should now be simple matter of saying something like, "Okay, get into your groups and get started right away on your task ". Some facilitation may be necessary to ensure smooth logistics.

✓ **Your Role in Cooperative Learning**

Your role as organizer and facilitator of the groups is very important. Much of what you will need to do is the same as what happens in planning for individual or whole group work. For example, you will need to determine what strategies are the most effective. If you determine that small group work is the best way, then you will need to determine what tasks the groups will need to do. What are the learning objectives? What content, skills, or attitudes should students be able to demonstrate? How much and what kind of practice will students need in order to demonstrate their new skills and knowledge?

Evaluating progress and encouraging self-assessment are very important aspects of your role with small groups. Some of the questions to ask yourself are: What standards must small groups achieve? What criteria will I use to determine that the task has been successfully completed? What rubric or rating scale will let me assess individual or group proficiency in executing the desired skill or demonstrating the required knowledge? As stated in the previous section, you will also need to provide opportunities for both individual and group self-assessments.

A final word on your role as coach. Small group work requires critical and creative thinking skills that many students may not have. You can provide these tools as team advisor or coach, or you can integrate them in a work session warm-up at the beginning of class. Your role during small group work is to serve as monitor, supervisor, and coach. Sometimes you must blow the whistle and redirect the group so that it can complete the assignment. **Pearson Education (2007).**

"Teachers are often tempted to assume that asking a blanket question like this provides an informal assessment of how well students comprehend something. Usually whether students understood or not, a small minority of them will not their heads affirmatively while of rest of the class shows no response. The few nodding heads must not be taken as a measure of comprehension by all. It is better, therefore, never (or rarely) to say such things
as "Does everyone understand? Because it can lead to a false sense of satisfaction on the part of the teacher. **H. Douglas Brown, (2001).**

5.7 MONITORING THE TASK

According to Kathleen Cotton **(Monitoring Student Learning in the Classroom)**
The body of educational research literature which has come to be known as the effective schooling research identifies the practice of monitoring student learning as an essential component of high-quality education. The careful monitoring of student progress is shown in the literature to be one of the major factors differentiating effective schools and teachers from ineffective ones. Indeed, those analyses which have sought to determine the relative effect sizes of different instructional practices have identified monitoring student progress as a strong predictor of student achievement.
What does "monitoring student learning" involve? The American Heritage dictionary defines monitoring as KEEPING WATCH OVER; SUPERVISING and also gives another more specific meaning: TO SCRUTINIZE OR CHECK

systematically with a view to collecting certain specified categories of data. As the term is used in educational settings, monitoring takes in both these meanings and is closely connected with the related functions of record keeping, reporting, and decision making.

For our purposes here we shall define monitoring as ***activities pursued by teachers to keep track of student learning for purposes of making instructional decisions and providing feedback to students on their progress.*** When educators speak of classroom monitoring, they generally refer to the following teacher behaviors:

- Questioning students during classroom discussions to check their understanding of the material being taught

- Circulating around the classroom during seatwork and engaging in one-to-one contacts with students about their work

- Assigning, collecting, and correcting homework; recording completion and grades

- Conducting periodic reviews with students to confirm their grasp of learning material and identify gaps in their knowledge and understanding

- Administering and correcting tests; recording scores

- Reviewing student performance data collected and recorded and using these data to make needed adjustments in instruction

Defined this way, monitoring obviously includes many kinds of activities, but it is important to note that the present analysis does not address issues relating to school wide or district-level monitoring of student learning. It is not concerned, except incidentally, with monitoring students' behavior. And it provides only cursory information on such matters as teacher training in monitoring and assessment practices or the processes teachers follow in putting monitoring information to use.

Instead, the focus here is classroom-level monitoring of student learning progress and what research says about the relationships between such monitoring and the student outcomes of achievement, attitudes and social behavior.

✓ **The research on monitoring student learning**

Several dozen documents were reviewed in preparation for this report. Of these, 23 are studies or reviews which clearly indicate a relationship between one or more forms of monitoring student learning and student outcomes--usually achievement. Fifteen documents are reviews and eight are studies. Five involve elementary students, three involve secondary students, and fifteen are concerned with the entire K-12 range. Fourteen have general achievement as the dependent variable. Language arts is the outcome focus of three documents. Others include: mathematics--3, science--2, social studies--1, and student attitudes--5. Some investigations were concerned with more than one outcome area. Nineteen of the studies concern regular education students of various races, socioeconomic groups, and ability levels.

Of the kinds of monitoring functions investigated, teacher questioning to check student understanding is the focus of three reports. Others include: monitoring seat work 4, assigning/collecting/grading homework--2, conducting periodic reviews in class--2, formative testing--2, and reviewing records--3. Nine of the reports focused on two or more of these functions.

Findings pertaining to each of these kinds of classroom monitoring--and to monitoring in general--are cited in the sections which follow.

✓ **Questioning and other learning probes**

The term "learning probe" refers to a variety of ways that teachers can ask for brief student responses to lesson content so as to determine their understanding of what is being taught. Questions to the class, quizzes, and other means of calling upon students to demonstrate their understanding are methods used by teachers to find out if their instruction is "working" or if it needs to be adjusted in some way.

Does the use of learning probes have a beneficial effect on student achievement? The research indicates that this approach can indeed produce achievement benefits. Particularly effective techniques include:

- Keeping questions at an appropriate level of difficulty; that is, at a level where most students can experience a high degree of success in answering

- Paying close attention to who is answering questions during classroom discussion and calling upon non volunteers

- Asking students to comment or elaborate on one another's answers

- Using information on students levels of understanding to increase the pace of instruction whenever appropriate. (There is a strong positive relationship between content covered and student achievement. Monitoring can alert teachers to situations where they can profitably pick up the instructional pace and thus cover more material.)

✓ **Monitoring seatwork**

Research comparing the behavior of effective teachers (i.e., those whose students achieve highly or higher than would be expected given background variable) with that of less effective teachers has clearly revealed the importance of monitoring the class during seatwork periods. Such monitoring involves teachers moving around the classroom, being aware of how well or poorly students are progressing with their assignments, and working with students one-to-one as needed. The most effective teachers:

- Have systematic procedures for supervising and encouraging students while they work.

- Initiate more interactions with students during seatwork periods, rather than waiting for students to ask for help

- Have more substantive interactions with students during seatwork monitoring, stay task-oriented, and work through problems with students.

- Give extra time and attention to students they believe need extra help

- Stress careful and consistent checking of assignments and require that these be turned in.

✓ Monitoring homework

The assignment of homework, like many educational practices, can be beneficial, neutral, or detrimental depending upon the nature and context of the homework tasks. The use of homework assignments bears a significant and positive relationship to achievement when the homework is carefully monitored, as well as serving the function of increasing students' learning time. Homework confers the most beneficial results when assignments are:

- Closely tied to the subject matter currently being studied in the classroom

- Given frequently as a means of extending student practice time with new material

- Appropriate to the ability and maturity levels of students

- Clearly understood by students and parents

- Monitored by parents; i.e., when parents are aware of what needs to be done and encourage homework completion

- Quickly checked and returned to students

- Graded and commented on

The research also indicates that homework which meets these criteria is positively related to student attitudes. Students may say they don't like homework, but research shows that those who are assigned regular homework have more positive attitudes toward school, toward the particular subject areas in which homework is assigned, and toward homework itself, than students who have little or no homework.

✓ Monitoring as a part of classroom reviews

Research has established a link between integrating monitoring methods into periodic classroom reviews and the later achievement of students involved in the review sessions. Daily, weekly, and monthly reviews can all enhance the learning of new material and, if they incorporate questioning and other learning probes, can call attention to areas where reteaching is needed.

The effectiveness of using review sessions to monitor student learning is clearly revealed in the research on the effects of teacher training: teachers trained in methods for conducting periodic classroom reviews which include the use of learning probes had students whose achievement was higher than it was before the teachers had been trained and higher than the achievement of students of untrained teachers.

✓ Classroom Testing

Those who study assessment and evaluation techniques are quick to point out that the role of standardized testing has received considerably more research attention than have classroom testing and other classroom-level assessment methods. The existing research does indicate, however, that well-designed

classroom testing programs bear a positive relationship to later student achievement. Beneficial effects are noted when tests are:

- Administered regularly and frequently

- An integral part of the instructional approach (i.e., well-aligned with the material being taught)

- Collected, scored, recorded and returned to students promptly so that they can correct errors of understanding before these become ingrained

When attitudes toward testing are studied, students who are tested frequently and given feedback are found to have positive attitudes toward tests. They are generally found to regard tests as facilitating learning and studying, and as providing effective feedback--an outcome which has surprised some researchers, who had anticipated finding more negative student attitudes toward testing.

✓ **Reviewing student performance data**

While it is beyond the scope of this paper to describe the various systems teachers can use for recording and interpreting student performance data, it is worthwhile to note the importance of having and using such a system. Research comparing effective and ineffective teachers cites the existence and use of a systematic procedure for keeping and interpreting data on student performance as a notable difference between these groups.

✓ **Monitoring methods used in combination**

Research findings on the discrete effects of various classroom monitoring methods comprise only part of the story of applying classroom monitoring techniques. Research also indicates that using these methods in combination is superior to using only one or two of them. One researcher identifies five of the six monitoring methods above in his list of effective teaching behaviors. Another cites all of them as important components of a student accountability system. And in the comparative research on effective and ineffective teachers, the effective teachers were found to have implemented all or most of these monitoring functions in their classrooms.

✓ **Common elements across monitoring methods**

Looking at the range of research on monitoring student learning, several attributes of effective monitoring are cited repeatedly across the different investigations:

- *Setting high standards*. When students' work is monitored in relation to high standards, student effort and achievement increase. Researchers caution, however, that standards must not be set so high that students perceive them as unattainable; if they do, effort and achievement decrease. The definition of "high standards" differs across studies, but generally, researchers indicate that students should be able to experience a high degree of success (on assignments, during classroom questioning, etc.) while continually being challenged with new and more complex material.

- *Holding students accountable for their work*. Establishing expectations and guidelines for students' seatwork, homework, and other functions and following through with rewards/sanctions facilitates learning and enhances achievement.

- *Frequency and regularity.* Whether the topic is teacher monitoring of seatwork, administration of tests, checking homework, or conducting reviews, researchers cite frequency and regularity in carrying out monitoring activities as a major reason they are effective.

- *Clarity*. Clarity about expectations, formats, and other aspects of direction-giving bears a positive relationship to the achievement of the students doing the homework, participating in the classroom questioning session, etc.

- *Collecting, scoring, and recording results of class-work, homework, tests, and so on.* These activities are positively related to achievement, because they produce useful information to teachers and students and because they communicate to students that teachers are serious about effort and completion of assignments.

- *Feedback.* Providing feedback to students lets them know how they are doing and helps them to correct errors of understanding and fill in gaps in knowledge. Some researchers focus on the ways in which feedback is provided, pointing out that students who are having learning difficulties require support, encouragement, and attention to their success if the feedback is to foster achievement of learning goals.

✓ **Teachers' skills in monitoring student learning**

Given the strong connection between teachers' monitoring of students' learning progress and those students' academic performance, it would be ideal if teachers received thorough training in monitoring and were highly skilled in classroom monitoring practices. Unfortunately, this is not the case. The research on classroom-level monitoring and assessment reveals that:

- While standardized achievement test results are the main focus of assessment/evaluation efforts, nearly all important decisions about student placement, instructional pacing and so on are made on the basis of teachers' ongoing classroom monitoring.

- Many teachers do not: assign homework frequently or regularly, record completion assignments, monitor seatwork and check on students' progress, or conduct the kind of questioning that helps to monitor learning.

- Teachers do not receive adequate pre-service training in conducting formal or informal assessments.

- Administrative support for and in-service training in the skills associated with assessment and monitoring are extremely inadequate.

- Many teachers are aware that their monitoring skills are inadequate and desire training to expand their capabilities; many others are unaware of the

importance of close monitoring of student progress and of their own need for skill development in this area.

The research on teachers' decision-making processes confirms this lack of monitoring on the part of many teachers. According to this research, a great many teachers are reluctant to make changes in the instructional strategy or pacing of lessons once these are planned, even when instruction and learning are progressing poorly. To a considerable degree, this improves with experience. Experienced teachers are found to vary teaching strategies in response to student performance cues much more than do novices. Still, monitoring/assessment skills remain an area of inadequate preparation for many teachers.

✓ **Effective monitoring practices**
Since there are so many methods of monitoring student learning, descriptions of only a few will be given here. These are offered as examples of approaches used by successful teachers.
Using learning probes is the subject of the following question-and-answer exchange with practitioners Excerpted from "Educational Psychology": **Theory into practice by Robert E. Slavin. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, (1986)**

How do you monitor students' comprehension and work during a lesson? Teachers say they monitor students by:

- Asking them to interpret or summarize material presented to them in the lesson

- Thinking about the questions that students are asking and noting what parts of the lesson don't seem to be understood

- Asking questions from various levels of Bloom's taxonomy of learning objectives

- Asking students to act things out or draw them.

- Walking around the class and checking worksheets, calling attention to errors and noting good work being done.

- Having students do quick problems on individual chalkboards

- Encouraging children to listen to each other by summarizing comments of others and calling on children who don't seem to be listening

. . Seat work (and homework) assignments provide needed practice and application opportunities. Ideally, such assignments will be varied and interesting enough to motivate student engagement, new or challenging enough to constitute meaningful learning experiences rather than pointless busywork, and yet easy enough to allow success with reasonable effort.

. . . Student success rates, and the effectiveness of seat work assignments generally, are enhanced when teachers explain the work and go over practice examples with the students before releasing them to work independently.

Furthermore, once the students are released to work independently, the work goes more smoothly if the teacher (or an aide) circulate to monitor progress and provide help when needed. If the work has been well chosen and well explained, most of these "Helping" interactions will be brief, and at any given time, most students will be progressing smoothly through the assignment rather than waiting for help.

Students should know what work they are accountable for, how to get help when they need it, and what to do when they finish. Performance should be monitored for completion and accuracy, and students should receive timely and specific feedback. When the whole class or group has the same assignment, review of the assignment can be part of the next day's lesson. Other assignments will require more individualized feedback. Where performance is poor, teachers should provide not only feedback but reteaching and follow-up assignments designed to insure that the material is mastered.

Teacher competence in assessing students' skill levels and monitoring their learning progress is essential for effective instruction to take place. "Imagine," writes researcher **Robert Slavin,** an archer who shoots an arrow at a target but never finds out how close to the bull's-eye the arrows fall. The archer wouldn't be very accurate to begin with, and would certainly never improve in accuracy. Similarly, effective teaching requires that teachers be constantly aware of the effects of their instruction."

Improvements in pre-service and in-service training in assessment and monitoring skills can both increase teachers' awareness of these effects and help them to make instructional changes as called for by the information they collect. This is vital for, as noted by writers **Howell** and **McCollum-Gahley**, "the most important part of continuous monitoring is not taking data, but making decisions."

5.8 DEBRIEFING

Almost all group work can be brought to a beneficial close by some sort of whole -class   debriefing, once the group task is completed. This debriefing or "processing", as some   would refer to it, has two layers:

1. **Reporting on task objectives.**
   If groups were assigned a reporter to present something to the class, or if the task implicitly lends itself to some discussion of the "findings" of the groups, then make sure that you leave enough time for this to take place. As reporters or representatives of each group bring their findings, you may entertain some brief discussion, but be sure not to let that discussion steal time from other groups. This whole- class process gives each group a chance to perceive differences and similarities in their work. Some work group involves different assignments to different groups, an in these cases the reporting phase is interesting to all and provides motivation for further group work.

2. Establishing affective support

A debriefing phase also serves the purpose of exploring the group process itself and of bringing the class back together as a whole community of learners. If you or some students have questions about how smoothly the task proceeded how comfortable people were with a topic or task, or problems they encountered in reaching their objective, now is an excellent time to encourage some whole - class feedback . This gives you feedback for your next group assignment. Ultimately, even a very short period of whole class discussion reminds students that everyone in the room is a member of a team of learners and that the groups, especially if any inter-group competition arose, are but temporary artefacts of classroom learning.

Follow an article taken from **Instructional Resources Center** http://www.irc.uci.edu after a monitoring the task , a debriefing can be conduced some steps.

❖ **The Interactive Classroom**

    o **The Role of Debriefing in the Interactive Classroom**

        ✓ Debriefing: Definition and Benefits
        ✓ Guidelines for Successful Debriefing
        ✓ Guidelines for Student Participation

✓ **Debriefing: Definition and Benefits**

- Debriefing after an activity allows students to express their thoughts and feelings, cementing what they have learned.

- The instructor can assess how successful students have been at integrating and assimilating new knowledge.

- The instructor also gets insight into how to improve the activity the next time.

- Effective debriefing fosters a positive classroom environment and communicates to students that their participation is vital to the course's success.

✓ **Guidelines for Successful Debriefing**

- **Make objectives clear.** Too little or too much unfocused feedback during the debriefing process can create confusion and misunderstandings. Make sure learning objectives are clearly linked to the activity, so that the exercise is not perceived by the students as a waste of time. Providing students with guidelines will help set the standard for how feedback is to be given.

- **Schedule time for feedback.** Whenever you incorporate interactive activities into your course design, be sure to include time to debrief.

- **Be specific.** Request feedback from the students, ask for comments and reactions, and have an outline of points for discussion to keep the class focused. This will benefit both you and your students, and allow you to fully recognize both the advantages and limitations of the exercise.

✓ **Guidelines for Student Participation**

In order to facilitate effective and appropriate feedback during a de-briefing session, the instructor must first give students some guidelines. Be aware that these are not hard and fast rules, but merely guidelines. Diane Pollard of the University of British Columbia suggests the following:

- **Listen and be listened to.** Make sure the other person is ready to listen, otherwise the feedback will be ignored or misinterpreted.

- **Be objective.** Feedback should be a clear report of the facts based on observation. Make sure it is descriptive and not interpretative. Start with, "I noticed..."; "I saw..."; "I observed..."; "I wonder..."

- **Be specific.** Use quotes and give examples of what you are referring to. For example: "Sam, you and I have set up appointments on two separate occasions, and you have failed to appear. Now you are requesting that we meet again. We seem to have a problem; perhaps you can help me make sense of what's going on here."

- **Feedback should be prompt.** There is less chance of confusion and misunderstanding when feedback is given immediately after an activity. If this is not convenient, set up an appointment to meet as soon as possible.

- **Focus on what's important.** The focus should be on behaviors that can be changed and not on personality issues. For example: being punctual, turning in assignments on time, and increased participation in class.

- **Take it easy.** Do not overload the other person with too much information. Keep it simple and to the point. Ask the other person to paraphrase what s/he heard. Too much information can be confusing and leave the other person wondering where to start. Also be cognizant of the other person's self esteem.

- **Be constructive.** The goal of feedback should be to offer helpful input. Consider your reasons for giving your comments and ask yourself, "Am I being helpful?"

- **Get feedback on your feedback.** Have the other person share reactions to the feedback. Find out what is helpful and what part is not helpful.

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