

1. Introduction

The journey down the Road to Excellence continues...

In this manual you shall learn numerous ways to connect with your students, increase your knowledge of various teaching skills, and motivate student learning.

Page after page, you will discover various methods (ways) and techniques (styles) that will enable you to make learning productive in enjoyable ways, which will in turn lead to improving the atmosphere in your classroom.

You will learn how to identify and solve classroom and student problems and how to take a closer look at yourself so you may identify your strengths and improve your weaknesses.

Each page has been designed to bring a greater awareness to the field of teaching; offering information that includes creative activities, tips on organizing your classroom in the most efficient manner and how to bring out the best in your students and in yourself.

This is a manual that will help you and guide you throughout the year as you continue to walk On the Road to Excellence.

Sincerely,
Elsa Patricia Jiménez Flores

2. APPROACHES, METHODS & TECHNIQUES

A Definition

People have approached language learning in many ways over the years. As a language teacher you may well ask, “What approach should I use? What method should I use? What’s the difference between an approach, a method and a technique?”

There is often confusion among the terms “approach”, “method”, and “technique”.

These three terms may be viewed as points along a continuum:

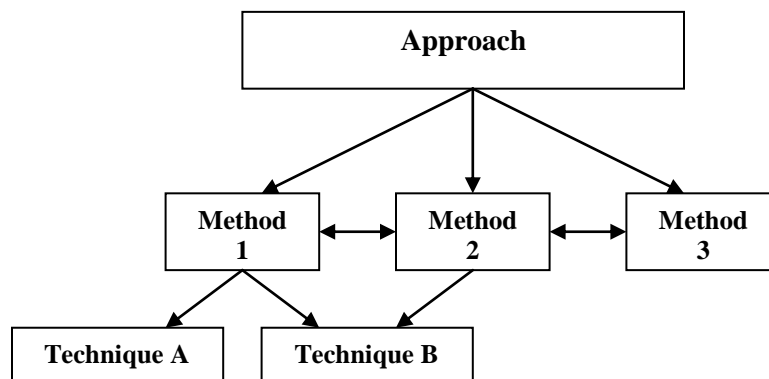
Theory	Detail	Design
(approach) in which basic beliefs about language and language learning are considered.	(technique) where the actual teaching activity takes place.	(method) in which practical plans for teaching a language are considered.

In 1963 the American applied linguist, Edward Anthony defined the three terms Approach, Method and Technique of Language Teaching and Learning. These definitions may help you decide how you want to approach language teaching.

Approach: An approach refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching.

Method: A method is an overall practical plan for presenting language material, based on the selected approach.

Technique: A technique is a particular strategy or procedure employed by the teacher to accomplish a particular objective.



Language Teaching Structure of Approach, Method & Technique

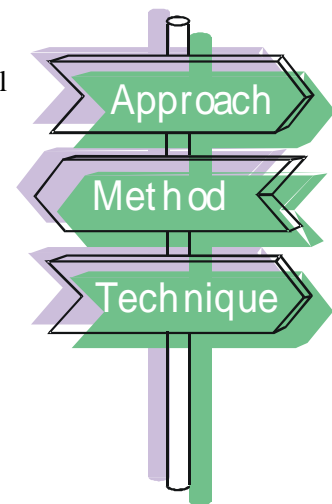
Some language teaching courses use basically only one technique. These courses could be said to be based on methods such as the Audio-Lingual Method, Total Physical Response, or Suggestopedia. More commonly these days a variety of elements, drawn from various methods, are combined to create a teaching technique that meets the students' needs. Consequently the term "method" is not used in the same sense.

What is an Approach?

In language instruction terminology, an **approach** is the most general category. It is based upon academic research or a theory (Behavioristic, Cognitive, etc.) and describes a general attitude towards teaching and learning a language. In selecting an approach, you may consider using different methods and techniques, whatever you deem appropriate to fulfill the philosophy of the approach.

The chosen approach should include the following essential conditions for second or foreign language acquisition:

- Ó Lots of exposure to parts of the language the students understand.
- Ó A chance to negotiate meaning with native speakers of the language.
- Ó A chance to participate in a variety of real communication situations.
- Ó A chance to learn what native speakers of the language think and believe.



Here are four approaches to language learning:

- Structured** - prioritizes grammar and language structure
- Analytical** - prioritizes definition of meaning
- Relational** - prioritizes use of language in specific genres
- Energetic** - prioritizes communication with native speakers

Use of only one of the four particular approaches above may serve as an excuse to leave out activities that could greatly enhance learning. You may want to use parts of two or more approaches for an **Eclectic Approach**.

For instance, the Structured Approach may only become effective in combination with the Energetic Approach by encouraging the student to use the acquired language structure and grammar in real life situations of listening to native speakers and talking with them to gain real communicative competence in the second language. Drawing on elements of different approaches would thus be considered the **Eclectic Approach**.

What is a Method?

A **method** is a set of procedures or a system that spells out how to teach a language, i.e. it is an overall plan for teaching a second language. It is based on the theoretical approach selected. But it has been proven that one single method cannot be applied for every conceivable aspect of teaching a target language successfully. Rather, you must be aware of the different methods and select and switch to a different method, even in the middle of a lesson, in order to achieve the stated objective of the lesson, the module, the segment, and the language course.

Here are the three groups
of language teaching methods:

- **Traditional Methods**
- **Humanistic Methods**
- **Communicative Methods**

Several methods, in particular traditional methods such as the Grammar/Translation Method, are considered obsolete. But you have to take elements of these methods into account for inclusion in your technique, if you want to achieve the lesson objectives. Every method contains elements of teaching, i.e. conveying knowledge of a foreign language that will help students to learn, acquire and retain knowledge. In recognition of the usefulness of elements of all types of methods to achieve lesson and course objectives and meet the needs of your students' individual objectives, the applied linguist Harvey has stated that traditional methods are not necessarily unworkable alongside humanistic and communicative EFL teaching methods. The idea of these methods being mutually exclusive is absurd.

What is a Technique?

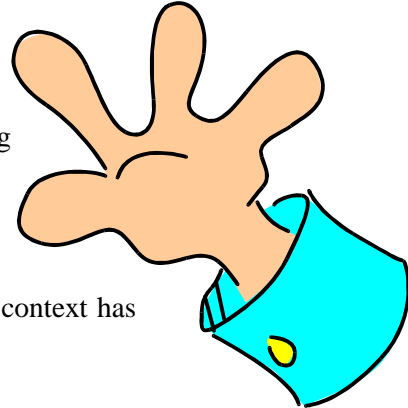
A **technique** is a way of applying learning activities based on the selection of a method or method elements. It is an explicit procedure or strategy that you use to accomplish a particular learning objective or set of objectives. You may possibly want to apply only one technique as suggested within a particular method. But in view of the need of a range of activities for a given lesson, you will very likely have to develop your own technique and draw on elements of various methods – as you see fit to apply in a lesson to achieve the objective you have defined.

2.1 The Whole Language View

The Academic Concept of Language Learning

Historically foreign language learning has been based on the Structured Approach. It was taught from the “bottom up”. Students first learn the grammar rules, then they practice the grammar rules in sentence structures. Drills and exercises focus on correct form without requiring the students to attend to the message, i.e. they don’t talk the language - they talk about the language.

By contrast, the Humanistic as well as the Communicative Approach suggests teaching language from the “top down”, which is representative of the whole language view. Its basic principles are that negotiation of meaning is the goal, problem solving is a key component and context has the highest priority.







The criterion for judging an approach that supposedly is representative of the whole language view is that language learning should include **natural language**, it should include **whole language**, not language fragments, it should be **functional**, and it should be learned in a **meaningful context**.

Language teaching applied on this basis focuses on the individual students and their learning preferences that motivate them. This allows elements of methods to be included in the language teaching process that pertain to the Structured Approach.

The whole language view takes into consideration that student attitudes affect motivation and motivation affects the time spent learning a language.

Student attitude in turn depends on learning in a preferred learning style, which caters to different types of students.

The four main styles are:

<u>ANALYTICAL</u>	<u>GLOBAL</u>	<u>SENSORY</u>	<u>VISUAL</u>
			
Detail oriented, focused on form	Socially interactive, focused on meaning	Focused on visual, auditory and hands on tasks	Visual stimulation through reading

The Nature of Language

There are many theories about the nature of language. Here are three different views, which explicitly or implicitly are reflected, in current approaches to language learning.

The structural view of language is that language is a system of structurally related elements for the transmission of meaning. These elements are usually described as

PHONOLOGICAL UNITS	-----	(phonemes)
GRAMMATICAL UNITS	-----	(phrases, clauses, sentences)
GRAMMATICAL OPERATIONS	-----	(adding, shifting, joining or transforming elements)
LEXICAL ITEMS	-----	(function words and structure words)

Areas of research of this view of language include linguistic analysis and textual discourse analysis. The target is the mastery of elements of the language.

The interactional or humanistic view of language sees language primarily as the means for establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships and for performing social transactions between individuals.

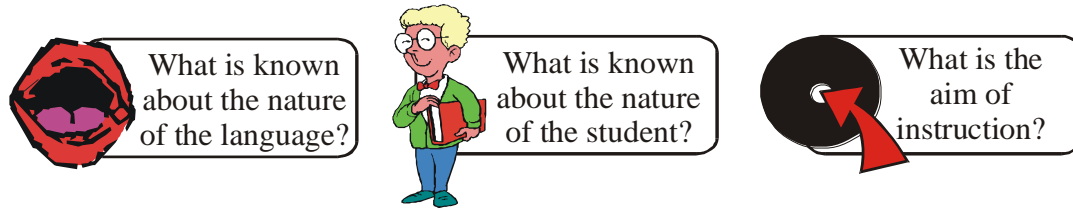


Areas of research in this view of language include interactional analysis, conversational analysis, and ethnomethodology. The target is the ability to initiate and maintain conversations with other people.

The communicative view of language is that language is a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning. The semantic and communicative dimensions of language are more emphasized than the grammatical characteristics. Areas of research in this view of language include social linguistics, pragmatics and semantics. The target is learning to express communication functions and categories of meaning.

A View of Teaching and Learning

Language teaching should be based on at least three principles:



The aims of language teaching and therefore the methods and materials must vary. There is no one single method that is immutable, universal, and eternal. All methods utilize differently the patterns of communication or classroom interaction.

For example, the traditional pattern is:

TEACHER → STUDENT → TEACHER

while modern methodology seeks to give control of the language over to students, thus creating:

STUDENT ↔ STUDENT INTERACTION

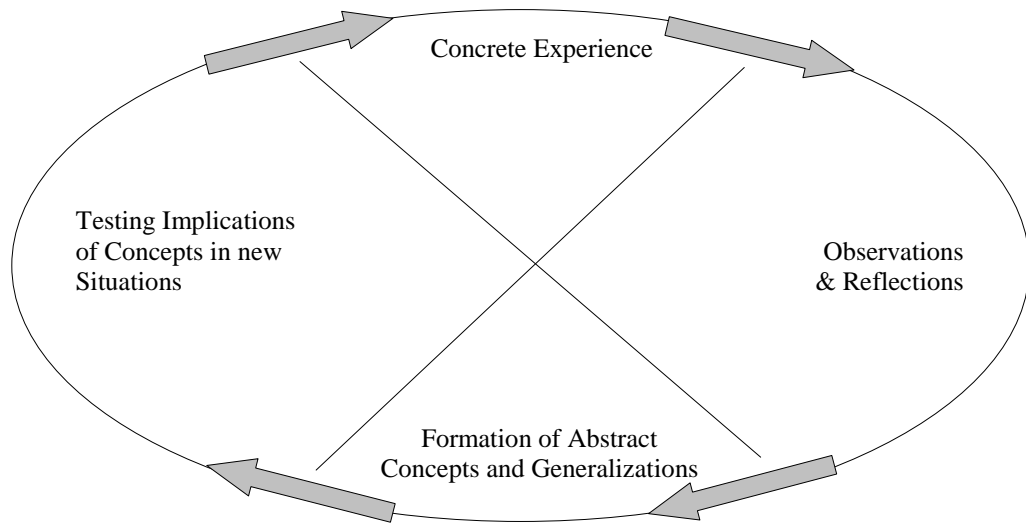
Student ↔ Student interaction supports the notion that the knowledge needed to complete an assignment or project gives students a fuller context in which to make sense of acquired knowledge. When a need has been recognized and internalized by the students, they will ultimately respond to the need. The Experiential Learning Cycle illustrates this process.

Experiential Learning Cycle

Lewin borrowed the concept of learning cycle feedback from electrical engineering to describe a social learning and problem solving process that generates valid information to assess deviations from desired goals.

This feedback provides the basis for a continuous process of goal-directed action and evaluation of the consequences of that action. He describes the education issue in terms of curriculum authenticity. “The validity of human endeavor as the basis of knowledge in its own right has, to a large extent, to do with the authenticity of the curriculum.”

“How authentic is the curriculum if it denies everyday existence, if it relegates human practices supportive of life to an inferior plane?” This curriculum authenticity notion aligns well with the need for contextualized learning.



The Lewinian Experiential Learning Cycle

It should be noted that the Experiential Learning Cycle is of equal applicability to students and teachers alike. While it is of interest to students for the experimental application of acquired language, it is of particular interest to and applicable for you as teacher in the quest for improving your teaching skills (see 6.Classroom Management).

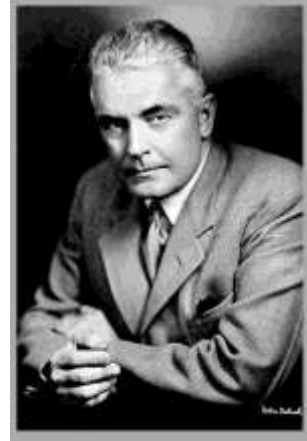
2.2 Theories of Language Learning Behaviorism

Based on information from: Universität Giessen, Germany

“Behaviorism” is a highly influential academic school of psychology that dominated psychological theory for the period 1912 - 1930. Classical behaviorism concerned itself exclusively with measurable and observable data and excluded ideas, emotions and the consideration of inner mental experience and activity in general. The organism is seen as “responding” to conditions (stimuli) set by the external environment and inner biological processes.

Important persons involved with behaviorism were the U.S. psychologists John B. Watson and B.F. Skinner. Watson is the dominant figure for the period 1912-30, which can be called “classical behaviorism”. Skinner, in contrast to this, dominated the era from 1930 through the late 40s and thus was the creator of the derivative form known as

“neo-behaviorism”.



John Broadus Watson



B. F. Skinner

For most of the first half of this century, behavioral laws provided the most prominent concepts of language learning. Learning behaviors, according to behaviorists, can be shaped by selective reinforcement. Since learning is equated with behavioral outcomes, behavioral laws exclude the role of mental operations. Skinner was unwilling to acknowledge the existence of “mind” or the act of knowing, because these are not observable. In conclusion, behaviorists believe that the construct of mind does more harm than good and that it makes no sense to talk about ideas and concepts, but rather about neurological structures.

Cognitivism

Based on information from: Universität Giessen, Germany

Noam Chomsky, the famous linguist, and others reacted against Behaviorism. Their argument can best be elucidated by asking, how is it that young children can say things that they have never heard before? In fact, how can we continue to say things we have never heard before if language is a form of conditioning?

Chomsky coined the term cognitivism, which refers to a group of psychological theories that look at language as an intricate rule-based system, which must be learned. The belief is that there are a finite number of grammatical rules and based on these, an infinite number of sentences can be created. This theory goes a little further in explaining how children, and adults for that matter, can continue to create new or original sentences.

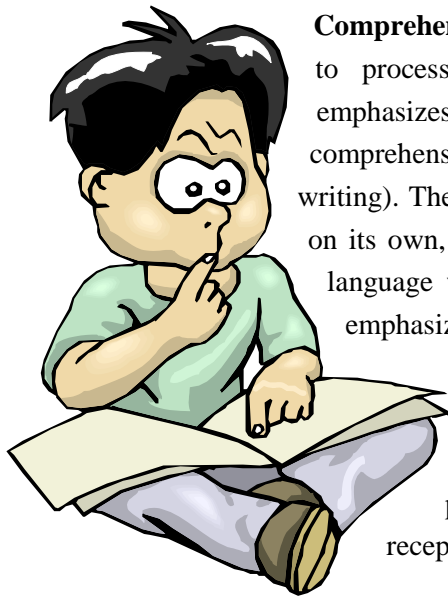
Although there are no methodologies that limit themselves to cognitivist theories, many language teaching techniques and methodologies were developed around the idea that we must first teach a rule and can then expect students to utilize it for creative output. The next step in the progress of language teaching was to make a distinction between acquisition and learning. Basically, there were theorists who believed that we should learn a second language like we learn our first language.



Noam Chomsky

When we are children we hear and experience a great deal of language in situations where we are involved in communicating with adults, usually our parents. The theory suggests that the ability to use our native language strengthens, as a result of many subconscious processes, and the same should hold true for other languages as well.

Lately, there has been some consensus on the point that language is more effectively acquired as a result of communicative experience than by rote memorization. In other words, language learning will take care of itself if the students are actively involved in solving communicative problems in the target language. What we are concerned with here is called **Task Based Learning** (see below, section 3.)



Comprehension-driven language learning focuses on learning to process messages in the target language. It initially emphasizes the receptive skills (listening and reading comprehension) rather than the productive skills (speaking and writing). The assumption is that speaking will eventually emerge on its own, and that pronunciation and real creative use of the language will be better if comprehension comes first and is emphasized more. Meaning is much more in focus than linguistic form.

In the view of comprehension-driven language learning, language acquisition is a developmental process, and productive skills are harder than receptive skills.

The more meaningful the exposure, the more the students learn. They need lots of comprehensible input, because predictable scripts aid comprehension. Students can't rely on memorization - memorized material can give a false impression of proficiency.

Production-driven language learning focuses on learning things to say in the target language. It involves memorizing expressions students want to be able to use in their new language and to communicate with other people. The emphasis is on language as a social activity and a means of communication. It is important to understand what is said, but the intent is learning to express everything needed to communicate.



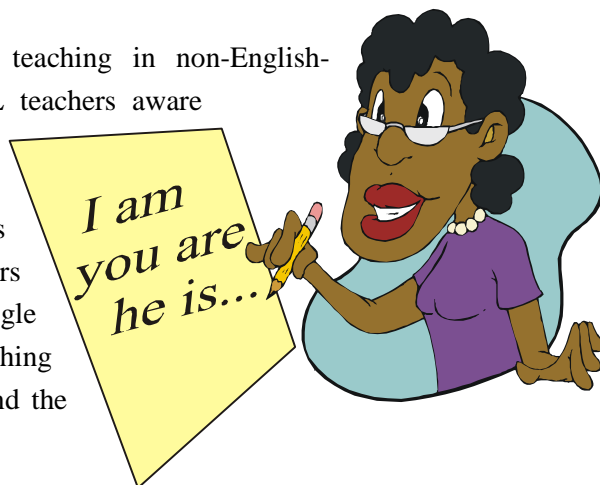
In other words, the students need chances to negotiate meaning in a variety of social settings with native speakers who highly value good pronunciation. If they are given the opportunity to communicate with native speakers of a language, they will be more motivated to learn it.

2.3 A Brief Survey of Language Learning Methods

English teaching should be communicatively oriented, so students can learn appropriate language usage. Teaching grammar is important to learn using language situations and language material in the correct form. But supplying students with adequate explanations of grammar functions has to be related to communicative language use that encourages the students to ultimately use the language in real-life communication.

2.3.1 Traditional Methods

The rapid development of EFL teaching in non-English-speaking countries has made EFL teachers aware that the exclusive use of either the communicative approach or grammar-translation method does not suit English teaching. Teachers have also discovered that no single teaching method deals with everything that concerns the form, the use, and the content of the target language.



Appropriate grammar analysis and vocabulary work and pattern drills are ways of familiarizing students with sentence structures. But you need to relate teaching grammar and pattern drills to meaning and use.

In other words, language structure practice should be used in contexts that involve the basic principles of appropriateness. This is the exact area that the traditional EFL teaching has overlooked - teaching English for a communicative purpose.

The following are examples of **Traditional Methods**:

Grammar, Translation & Mental Discipline

It applies the method used to teach classical languages to teaching modern languages. L1 of the student is used for teaching with little or no use of the L2. The teacher does not have to speak the L2. A typical exercise is translating sentences from the L2 into the L1. Main focus is on grammatical parsing, with attention to form and inflection. RESULT: student is unable to use the L2 for communication.



The Direct Method

This method was a reaction to the G/T method and its failure to produce students who can use the L2 they have studied. No use of the L1 is permitted; and the teacher does not need to know the students' L1. The teacher must be a native speaker of the L2 (or have native like proficiency). Lessons begin with dialogues in modern conversational style. Actions and

pictures are used to convey meaning. Grammar and target culture is taught inductively not deductively. The Direct Method results in glib but inaccurate fluency (fluidity) but is still advocated by educators such as Berlitz.

The Reading Method

This method was a reaction to the Direct Method because few teachers could use a foreign language well enough to use this method in class. Reading is viewed as the most usable skill, as not many people traveled abroad at the time this method was popular (1930s). The teacher does not need to have oral proficiency in the L2. Translation again is used as a 'respectable' classroom procedure. The only grammar taught is that useful for reading comprehension.



The vocabulary is first controlled and then expanded (based on frequency and usefulness). Reading comprehension is the only language skill emphasized.

Situational Language Learning

This method was a reaction to the reading method and its lack of emphasis on spoken language skills. It was the dominant approach in Great Britain in the 1940s to the 1960s. Only the L2 is used in the classroom. Spoken language is primary. All language materials are practiced orally before being presented in written form. Reading and writing are taught only after an oral base in lexical and grammatical forms is established.



The grammatical structures are graded from simple to complex. The most general and useful lexical items are presented. New grammatical and lexical items are introduced and practiced situationally, as 'at the post office', 'at the bank', 'at the dinner table'.

Audio-Lingual Method (ALM)

This method was yet another reaction to the reading approach and its lack of emphasis on spoken language skills. It was the dominant approach in the United States from the 1940s to the 1960s.

The framework is based on behavioral psychology and structural linguistics, and it has many similarities to the Direct Method. The teacher needs to be proficient only with the structures and vocabulary in a given lesson, as the activities and materials are carefully controlled. Dialogue mimicry and memorization are used (based on the assumption that language is habit formation). The language is often manipulated without regard to meaning or context. A great effort is made to prevent student errors. Grammatical structures are sequenced and rules are taught inductively.



AUDIO LINGUAL METHOD

Pronunciation is stressed from the very beginning. The vocabulary is severely limited in the initial stages. Skills are taught in sequence of: listening and speaking, and then reading and writing.

RESULT: the ALM method forces students to remain at the novice level because they are never asked to say anything that they haven't already committed to memory. ALM promises bilingual speakers - it does not deliver.

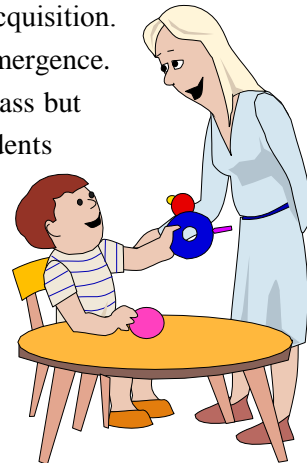
2.3.2 Humanistic Methods

A teaching methodology that has gained some interest concerns the humanistic methods, which stress the importance of focusing on the student's growth as a person as being integral to language development. These methods focus on the teacher → student relationship as primary to language acquisition and the data input as secondary. Teachers develop lesson plans that make students feel good about themselves while learning the target language.

The following are examples of **Humanistic Methods**

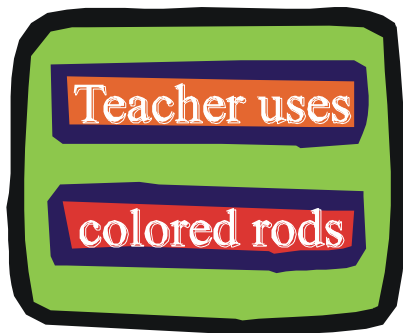
Natural Method

This method follows children's natural order of language acquisition. There is a silent period, early production and then a speech emergence. Students are allowed to use first or second language in the class but the teacher always talks in the second language giving students large amounts of input. This method seeks to make the student feel comfortable so that learning is enhanced. The method was developed in the United States in the 1970s. It came to have a wide influence in language teaching around the world. The Natural Method adopts techniques and activities from different sources but uses them to provide comprehensible input.



Silent Way

This method has no formal syllabus, but the students decide what they want to learn. The teacher begins by placing colored rods on the table that represent different grammatical parts of a sentence. The teacher prompts the students to say the sentence according to the placement of the rods. By using a number of small, colored rods, the teacher creates simple linguistic situations, which are totally under her control.



The situations can be very simple. They can become gradually more complex as progress is made. The rods are used to provide the support of perception and action to the intellectual guess of what the noises mean, thus bringing in the arsenal of criteria already developed and automatic in one's use of one's native tongue.

Communicative Language Learning (CLL)

Communicative Language Learning began in Britain in the 1960s as a replacement to the earlier structural method, the Situational Language Learning (see above). This was partly in response to Chomsky's criticisms of structural theories of language and partly based on the theories of British functional linguists. With this method it is assumed that the goal of language teaching is the student's ability to communicate in the L2. It is assumed that the content of a language course will include semantic notions and social functions, not just linguistic structures. The teacher should be able to use the L2 fluently and appropriately. The teacher's role is primarily to facilitate communication and only secondarily to correct errors. Skills are integrated from the beginning; a given activity might involve reading, speaking, listening, and perhaps also writing (this assumes the students are educated and literate). The students regularly work in groups or pairs to transfer (and, if necessary, negotiate) meaning in situations where one person has information that the other(s) lack(s).

Students often engage in role-play or dramatization to adjust their use of the L2 to different social contexts. Classroom materials and activities are often authentic to reflect real-life situations and demands.



Suggestopedia

This method is a pedagogic form invented by the Bulgarian Georgi Lozanov in 1965. It requires the student to receive large amounts of input in a short period of time. Although the students may not understand everything they say, the teacher directs the students by demonstration. Lozanov recommends the use of music in class that stimulates the students to be active. But any music that may cause a hypnotic state due to monotonous rhythms must be avoided. The music used should be mostly classical music. The whole "learning with music" idea is not new at all.

Renaissance scientists saw connections between music, architecture, physics and much more. The German astronomer Johannes Kepler (1571-1630) thought of the motions of planets in musical terms. Of all the types of intelligence we are exploring, the musical intelligence is the most ignored and yet the most universal. Effective learning is suggestive in nature, not direct.

In other words, learning takes place through a combination of different types of right and left brain functions. Long-term memory is sub-conscious and the language learner must be side-tracked with other things in order to allow receiving information through peripheral perception, i.e. the four other senses of vision, touch, smell and taste (whenever possible). In order to understand this concept, imagine hearing for the first time a story about making bread. You will concentrate on understanding the story and not on “learning” new vocabulary, grammar etc. The key elements of the story will be sub-consciously anchored in your memory when you can feel, smell and taste fresh bread at the same time. And music played in the background is a means of stimulating right brain participation.

2.3.3 Communicative Methods

This teaching methodology is based on the theories about the nature of language and how languages are learned. They are applied to foreign and second language teaching with the idea that the central aim of language learning is to acquire communicative competence. It means that students become aware of the use of words and sentences and not so much that they follow grammatical rules properly. Therefore, teaching focuses on the students’ needs to make themselves understood in real social interaction with other people. Students should be able to request, explain, express likes and dislikes, etc. They should also be able to interpret speech events, to address people appropriately, to consider social settings and to assess the roles of the communication partners. It emphasizes the need for authenticity in language learning.



The following are examples of Communicative Methods:

Situational Syllabus Method

This method was designed by sociolinguists who recognized the use of language as dependent on cultural and situational context. The focus is on acquiring language that is appropriate for different real life situations. It emphasizes different purposes for communication. Although the sequence is not necessarily linear, the lessons follow a story line.

The language used is authentic, providing models of formal and colloquial usage as well as a broad array of idioms. The dialogues sound like real dialogues, with idioms, false starts, and other indications of authenticity. The socio-cultural representation is appropriate, with culture hints and notes provided. Issues such as the importance of punctuality, the contributions of women in business, and sarcasm are dealt with explicitly in a real context.

Grammar is not emphasized explicitly. There are many opportunities for developing listening, speaking, and reading skills, and writing is addressed through dictation exercises and models of correspondence. This equips students to communicate effectively in real life and can be used in independent study or in language classes.



Functional/Notional Syllabus Method

This method focuses on conceptual meaning and communicative purpose. It sets realistic learning tasks, provides real-world language in the classroom and learning is facilitated by having a real purpose for using the language. The method focuses on the functions of the language, i.e. what is the appropriate form of the language to use with different people depending on the formality of the circumstances (what do you say to someone whose mother just died, how do you greet the president of a company, etc.).

This method is very similar to the situational syllabus method, but with a slightly different focus.

Cognitive-Code Method (CCM)

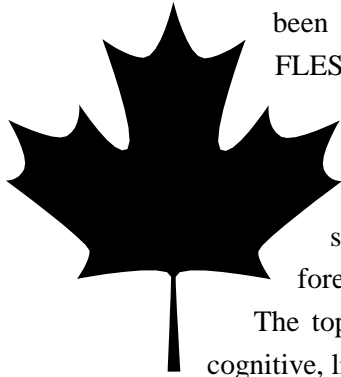
In the 60s Chomsky proposed that people's brains were language acquisition devices that acquired language, a theory called the Cognitive Code. If rules were explained either in L1 or L2 then the student could acquire the language through cognitive understanding. It is based on the premise that meaningful learning is essential to second language acquisition. Its goal is to develop in your students the same abilities as native speakers have.



The instructor must move from the known to the unknown, as competence must come before performance. Text, materials and the teacher must introduce students to the creative use of L2. Students are speaking for much of the class, so there is concern for the development of accuracy. Students are encouraged to express meaning without excessive support from text materials.

Content-Based Instruction (CBI)

This method became the foundation for Immersion Programs in the early 1960s. It has been extremely successful in Canada where it is widely used in FLES and ESL programs. Language proficiency is achieved by shifting the focus of the course from language learning *per se* to the learning of subject matter. The organization of the curriculum is taken from the subject matter such as social studies, history, business, economics, etc. Students use the foreign language to learn information and evaluate information. The topics, content matter, and activities aim to correspond to the cognitive, linguistic, and affective needs of the students.



The LAMP Method

LAMP is an acronym for **L**anguage **A**cquisition **M**ade **P**ractical, a method developed in 1976. Although not widely used in public education, this method has been very widely used by diplomats and expatriates learning languages and is considered most suitable for independent language learning.



It suggests such things as topics on which to base lessons, topics for comprehension practice, phonetics, syntax and morphology, and cultural exploration. But it does not spell out explicitly how the analytical materials are to be incorporated into language learning.

Also, although suggestions are given as to ways to use Total Physical Response activities, it is not made clear how these can be used within the learning cycle. The principal contributions of the LAMP method are the emphasis on language as a social activity and a means of communication and relationship.

Total Physical Response

This method was designed by James Asher who felt that learning is more natural if the



**Understanding through
physical participation**

students are physically as well as cognitively involved in the language. It's a way of learning through body movements (acting, not only seeing or listening). Students are given a series of commands that they act out and repeat when ready. Language comes as a by-product of understanding through physical participation. It is linked to the trace theory of memory, which holds that the more often or intensively a memory connection is traced, the stronger the memory will be. In Asher's own opinion, TPR offers advantages but has also some drawbacks:

Advantages: TPR is a confidence-builder. Students of all ages including adults experience instant success in understanding a foreign language. Academic aptitude is a negligible factor when TPR is applied by a skilled teacher. TPR works for children and adults. TPR is "brain compatible"; there is short and long-term retention. TPR can be the focus of a language program or an effective supplement.

Drawbacks: TPR works only with commands or directives. It isn't suitable for teaching most other language aspects, i.e. musings, expression of feelings and thoughts, and anything that can't be expressed with body movement. TPR should be used conservatively. TPR is a novelty that will trigger adaptation if carried on too long. It should be stopped before adaptation is triggered.

2.4 SUMMARY & EXERCISE

The Nature of Language	The philosophical contemplation of the question, “What is language?” It results in various “Views of Language”.
A View of Language	It represents one or another academic concept of what a language is all about, how it is used and how it can be taught and learned. It results in various “Theories of Language Learning”.
Theories of Language Learning	The theories of language learning are the academic concepts of how languages can be learned best and most effectively. It results in the definition of “Approaches” to language teaching and learning.
Approaches	They describe a theory, a general attitude towards teaching and learning a language. Each approach is representative of a group of “Methods” that are reflective of its attitude.
Methods	<p>Each “Method” is a procedure or system for teaching and learning a language.</p> <p>Note: There is no one single method that is immutable, universal and eternal. Not one single method, if applied exclusively, will lead to success of achieving the learning objective of the language course you teach. For a successful teaching technique, you have to select those elements of various methods that provide the variety and flexibility that enable your students to achieve the lesson, module, segment and course objectives.</p>
Technique	A technique is an explicit procedure or strategy that you use in the classroom to accomplish a particular learning objective or set of objectives.

Exercise (Allow yourself 2 hours to refer back to the text of this section and to answer the following questions):

1. In the space below, write down all the forms of inter-human communication of which you can think:

2. Contemplate the nature of language: Is language in itself representative of communication as such, or is it just one aspect of communication, i.e. a communication tool? Write your definition in the space below:

3. In view of your personal characteristics and preferences, which approach to language learning will you consider most suitable for your style of teaching EFL? In which order of priority would you consider the other three approaches?

4. Define an objective for an EFL-lesson you may want to give. Write down in the space below which methods you would select and why you selected them for a required range of activities to achieve your defined objective:

5. What is your definition of a technique? Provide an example:

6. Ask yourself the following questions and write your answers in the space below:
 - a) Why is the Experiential Learning Cycle a useful model for education?
 - b) What examples of classroom activities can you think of for each of the four stages of the cycle?
 - c) How do you feel about learning in this manner?

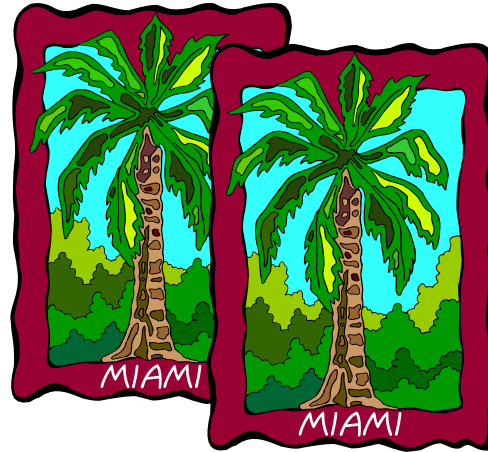
3. TASK-BASED LEARNING

The school curriculum is sometimes described as a collection of tasks. The teacher's choice of tasks determines learning goals, how learning is to take place, and how the results of learning will be demonstrated.

TBL - WHAT KIND OF ADVENTURE?

by Jane Willis, Aston University, UK

By task, I mean a **goal-oriented activity** with a clear purpose. Doing a communication task involves achieving an outcome, creating a final product that can be appreciated by others. Examples include compiling a list of reasons, features, or things that need doing under particular circumstances; comparing two pictures and/or texts to find the differences; and solving a problem or designing a brochure.



Tasks can be used as the central component of a three-part framework: “pre-task,” “task cycle,” and “language focus.” These components have been carefully designed to create four optimum conditions for language acquisition, and this provides rich learning opportunities to suit different types of students. Figure 1 (see page 24) outlines the roles of the teacher and students during a task-based learning lesson. Note especially the degree of teacher control, and the opportunities for student language use.



SHORT TERM MOTIVATION

Conditions for Learning

Students get exposure at the pre-task stage, and a chance to recall things they know. The task cycle gives them speaking and writing exposure with opportunities for students to learn from each other. The task cycle also gives students opportunities to use whatever language they have, both in

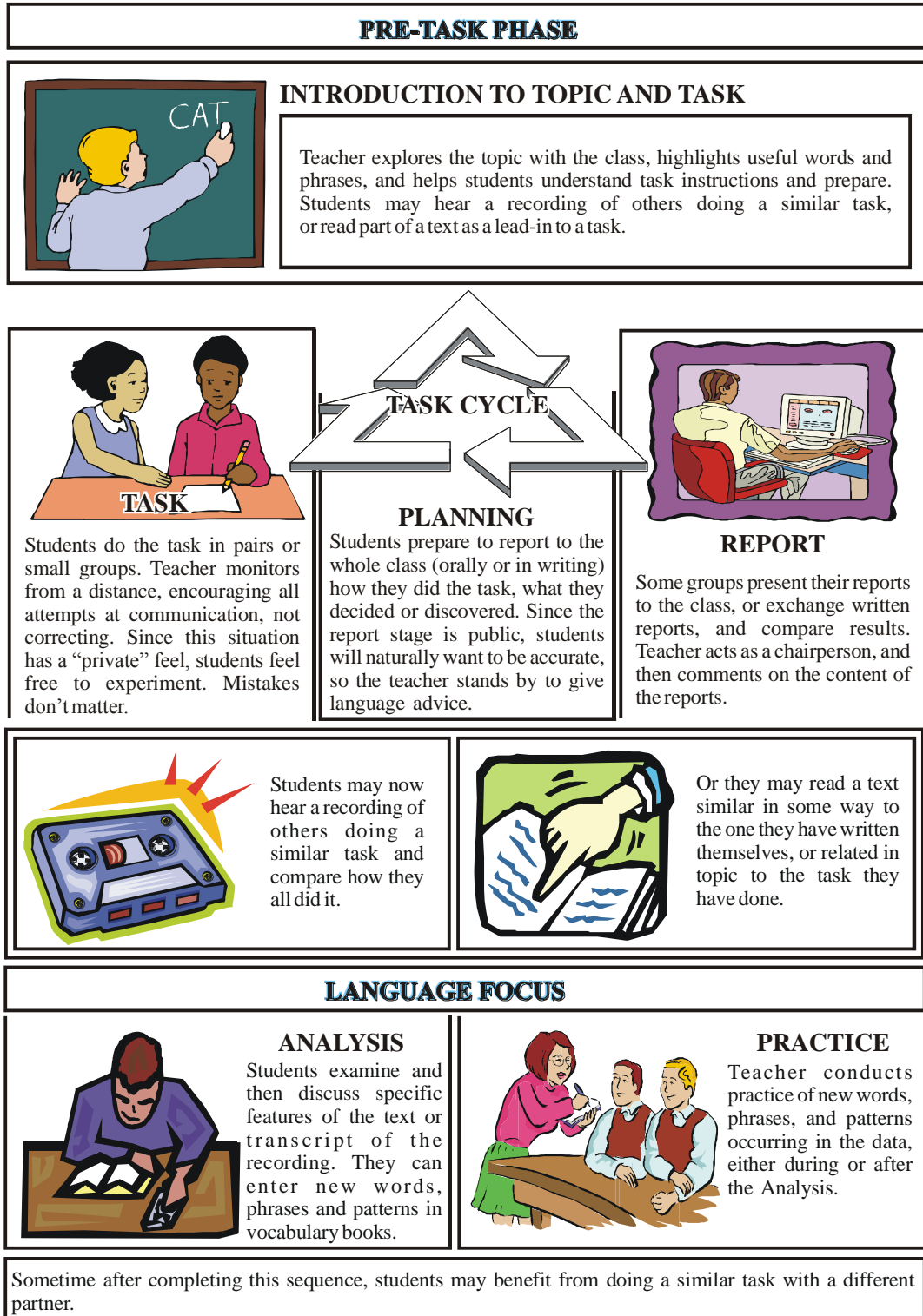
private (where mistakes, hesitations, and approximate renderings do not matter so long as the meaning is clear) and in public (where there is a built-in desire to strive for accuracy of form and meaning, so as not to lose face).

Motivation (short term) is provided mainly by the need to achieve the objectives of the task and to report back on it. Success in doing this can trigger and increase intrinsic motivation. Motivation to listen to fluent speakers doing the task is strong too, because in attempting the task, students will notice gaps in their own language, and will listen carefully to hear how fluent speakers express themselves.

A focus on form is beneficial in two phases in the framework. The planning stage between the private task and the public report promotes close attention to language form. As students strive for accuracy, they try to organize their reports clearly and check words and patterns they are not sure of. In the final component, language analysis activities also provide a focus on form through consciousness-raising processes.

Students notice and reflect on language features, recycle the task language, go back over the text or recording and investigate new items, and practice pronouncing useful phrases.

Figure 1: Task-Based Learning Framework



Language Analysis Activities

People have often been under the impression that task-based learning means “forget the grammar.” As we have discussed above, this would not be a wise move. The aim of analysis activities is to encourage students to investigate language for themselves, and to form and test their own hypotheses about how language works. In the task-based cycle, the language data comes from the texts or transcripts of recordings used in the task cycle, or from samples of language they have read or heard in earlier lessons. Having already processed these texts and recordings for meaning, students will get far more out of their study of language form.

Analysis activities can be followed by quick bursts of oral or written practice, or dictionary reference work. Finally, students need time to write down useful words, phrases, and patterns into a language notebook. Regular revision of these will help vocabulary acquisition.



Assessing the Risks

So what risks are there for the teacher?

The pre-task stage is normally teacher-led: little risk of chaos here. Although students are free to interact in pairs and groups in the task cycle, there is a firm agenda for them to follow, such as the achievement of the task goal. A short time limit for each phase helps, too. The pressure from the prospect of reporting in public ensures student engagement at the interim planning stage. At the beginning and end of each phase, the teacher assumes full control.



The language focus component does need careful preparation: Whatever analysis activity is set, needs to be done by the teacher beforehand to iron out problems. More examples can then be found in dictionaries or grammar books.

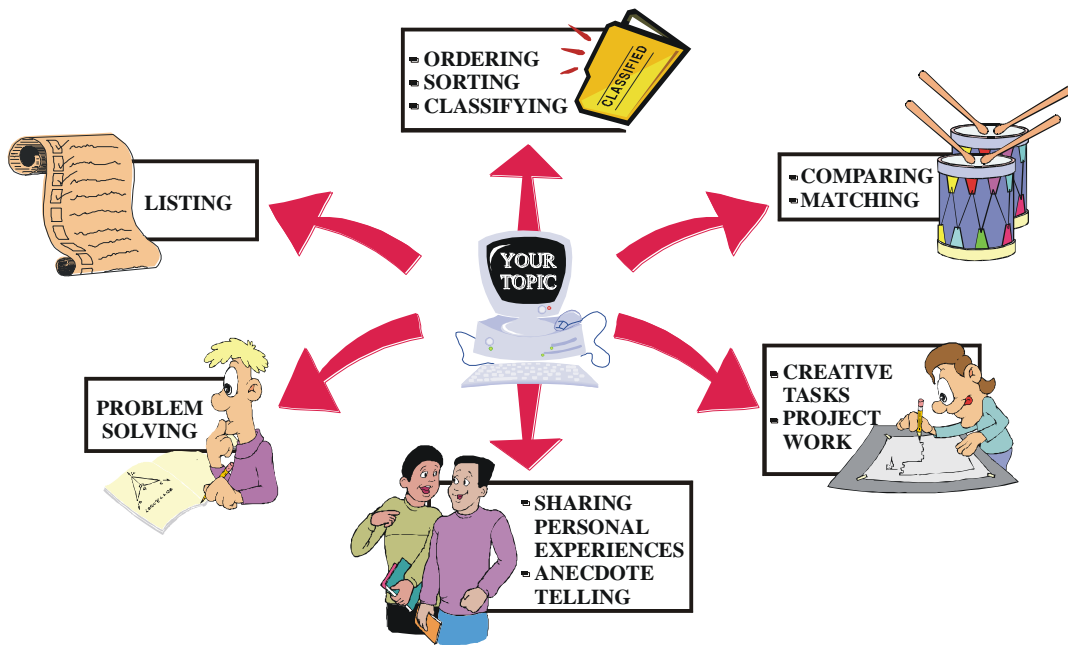
Sometimes teachers worry that they may not know the answers to incidental language queries that students have - **there are always some!** But students can be encouraged to explore these further on their own, or in pairs, or together with the teacher, with the help of dictionaries, computer databases, or concordance lines, and then report on them in the next lesson.

Designing Tasks to Promote Language Use

Any topic or theme can give rise to different types of tasks, which can be generated with the help of the typology shown in Figure 2 (below).

Each type involves different cognitive processes. The top three types increase in cognitive complexity from left to right, but are generally cognitively less challenging than the three at the bottom. These may involve more complex cognitive operations or combinations of simpler task types.

Figure 2: Typology for TBL Task Design



For example, should you choose the topic “cats,” a listing task might be: “List three reasons why people think cats make good pets.” A comparing task might be to compare cats and dogs as pets. A problem-solving task could be to think of three low budget solutions to the problem of looking after a cat when the family is absent. An experience sharing or anecdote telling task could involve sharing stories about cats.

It is always a good idea to record two or three pairs of fluent speakers doing (and reporting) the tasks, so that you can choose the best recording, transcribe it, and use it in class to illustrate features of spontaneous and planned language. Working with real data is exciting; there are always discoveries to be made, and here the risk is reduced by having time to prepare for what crops up in the recording.

Conclusion

TBL offers a change from the grammar practice routines through which many students have previously failed to learn to communicate. It encourages students to experiment with English they can recall, to try things out without fear of failure and public correction, and to take active control of their own learning, both in and outside class.



For the teacher, the framework offers security and control. While it may be true that TBL is an adventure, it can be undertaken within the safety of an imaginatively designed playground.

Something to consider in regard to Task-Based Learning:

Based on information from: Universität Giessen, Germany

Intrinsic Motivation

The word “intrinsic” comes from the Latin word “intrinsicus” which means “on the inside”, “inwardly”. If you take it apart you get “inter” which means “in the midst of” or “between”, and “secus” which means “beside”, “by” or “along” originally “following” as it is related to the word “sequi” which means “to follow”. You might translate “intrinsic” as “situated within”, “belonging to the thing itself” or “by its very nature”.

If you connect this word with the word “motivation”, you get something like “the motivation within” and in the above case of task-based learning “intrinsic motivation” can only mean the motivation that is situated within the student him-/herself, namely the motivation to learn more and more. It is, moreover, the motivation to organize one’s learning process as related to the organizing and using of learning strategies.



In other words: “Intrinsic Motivation” means the desire to learn and this may be fostered by showing students ways to get their learning process organized and introduce them to certain methods, to new material and media with which they can monitor and reflect upon their learning process.

3.1 SUMMARY & EXERCISE

Task Based Learning is a communicative activity. It uses as a central component the three-part framework: “pre-task,” “task cycle,” and “language focus.”

PRE-TASK PHASE: Students get exposure to a topic and a chance to recall things they know about it. It is important that the students comprehend the meaning of the topic before production.

TASK CYCLE: Students get speaking and writing exposure. They have opportunities to use their acquired L2. They are motivated to be accurate. There should be a balance of the development of fluency with a focus on form.

LANGUAGE FOCUS: During the analysis stage, students focus on the grammar and the meaning of their task-work.

Exercise(Allow yourself 2 hours to answer the following questions):

1. Would TBL be suitable for large classes where the conditions are less than ideal? Provide a short answer here and your reasons on a separate sheet.

2. What would be the merits of using TBL in your classroom?

3. Define “motivation.” Give an acute example of motivating your students.

4. Make a list of at least 6 topics you would consider useful for your students.

1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____

4. _____ 5. _____ 6. _____

5. Describe a task of one of the above topics involving reading, writing, listening, and speaking which focuses on the message.

6. Describe a task reflecting the main objective of a unit of your choice in your textbook, focusing on specific grammar, vocabulary and other linguistic content included.

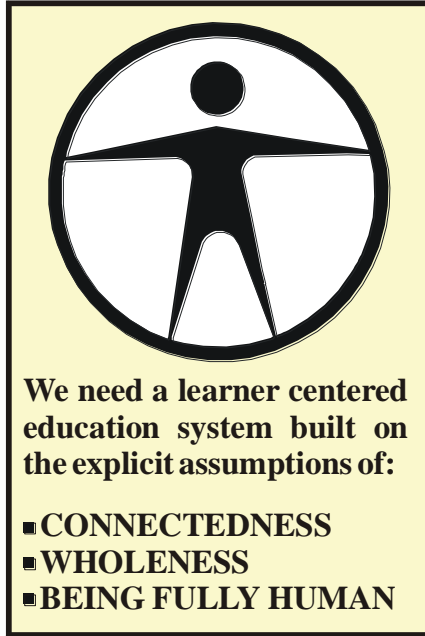
7. On a separate page write your plan of the framework for a specific task of your choice. Pay special attention to the Language Focus component.

4. CONSIDERING YOUR STUDENTS

Holistic Education

Based on information from: Tasmanian Education Network, Australia

Truth is relative to the perspective of the observer, and the nature of the perception of reality will determine the nature of the truth expressed.



The relationships between opposed world-views and oppositional perspectives determine the nature of truths held. Most relationships create an exclusive domain that exteriorizes that which is outside. But seemingly oppositional perspectives should be seen as aspects of the whole where seemingly paradoxical environments necessitate a decisive shift from an 'either/or' critique to a pluralistic 'and/both' scenario.

Such a view would allow for the relativity of truths to be realized as expressions that are inextricably linked to relative world-views, and therefore would create a focus for a holistic approach to the information generation.

For educationalists, the imperatives realized through such a view can only be achieved through a trans-disciplinary approach, which realizes that seemingly incongruous perspectives and truths can be appreciated sympathetically when considered pluralistically. Hence the total perception of ultimate reality is viewed through the relativity of perspectives available through humanities' cultural diversity.

Much of today's education is based on 19th century world-views emphasizing reductionism, linear thinking and positivism that make it very difficult for learners to find meaning, relevance and value in school or life. In schools the result is often poor attendance, lack of motivation, lack of participation and poor behavior - all of which make learning much more difficult. Education should be meaningful. We need a learner centered education system built on the explicit assumptions of connectedness, wholeness and being fully human. These are the attributes called for in education for the 21st century by the United Nations.



The United Nations calls out for an education that is meaningful.

They were adopted by many preventative programs in recognition that they are the only attributes that effectively combat depression, suicide and drug abuse by young people.

Fundamental Principles & Concepts of Holistic Education

Connectedness

The concept of an interconnected reality originated in the philosophy of holism and was further developed through ecology, quantum physics and systems theory.

Interdependence The function of each part of a system is mutually dependent on the functioning of other parts and the system as a whole.

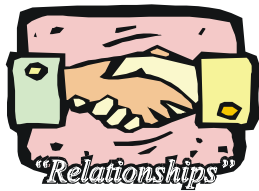
Interrelationship A complex network of relationships exists among the parts of a system and with other systems.

Participatory The observers are always intimately connected to their environment, creating the reality they “observe”.

Non-linearity Complex patterns of interaction, described through feedback loops, self-organizing systems or chaos theory, are more common than simple linear cause-and-effect interactions.



It is the concept that “the whole is more than the sum of its parts”. Whole systems have emergent properties that can’t be deduced by studying their components.

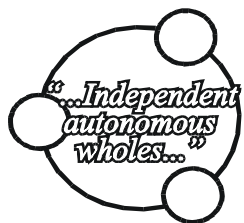


WHOLE SYSTEMS

Thinking about whole systems involves shifting attention from the parts to the whole, from objects to relationships, from structures to processes, from hierarchies to networks. It includes shifts of emphasis from the rational to the intuitive, from analysis to synthesis, from linear to non-linear thinking.

MULTIPLE PERSPECTIVES

Complex systems interact in complex ways and can be seen from many different points of view. There is no “one answer”.



INDEPENDENCE

Systems can operate as largely independent autonomous wholes.



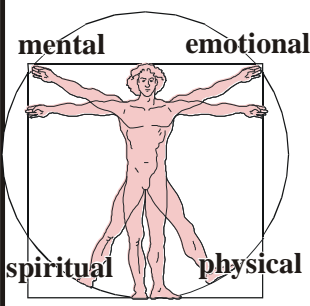

MULTIPLE LEVELS

Systems often include a network or hierarchy of sub-systems that interact in complex ways.

B E I N G

“... Being is about inner peace, wisdom and insight...”

Being is about fully experiencing the present moment. It is about being honest and authentic.

 <p>mental emotional spiritual physical</p>	FULLY HUMAN A recognition of the physical, emotional, mental and spiritual dimensions of being human.	 CREATIVE EXPRESSION A recognition of the importance of opportunities for creative expression of individuals and communities.
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GROWTH

Transformation and growth allow each person to reach for the highest aspirations of the human mind.



			RESPONSIBILITY Personal and collective discernment and responsibility for choices and actions at local, global and cosmic levels.
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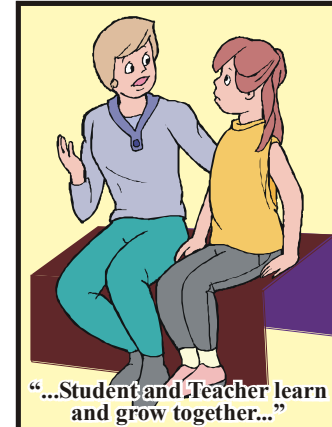
What is Holistic Education?

There is no one definition of holistic education. Indeed it could be argued that such a concept can't and shouldn't be defined or contained in this way. This section presents a range of views in an attempt to sketch out what holistic education might be about.

Holistic Education...

- Is a multi-levelled experiential journey of discovery, expression and mastery where all students and teachers learn and grow together.
- Is a quest for understanding and meaning. Its aim is to nurture healthy, whole, curious persons who can learn whatever they need to know in any new context.
- Recognizes the innate potential of every student for intelligent, creative and systemic thinking.

HOLISTIC EDUCATION



Holistic Curriculum...

- Is inquiry driven, interdisciplinary and integrated, and is based on explicit assumptions of interconnectedness, wholeness and multi-dimensional being.
- Recognizes that all knowledge is created within a cultural context and that the “facts” are seldom more than shared points of view.

Holistic Learning...

- Is organized around relationships between students and their environment.
- Is concerned with the growth of intellectual, emotional, social, physical, artistic, creative and spiritual potentials. It engages students in the teaching and learning process and encourages personal and collective discernment and responsibility.



Holistic Education, Curriculum and Learning...

- Is a quest for understanding and meaning.
- Integrates so-called “students-at-risk”, most of whom have severe difficulties learning within linear, sequential educational processes.
- Encourages the transfer of learning across academic disciplines.
- Encourages learners to critically approach cultural, moral and political contexts.
- Values spiritual knowledge in a non-sectarian sense; it honors diversity in unity.

What might Holistic EFL-Education look like?

- It should be a rich experiential journey of discovery, expression and mastery where the students and their teacher learn and grow together.
- It should be a quest for understanding and meaning.
- It should recognize the innate potential of every student for intelligent, creative and systemic thinking.
- It should be inquiry driven.
- It should recognize that knowledge is created within a cultural context.
- It should encourage students to critically approach cultural, moral and political contexts.
- It should be organized around relationships between students and their environment.
- It should be concerned with the growth of every student’s intellectual, emotional, social, physical, artistic, creative and spiritual potentials.
- It should actively engage all students in the teaching and learning process.

In particular, a Holistic EFL-Education will:

- Clarify interconnections between apparently disparate material.
- Show how details and elements of language fit into larger contexts.
- Have a system viewed with inter-disciplinary perspectives.
- Explore paradoxes, dilemmas and enigmas.
- Value intuition, insight and imagination.
- Make fundamental assumptions explicit.

The learning process will become more:

- Dialogical
- Inspirational
- Collaborative
- Reflective
- Transformative
- Experiential
- Meaningful
- Creative

As a result, students will become more:

- Curious
- Compassionate
- Creative
- Resilient
- Empathic
- Competent
- Joyful
- Purposeful
- Innovative
- Ethical
- Mindful
- Engaged

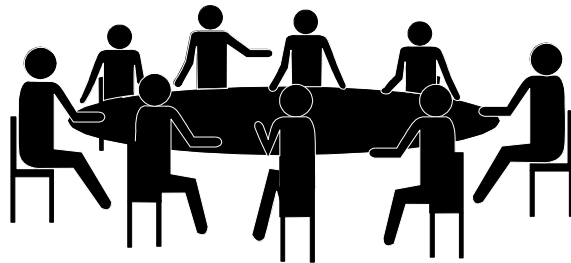
Co-operative Learning in the EFL-Classroom

In co-operative learning, students work with each other to accomplish a shared goal. The goal is reached through interdependence among all group members rather than working alone. Each member is responsible for the outcome of the shared goal. Putting groups together in a room does not mean co-operative learning is taking place.

In order to have effective co-operative learning each group member must:

- Ó Contribute while also depending on others to accomplish a shared goal or task.
- Ó Praise, encourage, support, and assist others.
- Ó Take responsibility for his or her own learning and contribution as well as the group achievement.
- Ó Develop leadership, decision-making, trust-building and communication skills.
- Ó Reflect on group effectiveness and think of ways to improve group work.

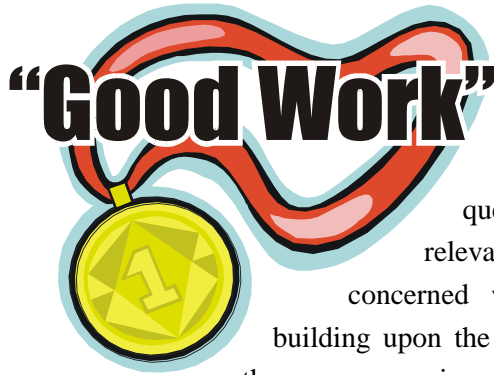
Co-operative learning can produce greater student achievement than traditional learning methodologies. Students who work individually often compete against others to gain praise or other forms of rewards and reinforcements. The success of individual students means failure for others. There are more winners in a co-operative team because all members reap from the success of an achievement.



One of the essential elements of co-operative learning is the development of social skills. Students learn to take risks and are praised for their contribution.

They are able to see points of view other than their own. Such benefits contribute to the learning skills, cultural background, attitudes, and personalities. These differences force them to deal with conflicts and enrich their learning process.

Conclusion



Holistic Education, in contrast to traditional forms of education, is concerned with encouraging and answering the student's questions in regard to the subject matter at hand, and not to demand of the student to answer book questions or questions defined by the teacher as relevant to the objectives. Holistic Education is concerned with encouraging, supporting, enhancing, and building upon the natural and innate curiosity of every student so they may recognize any given subject matter as a whole in itself within the whole of knowledge and relate it to their real life by having their questions answered.

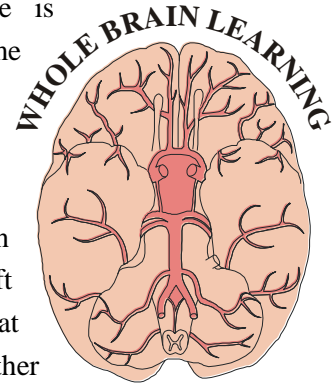
Multiple Intelligence

Based on information from: Universität Giessen, Germany

Whole-Brain Learning

It is commonly thought that the left and right hemispheres of the brain have different functions. The left hemisphere is used for analytical operations, written and spoken language and logical processes. The right hemisphere is involved with visualization, synthesis, and creativity. Some people have skills that indicate that they operate in one hemisphere more than the other.

Although more recent brain imaging techniques have shown that the notion of a differentiation of brain functions into left and right halves may be far too simplistic, it is still clear that formal education systems have tended to emphasize a rather narrow range of brain capabilities.

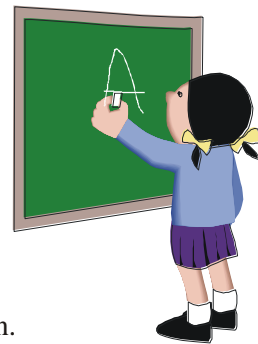


Whole-brain learning within the realm of multiple intelligence uses techniques that integrate synthetic and imaginative skills with analytical and language skills. Simple strategies can make better use of the whole brain and can dramatically improve learning and performance skills.

An understanding of how the brain works most effectively has led to a number of “brain-based” learning principles:



- The brain is a parallel processor -it is always doing many things at once.
 - Learning engages the entire physiology -everything that affects physiological functioning affects the capacity to learn.
 - The search for meaning is automatic -the search for meaning cannot be stopped, only channelled and focused.
 - The search for meaning takes place by “patterning” -the brain is designed to perceive and generate patterns, and resists meaningless patterns imposed on it.
- Emotions are critical and at the heart of patterning -what we learn is influenced and organized by emotions and mind-sets.
 - The brain processes parts and wholes simultaneously -the left and right hemispheres are inextricably interactive.
 - Learning involves focused attention and peripheral perception. The brain responds to the entire sensory context including subtle signals not consciously noticed.
 - Learning involves conscious and subconscious processes -we learn much more than we ever consciously understand.
 - We have at least two different ways for organizing memory -a spatial memory system that allows for instant memory of experiences; and a set of systems for rote learning of facts and skills isolated from experience.
 - We understand and remember best when facts and skills are embedded in natural, spatial memory -spatial memory is best invoked through experiential learning.
 - The brain downshifts under perceived threats and learns optimally when appropriately challenged -learning occurs best in an atmosphere that is low in threat and high in challenge.
 - Each brain is unique -learning actually changes the structure of the brain.



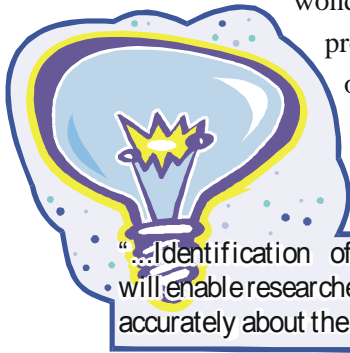
What is Intelligence?

When asked to consider the question “What is intelligence?”, the most common response will often note a person’s ability to solve problems, utilize logic, and think critically. These ‘typical’ traits of intelligence can be lumped together under the label of ‘raw intelligence’. In this view, a person’s intelligence is nothing more than his or her ‘general’ intellect, which recognizes only a logical-mathematical ability as intelligence.

However, how each and every one of us comprehends, examines, and responds to outside stimuli, whether it be solving a problem or anticipating another person's next move, is the 'intelligence' to act and react in an ever-changing world.

The Theory of Multiple Intelligence

Teachers are often intrigued by their students' abilities in a number of skills and arts, and often wonder how this potential can be used to enhance the learning process. The theory of Multiple Intelligence (MI) casts some light on learning strengths and abilities.



“...Identification of intellectual strengths will enable researchers to communicate more accurately about the concept of intellect...”

MI theory defines intelligence as the ability to solve problems or create products that are valued in one or more cultural or community settings. MI theory counters traditional views that intelligence can be measured through IQ tests. It contends that all

humans are made up of varying degrees of all the different types of intelligence.

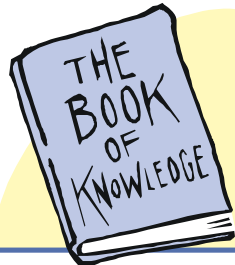
MI theory, which emphasizes the positive ways that people acquire knowledge and interact with the world, is especially valuable to teachers working with students who have experienced repeated difficulties in learning. Recognizing that each student has a domain type intelligence that is supported by the other types of intelligence, it expands the teachers' capacity to bring out the best in each one of their students. It is very important to note, that there can never be a single, irrefutable, universally accepted list of types of human intelligence. Though an exhaustive list of every aspect of intelligence may not be possible, identifying intelligence is important for at least two reasons:

- Classification of human intellectual competencies will allow a better understanding of humanity.
- Identification of intellectual strengths will enable researchers to communicate more accurately about the concept of intellect.

What does the Multiple Intelligence Theory propose?

The multiple intelligence theory, in a nutshell, is a pluralized way of understanding the intellect. Recent advances in cognitive science, developmental psychology and neuroscience conclude that each person's intelligence is actually made up of autonomous faculties that can work individually or in concert with the other faculties. Howard Gardner originally identified seven such faculties, which he labeled as 'intelligence'.

Presently eleven types of intelligence are talked about, but only eight defined forms of intelligence are included in the theory of multiple intelligence: linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial-visual, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, inter-personal, intra-personal and naturalistic.



“...Establishing the necessity for New Knowledge...”

Characteristics of Intelligence

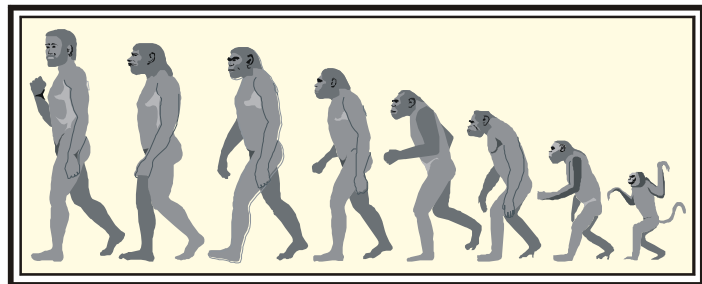
Human intelligence is defined according to the following **SAP** characteristics:

- Skills that enable a person to resolve genuine problems encountered in life.
- Ability to create an effective product or offer a service that is valued in a culture.
- Potential for recognizing or creating problems, thereby establishing the necessity for the new knowledge.

Criteria for Intelligence

Human intelligence is defined according to the following criteria:

- Potential isolation by brain damage.
- The existence of idiot (autistic) savants, prodigies, and other exceptional individuals.
- An identifiable core operation or set of operations.
- A distinctive developmental history, along with a definable set of expert “end-state” performances.
- An evolutionary history and evolutionary plausibility.
- Support from experimental psychological tasks.
- Support from psychometric findings.
- Susceptibility to encoding in a symbol system.



“...An evolutionary history and evolutionary plausibility...”

Principles of Intelligence

Human intelligence is based on the following principles:

1. Intelligence is not singular: intelligence is a multiple.
2. Every person is a unique blend of dynamic intelligence.
3. Intelligence varies in development, both within and among individuals.
4. All defined forms of intelligence are dynamic.
5. Multiple intelligence can be identified and described.
6. Every person deserves opportunities to recognize and develop his/her multiplicity of intelligence.



7. The use of one aspect of intelligence can be used to enhance other aspects of intelligence.
8. Personal background density and dispersion are critical to knowledge, beliefs, and skills in every form of intelligence.
9. All aspects of intelligence provide alternate resources and potential capacities to become more human, regardless of age or circumstance.
10. Pure intelligence is indefinable, meaning that intelligence is not a stand-alone function but is always linked to a person's skills, ability and potential.
11. Developmental theory applies to the theory of multiple intelligence.
12. Any list of defined intelligence is subject to change as we learn more about multiple intelligence.

Identification of Multiple Intelligence

Intelligence is defined as “the capacity to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural settings”. A pluralistic view of intelligence suggests that all people possess various forms and combinations of intelligence, which operate in varying degrees depending upon each person's individual profile of intelligence. These forms and combinations are usually made up of one domain type of intelligence that determines a person's learning style and learning preference and is supported by a distinct pattern of the other types of intelligence. The pattern of all types of intelligence determines what is commonly referred to as a person's personality and characteristics.

The forms of intelligence identified by Howard Gardner include:



Linguistic Intelligence...

Is the capacity to effectively employ words, either orally or in writing. Students with linguistic intelligence have the ability to manipulate:

1. The structure or rules of language (e.g., punctuation for dramatic effect);
2. The sounds of language (e.g., alliteration);
3. The meanings of language (E.g., double significance);
4. The pragmatic dimensions of language

“...The capacity to effectively employ words, either orally or in writing...”

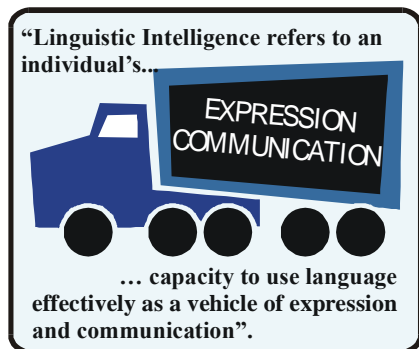
- Using language to convince (rhetoric)

- Using language to remember information (mnemonics)

- Using language to explain (expatiation)

- Using language to talk about itself (metalinguage).

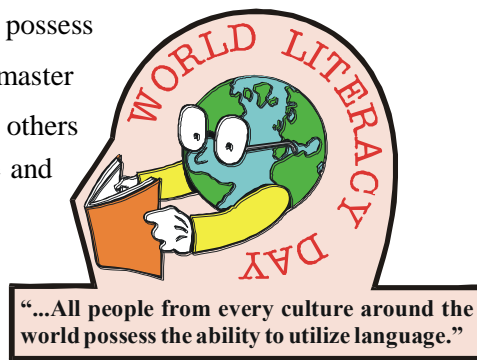
Linguistic Intelligence refers to an individual's capacity to use language effectively as a vehicle of expression and communication. Poets, writers/authors, lyricists, reporters, speakers, attorneys, talk-show hosts, politicians, lecturers, and teachers may exhibit



highly developed linguistic intelligence. It is the ability to use, with clarity, the core operations of language.

People with linguistic intelligence have sensitivity to the meaning of words, i.e. the capacity to follow rules of grammar, and, on carefully selected occasions, to violate them. At a more sensory level, sensitivity to the sounds, rhythms, inflections, and meters of words, linguistic intelligence can make even poetry in a foreign tongue beautiful to hear. It includes sensitivity to the different functions of language, its potential to convey, excite, convince, stimulate, or simply to please.

All people from every culture around the world possess the ability to utilize language. While some can master only rudimentary levels of communication, others have conquered multiple languages with grace and ease.



Joseph Conrad, for example, learned English as a sailor after leaving his native Poland, yet his works such as “Heart of Darkness” and “Lord Jim” are some of the greatest feats in English literature.

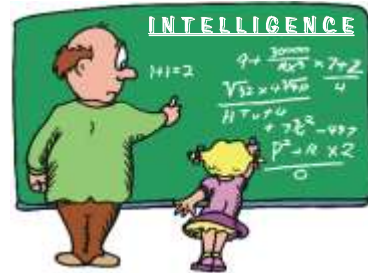
Researchers recognized the connection between language and the brain: Damage to one portion of the brain, Broca's Area, will cause a person to lose the ability to express him/herself in clear grammatical sentences, though that person's understanding of vocabulary and syntax remains intact.

Even young children and deaf individuals will begin to develop their own unique language when they are not offered an alternative. A person's ability to construct and comprehend language may vary, but as a cognitive trait it is still universal.

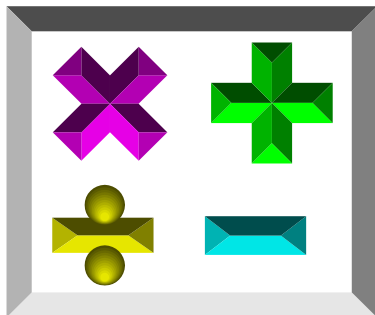
Logical-Mathematical Intelligence...

Is the capacity to reason soundly as well as effectively employ numbers. Students with logical-mathematical intelligence have the ability to perceive:

- Logical patterns and relationships;
- Statements and propositions (if-then, cause-effect);
- Functions, complex processes, and related abstractions.



Logical-Mathematical Intelligence refers to an individual's capacity to think logically, solve problems scientifically, discern relationships and patterns between concepts and things, and use numbers effectively. People such as mathematicians, engineers, physicists, researchers, astronomers, systems analysts and scientists may exhibit highly developed logical-mathematical intelligence.



Logical-Mathematical Intelligence is logical as well as scientific ability. Abstraction is fundamental, reasoning is complex, and problem-solution is natural. Order and sequence are significant. There is a drive to know causality as well as the explication of existence.

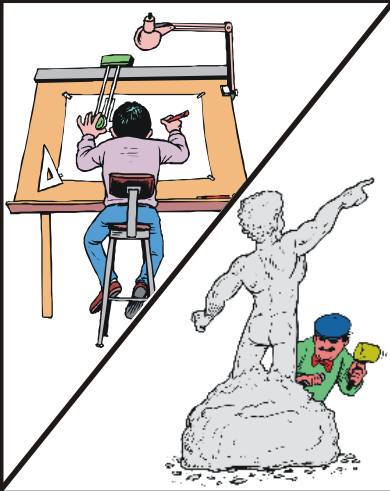
The most popularly understood cognitive faculty is that of logical-mathematical intelligence. This intelligence is our ability to mentally process logical problems and equations, the type most often found on multiple choice standardized tests.

Logical-mathematical intelligence often does not require verbal articulation, for we can churn a complex problem in our head, only to articulate it out loud once the problem has been solved (The "Aha!" phenomenon, as it was called in Greece of antiquity). Additionally, individuals who have high logical-mathematical abilities are able to process logical questions at an unusually rapid rate.

Logical-mathematical intelligence was considered the archetypal intelligence, the "raw intellect" on which Western culture has placed a high premium. Though MI theory agrees that logical-mathematical intelligence is indeed a key section of the intellect, it is by no means the only section that determines a person's intelligence.

Spatial Intelligence...

Is the capacity to perceive the visual-spatial world accurately and to perform transformations upon those perceptions. Students with spatial intelligence have the ability to keenly perceive:



Spatial Intelligence

- Colors
- Lines
- Shapes, forms and proportions
- Space and time (in its abstract sense)
- The relationships that exist among these elements

Students with spatial intelligence also have the ability to:

- Visualize
- Graphically represent visual or spatial ideas
- Understand one's position in a spatial matrix

Spatial Intelligence (or Visual-Spatial) refers to the capacity to think visually and orient oneself spatially. In addition, spatially intelligent people are able to graphically represent visual and spatial ideas. People such as sailors, engineers, surgeons, sculptors, painters, cartographers, and architects may have highly developed spatial intelligence.

“...The capacity to think visually...”

Spatial Intelligence is the capacity to perceive the world accurately, and to be able to recreate one's visual experience. It entails a number of loosely related capacities:

- The ability to recognize instances of the same element.
- The ability to recognize transformations of one element in another.
- The capacity to conjure up mental imagery and then to transform that imagery.
- The ability to produce a graphic likeness of spatial information, and the like.

A person with a good sense of direction or the ability to move and operate well in the world would indicate spatial intelligence.

Our ability to tap our spatial intelligence is most commonly seen in how we comprehend shapes and images in three dimensions. Whether it is trying to put together a puzzle, mold a sculpture or navigate the seas with only the stars as a guide, we utilize

our spatial intelligence to perceive and interpret that which we may or may not physically see.

Neuroscience has provided clear-cut proof of the role of spatial intelligence in the right hemisphere of the brain. In rare instances, for example, certain brain injuries can cause people to lose the ability to identify where they are or even to recognize their closest relatives.



Though they may see the other person or place perfectly well, they are unable to comprehend whom they see or where they are. Additionally, cases of the visually handicapped and blind persons draw the distinction between spatial ability and visual acuity. A blind person may feel a shape and identify it with ease, though they are unable to see it. Because most people use spatial intelligence in conjunction with sight, its existence as an autonomous cognitive attribute may not seem readily apparent, but recent scientific advances have confirmed that it is clearly an independently performing portion of the intellect.

Musical Intelligence...

Is the capacity to perceive (e.g., music lover), discriminate and judge (e.g., music critic), transform (e.g., composer), and express (interpreter/performer) with musical forms. Students with musical intelligence have sensitivity to:

- Rhythm, pitch, or melody; and
- The timbre or distinctive tone of a musical piece.



Musical Intelligence (or Musical-Rhythmic) refers to the capacity to appreciate a variety of musical forms in addition to using music as a vehicle of expression. Musically intelligent people are sensitive to rhythm, melody, and pitch. People such as singers, composers, instrumentalists, conductors, and those who enjoy, understand, use, create, perform, and appreciate music and/or elements of music may exhibit highly developed musical intelligence.

Musical intelligence is the ability to use the core set of musical elements - pitch, rhythm, and timbre (understanding the characteristic qualities of a tone). There may be a hierarchy of difficulty involved in various roles - composition, performance, listening.



In the case of the violinist Yehudi Menuhin and the composers Mozart, Saint-Saens, Boulez and other child prodigies, music came “naturally.” The ability to perform and compose music has been scientifically pinpointed in certain areas of the brain, and instances of autistic and other impaired children who can perform brilliantly but are unable to talk or interact with others exemplify this fact. Each individual has a different musical ability; there are even people who are totally unmusical or tone-deaf, yet continue to lead very normal and successful

lives. In summary, though musical intelligence may not seem as obvious a form of intellect as is mathematical or linguistic ability, from a neurological point of view, our ability to perform and comprehend musically works independently from other forms of intelligence.

Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence...

Is the capacity to use your complete body in expressing ideas and feelings, e.g., actor, athlete, dancer, mime, including the facility to use your hands to create or transform things. Students with bodily-kinesthetic intelligence have these physical-based skills:

<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Coordination - harmonious functioning of muscles and senses■ Balance■ Dexterity - grace in physical movement■ muscle strength■ Flexibility■ Speed■ Sensitive touching.	
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Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence refers to the capacity of using one’s own body skillfully as a means of expression or to work skillfully to create or manipulate objects. It is control of one’s bodily motions and the ability to handle objects skillfully.

People such as actors, dancers, swimmers, acrobats, athletes, jugglers, instrumentalists, sculptors, potters and artisans may exhibit developed bodily-kinesthetic intelligence.

According to one of the most controversial of the defined forms of intelligence, that of bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, each person possesses a certain control of his or her



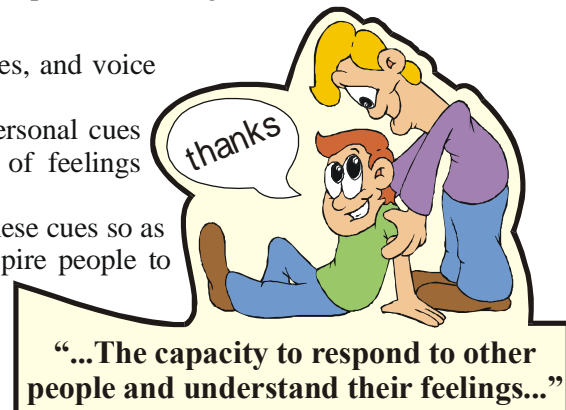
movements, balance, agility and grace. For some extraordinary individuals, such as Olympic gymnasts or Greek-orthodox wrestlers, bodily-kinesthetic intelligence appeared even before they began formal training. They all had a natural sense of how their body should act and react in a demanding physical situation. It is also known that each hemisphere of the brain controls the opposite side of the body's movements.

In cases of apraxia (inability to perform particular activities as a result of brain damage) or other conditions, some people lack the ability to voluntarily control muscles, though they continue to move involuntarily. Some people, however, argue that physical control does not constitute a designation as a form of intelligence. But the results of MI research confirm that bodily-kinesthetic ability does indeed deserve such recognition.

Inter-Personal Intelligence...

Is the capacity to quickly grasp and evaluate the moods, intentions, motivations, and feelings of other people. Students with inter-personal intelligence have:

- Sensitivity to facial expressions, gestures, and voice qualities.
- Ability to discriminate among many personal cues and prioritize the degree of intensity of feelings behind these cues.
- Expertise in responding effectively to these cues so as to assuage negative emotions or to inspire people to positive actions.



Inter-Personal Intelligence refers to the capacity to appropriately and effectively respond to other people and understand (or manipulate) their feelings. People such as politicians, religious leaders as well as teachers, paramedics, nurses and doctors may exhibit highly developed inter-personal intelligence.

Inter-Personal intelligence is the ability to notice and make distinctions among other individuals and, in particular, among their moods, temperaments, motivations, and intentions.

Examined in its most elementary form, the inter-personal intelligence entails the capacity of the young child to detect and discriminate the various moods of those around them. In an advanced form, it permits a skilled adult to read the intentions and desires - even when those desires have been hidden - of many other individuals and, potentially, act upon this knowledge. Though people have the physical ability to exist individually and alone, we are also social animals who thrive and grow when involved with others. This ability to interact with others, to understand them, and to interpret their behavior is known as inter-personal intelligence. It is seen in how we “notice distinction among others, in particular, contrasts in their moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions.”

A well-developed inter-personal intelligence plays a substantial role with politicians, leaders, or clergy. From a psychological and neurological point of view, the connection between inter-personal intelligence and the brain has been explored for generations. Damage the frontal lobe, as was once done in the case of lobotomy patients, and you damage that person’s personality and his/her ability to interact well with others. Inter-personal intelligence allows us to affect others by understanding them; without it, we lose the ability to exist socially.

Intra-Personal Intelligence...

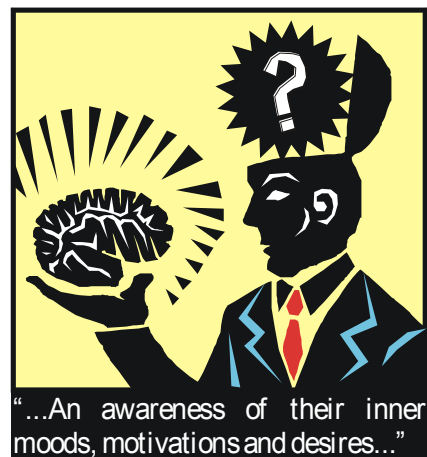
Is the capacity to understand oneself and to subsequently act adaptively. Students with intra-personal intelligence have:

- An honest, accurate, and comprehensive picture of themselves.
- An awareness of their inner moods, motivations, and desires.
- Self-discipline tendencies.
- Healthy self-esteem.

Intra-Personal intelligence refers to the capacity to accurately know one’s self, including knowledge of one’s own strengths, motivations, goals, and feelings.

People such as novelists, therapists, sages, psychologists, and philosophers may exhibit highly developed intra-personal intelligence.

Intra-Personal intelligence is the ability to form an accurate model of oneself, and to use that model to operate effectively in life. At a basic level, it is the capacity to distinguish feelings of pleasure from emotional pain and, on the basis of such discrimination, to become involved in or withdraw from a situation.

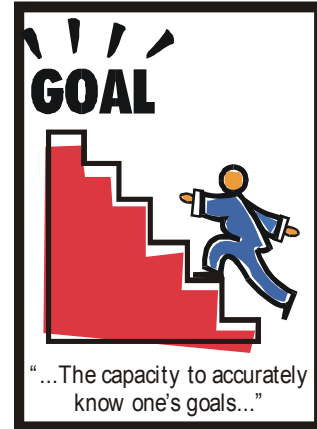


At the most advanced level, interpersonal intelligence is the capacity to detect and to symbolize complex and highly differentiated sets of feelings.

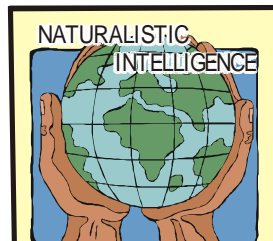
Similar to the faculty of inter-personal intelligence is that of intra-personal intelligence - our cognitive ability to understand and sense our “self”.

Intra-personal intelligence allows us to tap into our being to find out who we are, what feelings we have, and why we are this way. A strong intra-personal intelligence can lead to self-esteem, self-enhancement, and strength of character that can be used to solve internal problems. Conversely, a weak intra-personal intelligence - as is the case with autistic children - prevents even recognition of the self as a separate entity from the surrounding

environment. Intra-personal intelligence often is not recognized from the outside unless it is conveyed in some form, whether it is intangible as rage or joy, or tangible as a poem or a painting.



Naturalistic Intelligence...



“...The ability to understand various type patterns encountered in the world of nature...”

Is a person’s ability to identify and classify patterns in nature. People such as biologists, botanists, hydrologists, geologists, farmers, gardeners, and animal handlers may exhibit highly developed naturalistic intelligence. Naturalistic intelligence is the ability to understand, categorize, classify, comprehend, and explain various type patterns (structural, behavioral, etc.)

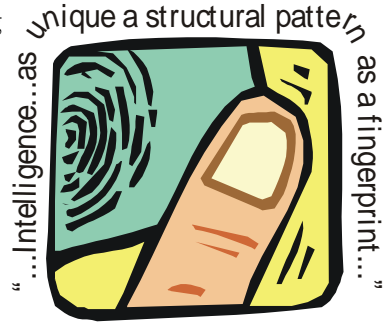
encountered in the world of nature and relate it, also in an abstract sense to one’s own and immediate surroundings and/or problems.

During our prehistory, hunter-gatherers would rely on naturalistic intelligence to identify what flora and fauna were edible, as well as which were not. Today, naturalistic intelligence may be seen in the way we relate to our surroundings, and the role each part of our surroundings plays.

People who are adept at distinguishing nuances of natural structures and forms of behavior or at recognizing sequential patterns in nature and correlating it to particular problems of their own, to define solutions, may be expressing highly developed naturalistic intelligence abilities.

Conclusion

Multiple intelligence is concerned with recognizing that every person possesses all defined as well as all yet undefined types of intelligence albeit in as unique a structural pattern as a fingerprint. It is this unique structural pattern of intelligence that clearly defines a person as differently intelligent, not as intelligent or unintelligent.



**"All students
are intelligent
in their own
special way".**

4.1 Summary & Exercise

Holistic Education:

- Focuses on the students' learning needs and natural curiosity to make learning an enjoyable experience of having their questions answered.
- Is a multi-leveled experiential journey of discovery, expression and mastery where all students and teachers learn and grow together.
- Is a quest for understanding and meaning that aims to nurture healthy, whole, curious persons who can learn whatever they need to know in any new context.
- Recognizes the innate potential of every student for intelligent, creative and systemic thinking.
- Has been recognized by the United Nations as the only form of education that can effectively combat depression, suicide and drug abuse by young people.

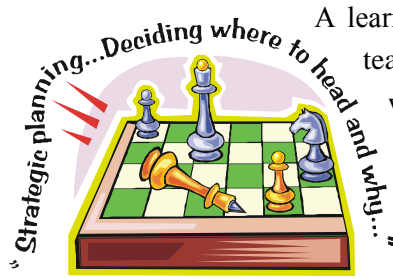
Multiple Intelligence

- Is a pluralized way of understanding the intellect.
- Asserts that intelligence is not singular but a multiple capacity that varies in development, both within and among individuals.
- Is the capacity to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural settings and is therefore a capacity of all human beings.
- Emphasizes the positive ways people acquire knowledge and interact with the world.
- Presently identifies 8 forms of intelligence: linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial-visual, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, inter-personal, intra-personal and naturalistic.

Exercise(working in pairs, allow 4 hours for discussion and answering of all questions of this exercise at length. Write the answers, in your own words, on a separate sheet of paper):

1. How do you go about applying the principles of Holistic Education in your EFL-class? Define the path you take and describe the reasons for your choice of path.
2. What are the direct and immediate benefits for you as the teacher, if you apply the principles of Holistic Education in your EFL-class?
3. What are the direct benefits for your students, if you apply the principles of Holistic Education?
4. How does the main principle of the theory of multiple intelligence influence and determine your view of your students?
5. Considering that every one of your students has a domain type of intelligence, how does this knowledge help you to define each student's learning preference?
6. How does the application of the principles of Holistic Education and the recognition of the different patterns of Multiple Intelligence help you to get to know your students and take their learning needs into consideration?

5. LEARNING STRATEGIES



A learning strategy is a person's approach to a learning or teaching task. It includes how a person thinks and acts when planning, executing, and evaluating performance of a task and its outcomes. Learning strategies focus on making students active learners by teaching them how to learn and how to effectively use what has been learned.

For learning to be genuinely effective and valuable, it is necessary to think and perform strategically. It concerns developing goals and objectives and planning the best way forward, by focusing on the areas critical for success.

The mediocre teacher tells.
The good teacher explains.
The superior teacher demonstrates.
The great teacher inspires...
William Arthur Ward

Strategic planning - deciding where to head and why - also involves checking that you are doing the right things, as well as doing things right. The cornerstones of a learning strategy are a Learning Needs Analysis, Instructional Design, Facilitation and Evaluation.

Learning Needs Analysis

In terms of a learning needs analysis, a 'need' is defined as a gap between current results and desired or required results. A learning needs analysis helps to plan for the future. It answers the questions, "How am I performing now, and what do I need to do to improve?"

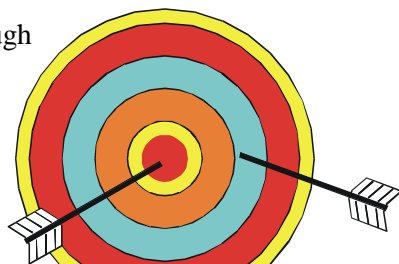
On a macro level, it clarifies the skill gaps and learning needs, and it assesses current performance levels and forms the basis of new initiatives.

On a micro level, it determines the nature of particular performance problems and ways to address them.

What is analyzed?

Depending on the focus, it can include a thorough exploration of:

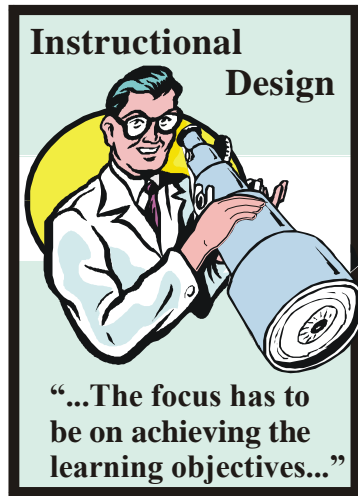
- Aims and objectives
- What's happening vs. what should happen
- Nature and complexity of the desired change
- Task and work procedures
- Skill gaps and root causes of problems, and
- feedback



Aims and objectives

Instructional design

Instructional design is the process of creating learning initiatives and strategies with the aim of bringing about positive changes in the student's performance. It is the design of strategies that ensure all learners' needs are taken into consideration and that as a result they can do what they're expected to do (can demonstrate competence) after completion of their learning task.



An instructional design that is founded on competency-based principles should be employed. It sounds complicated, but all it really means is that quality learning strategies for all manner of subjects - from clear, basic instructions to complex, technical topics - should be developed. The focus

has to be on achieving the learning objectives and to ensure a seamless fit with the students' needs. A variety of media, terms, links to reference materials and other resources is needed.

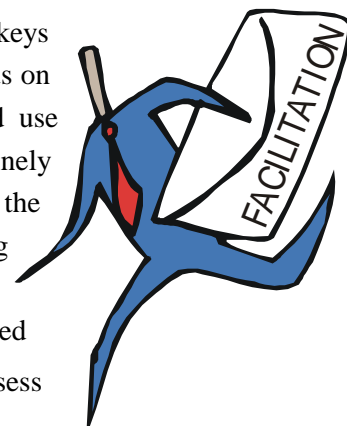
What is a design?

The good design of a learning strategy will assure that:

- The training materials are engaging, relevant, fun and challenging
- The content and style is suitable for the intended audience
- A variety of activities are included
- The overall appearance of the task is well structured and clear

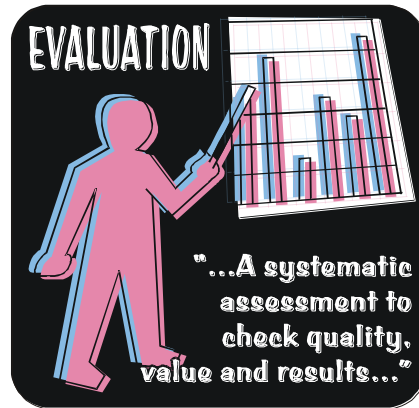
Facilitation

The delivery of a learning strategy is one of the vital keys to its success. Competent teachers and instructors focus on achieving objectives and performance outcomes and use interpersonal and communication skills. They genuinely enjoy what they do, have a solid understanding of the curriculum and course material, and make learning dynamic, interactive and interesting. They draw on years of experience for techniques and activities acquired through their **experiential learning cycle** and they possess secondary and tertiary qualifications in related fields.



Evaluation

Evaluation is a systematic assessment to check quality, value and results of (in this case) a learning strategy. There are several reasons why the results of a learning strategy should be evaluated:



- Clarify immediate and future needs of the students.
- Plan and implement appropriate solutions.
- Decide whether to continue, modify or discontinue a course.
- Confirm how Instructional Design and Facilitation contributed to achieve the learning strategy objectives.

Features of Learning Strategies

Some strategies are effective and efficient, and others are not. Those that are both effective and efficient share characteristics that fall into three categories:

The content of the strategy refers to its steps and what they are designed to facilitate during the learning process. The design features refer to how the steps are packaged to facilitate learning and subsequent use of the strategy. The usefulness feature refers to the

potential transferability of the strategy to everyday needs in a variety of settings. A number of critical features across these dimensions are presented in the following table.

- 1 Content features
- 2 Design features
- 3 Usefulness features

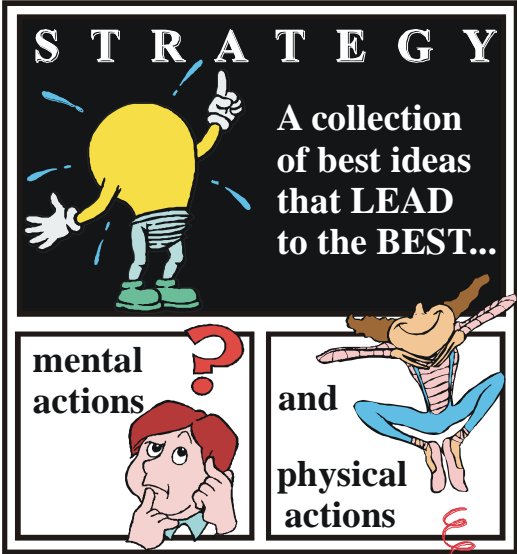
Effective and Efficient Learning Strategies by Edwin S. Ellis and B. Keith Lenz

<u>Features</u>	<u>Characteristics</u>
Content	Lead to a specific and successful outcome. Cue students to use specific cognitive methods. Cue students to use meta-cognition. Cue the students to select and use appropriate procedures, skills and rules. Cue the students to take some type of overt action. Can be performed by the students in a limited amount of time. Are essential and do not include unnecessary steps or explanations.

Design	<p>Activate a memorization process.</p> <p>Use simple and brief wording.</p> <p>Begin with “action words”.</p> <p>Use seven or fewer steps.</p> <p>Use words that are uncomplicated and familiar to students.</p>
Usefulness	<p>Address a common problem that students are encountering in their settings.</p> <p>Address demands that are encountered frequently over an extended time.</p> <p>Can be applied across a variety of settings, situations, and contexts.</p>

Content Features

The content features of the strategy relate to how well the process of meeting a demand has been specified in terms of both mental and physical actions. The critical features



that must be considered generally relate to the extent to which the strategy has incorporated principles of learning and facilitate a more effective and efficient response to meeting a demand. A strategy is not a collection of suggestions and guidelines that result in separate outcomes. A strategy must be a collection of “best” ideas that lead to the “best” mental and physical actions for the task. An effective strategy cues students to use specific cognitive methods. Effective learning strategies are “strategy systems” incorporating many cognitive methods

such as activating background knowledge, generating questions, summarizing, imaging, and so forth. If the strategy does not include cues to use cognitive methods and the instruction does not include explanations related to using the cognitive methods, the strategy is simply a procedure with few strategic qualities.

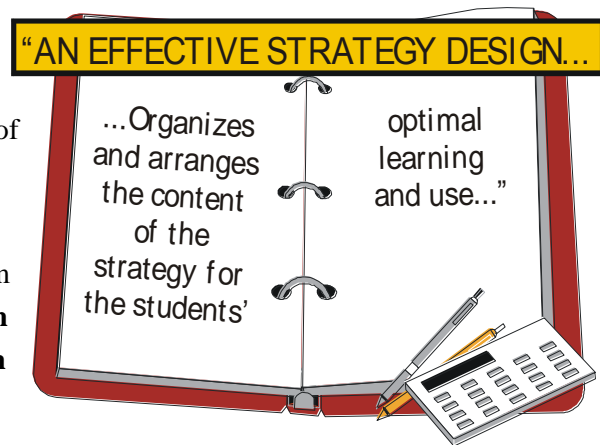
An effective strategy cues students to select and use appropriate procedures, skills, and rules. The strategy should name the appropriate procedure or skill and cue students to employ it at the optimal time during the problem-solving process.

For example, if a paragraph writing strategy cues students to outline their ideas before writing their first draft, then you will need to provide guidance on how to make decisions about what information should be included in the outline. It should guide the students' approach to the task while promoting flexibility that will enable the students to meet unexpected circumstances and situations that may be associated with the task at any given time.

Design Features

The design features of the strategy concern the way the strategy is packaged for presentation to the student. An effective strategy design organizes and arranges the content of the strategy for the student's optimal learning and use. Because the content of the strategy can be quite extensive, the design of the strategy must facilitate a memorization process i.e. it must be organized to facilitate ease of remembering.

The wording of the remembering system should be simple and brief. **An effective strategy does not contain unnecessary words.**



Each step contains only a few action words to facilitate a direct association to the cognitive and physical actions that are necessary to perform the step and that have been presented to the individual already as part of the full explanation of that strategy. The remembering systems of effective strategies generally utilize seven or fewer steps.

The strategy steps are communicated using words that are uncomplicated and familiar to students. Effective strategies are designed so the wording that conveys the strategy steps is readily understandable to students. At times, however, a remembering system employs words that convey powerful actions that may be new to the student and for which no suitable, more familiar words can be substituted without making a strategy step excessively long.

In such cases, instruction in these concepts and language prerequisites should be included during the instructional process.

Usefulness Features

A learning strategy should be useful in enabling students to realize personal goals that are relevant to their needs. The usefulness features generally relate the learning strategy's potential use and transferability across materials, settings, situations, and people. Learning strategies address existing problems that students are encountering in their settings.

Strategies that are useful and whose benefits are apparent immediately tend to help students achieving their objectives in contrast to strategies that seem to have less utility from students' perspectives. Thus, the problem the strategy is designed to address and what students perceive as problems in their environments must match.

In addition, an effective learning strategy requires that students have ample opportunity to experiment with its utility on real problems. Consequently, the more opportunities students have to apply the strategy, the more readily students will perceive its benefits, attribute success to using it, and habitualize its use. Although the strategy has to meet current demands, it should be powerful enough to have long-term utility and benefit for the individual students in the near future as well as into adulthood.

A few sample Learning Strategies

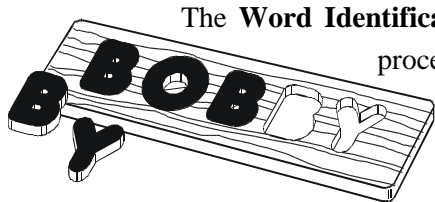
The **Paraphrasing Strategy** directs students to read a limited section of material, discuss the main idea and details of the section, and put that information in their own words. The strategy improves comprehension by focusing attention on the important information of a passage and by stimulating active involvement with the passage.



The **Self-Questioning Strategy** aids reading comprehension by having students actively ask each other questions about key pieces of information in a passage and then read to find the answers for these questions.

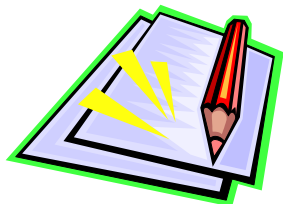
The **Visual Imagery Strategy** improves students' acquisition, storage, and recall of prose material. Students improve reading comprehension by reading a short passage, visualizing the scene, and describing it incorporating actors, action, and details.





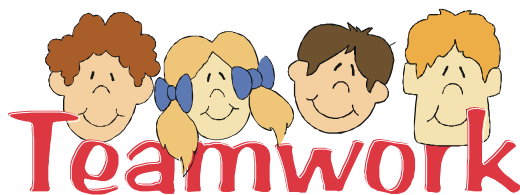
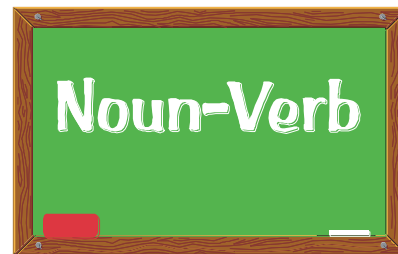
The **Word Identification Strategy** teaches students a problem-solving procedure for quickly decoding new words in reading materials, allowing them to move on quickly for the purpose of comprehending the passage.

The **Error Monitoring Strategy** teaches students to detect and correct errors in their writing. Students have the task of finding errors in paragraph organization, sentence structure, capitalization, overall editing and appearance, punctuation, and spelling by reading each other's work and asking a series of questions. Students correct their errors and rewrite the passage before submitting it to their teacher.



The **Paragraph Writing Strategy** teaches students how to write a well-organized, complete paragraph by outlining ideas, selecting a point-of-view and tense for the paragraph, sequencing ideas, and checking their work.

The **Sentence Writing Strategy** focuses on the fundamental concepts and skills associated with writing simple sentences, starting with concepts such as “subject”, “verb”, “object” and “preposition”. The Sentence Writing Strategy teaches students how to recognize and generate four types of sentences: simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex.



The **Teamwork Strategy** provides a framework for organizing and completing complex projects in small groups. Students learn to analyze an assignment and divide it into tasks, equitably assign tasks, offer and request help to complete jobs, ask for and give feedback to group members, assemble individual jobs into one product, and evaluate the process used to complete the project.

Facets of Learning Strategies

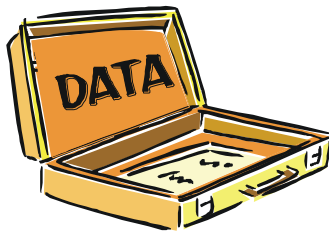
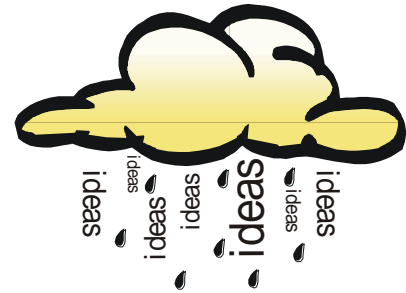


Background Knowledge Probes

Before starting a unit of instruction, take some time to ask students what they already know about the subject. You may be surprised! Their responses will likely reveal misperceptions that you might want to clear up. Or they may tell you that they already know quite a bit about what you're going to teach. In any case, the time is well spent. Both you and your students will be better informed.

Brainstorming

This technique is useful for creative group problem solving. Since the thoughts of one individual may stimulate new directions of thought in others, the group effort is likely to be more productive than the efforts of the individual members separately.

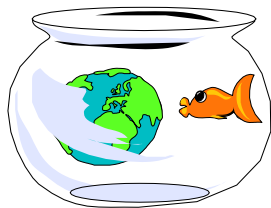


Case Studies

Case studies illustrate general principles through the analysis of a scenario. Students study the scenario background and all relevant data and recommend specific courses of action in response to problems arising out of the scenario.

Debates

Debates encourage the critical exploration of both sides of an issue. One approach is to have students support a viewpoint with which they do not agree.



Fishbowl

A fishbowl is a discussion group divided into two parts: the "inner circle," consisting of four or five people who discuss a topic, and the "outer group," consisting of the rest of the class who observes. The technique is especially useful for observing group process, as the "outer group" can be directed to focus not only on the inner circle's conclusions but also on the dynamics through which the conclusions were reached.

Guided Lecture



A technique designed to help students develop the capability to synthesize lecture material. Describe your objectives for the class session. Then ask students to put their pens and pencils down and listen to a brief lecture (20-30 minutes), attempting to determine major concepts and to remember as much supporting data as possible. At the end of the lecture, have students spend five minutes recording all they can recall. Then divide the class into small groups to reconstruct the lecture. Finally, ask students to present their major concepts of the lecture in narrative form.

Learning Cells

Students prepare for class by generating questions on the major points of a reading assignment. Randomly divide students into pairs at the beginning of class. Students alternately ask questions of each other and provide corrective feedback. A variation: have students read different selections, then teach the essence of the material to a partner.



Learning Contracts

A learning contract supports the development of self-directed learning skills. Have students formulate a plan for further investigation of a topic, problem or issue of personal interest. Students submit a proposal outlining their own learning objectives, a process by which they will accomplish their objectives, and a method by which they will demonstrate their knowledge/skills. Provide comments on the proposal, suggesting modification if necessary, before the students proceed.



Panel Discussions

A group of “experts” presents different perspectives on an issue to the class for a question-and-answer session. The panel can be moderated by you or by a student. The panel might be composed of students who are reacting to a current topic.



Peer Critiquing

Have students critique each other's work. Have students generate a list of criteria that they will use to critique other students' work.



Peer Tutoring

This technique is effective when students who have proven their competence on a subject matter are paired with students who feel less competent.

Role Playing

“Role Playing” is a type of simulation technique in which students may participate as role players or observers. Give students descriptions of a situation and of the characters that they will portray and let them act out the scene. Follow the role-play with an analysis in which role players are encouraged to reflect on how it “felt” to be placed in the role and observers are asked to suggest alternative actions/responses.



Student Presentations

Students present a topic in class that they have researched in depth. Have students come to the podium to present. The other students can interject, presenting alternative viewpoints, questioning the veracity of the presentation, or asking for detailed explanations.

Thinking Aloud Pair Problem Solving

Students work in pairs. One student reads a problem aloud and talks about how he/she is thinking about solving it, while the other listens and tries to clarify what is being said. The process makes students aware of their thought processes as they solve problems, and helps them to see when they are running into blind alleys.



Since the listener must understand which steps the problem solver is taking to solve the problem, active listening skills are enhanced.



Values Clarification

Students explore and express their values on given issues, which are then discussed with the teacher acting as moderator.

5.1 Summary & Exercise

A Learning Strategy is an action taken to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed and transferable to new situations.

The cornerstones of a learning strategy are Learning Needs Analysis, Instructional Design, Facilitation and Evaluation.

- The **Learning Needs Analysis** helps to plan for the future by examining the gap between current results and desired or required results.
- The **Instructional Design** is the process of creating learning initiatives with the aim of bringing about positive changes in performance.
- The **Facilitation** is the teachers' understanding of the material addressed in a learning strategy and their ability to deliver a dynamic learning strategy.
- The **Evaluation** is the systematic assessment and analysis of the results of the application of the learning strategy, which provides for feedback and allows for changes to be made

Effective and efficient learning strategies include following three features:

- **Content** - relates to how well the process of meeting a demand has been specified.
- **Design** - concerns the way the strategy is packaged for presentation to the student.
- **Usefulness** - enables students to realize goals that are relevant to their needs.

Exercise(working in tandem with a colleague, allow 3 hours to discuss the following questions. Write your answers on a separate sheet of paper.)

1. How does the application of a Learning Strategy relate to your teaching technique that is of course based on your lesson plans? Describe when and how you apply a Learning Strategy.
2. When do you plan Learning Strategies and how do you incorporate them into your lesson plans?
3. Provide an example of how some of the “Facets of Learning Strategies” can be used in learning different aspects of English, e.g. grammar, vocabulary, speaking, listening, reading, and writing.
4. How does the application of a Learning Strategy relate to your need as a teacher of “making your students want to learn”?
5. What is the correlation between the application of a Learning Strategy and the principles of Holistic Education?
6. Design a specific Learning Strategy for your students who are having difficulties in focusing on a task or grasping a particular aspect of English.
7. What are the direct and immediate benefits of applying Learning Strategies for you as the teacher?

6. **CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT** *Based on information from: University of Limerick, Ireland*



Preparedness

Be prepared: sounds very obvious and simplistic but good planning will help to avoid many problems in classroom management. As an aspiring teacher, you may think of classroom management as relating solely to questions of discipline and disruptive behavior - there are far more issues involved!

The main focus is on issues relating directly to you as a teacher in the classroom, but we also want to remind you of the importance of preparedness. Here we just give you a taste - but there's enough material in the planning of schemes and lessons to fill more than one book. So just a reminder in this section of the importance of preparedness - putting in the work beforehand, the work you should do besides all the lesson planning.

- **Visit the School**

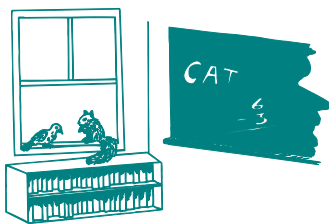
Before teaching practice begins, you should visit 'your' school to learn as much as you possibly can before your first day in the classroom. These early visits are crucial and will help to prepare you for what lies ahead.

Phone the school to make an appointment to see the Principal. It would be a good idea to prepare a list of questions so that you can make the best use of what may be a relatively short meeting with a very busy person! Remember that you will be a new member of the school's teaching staff and that it is up to you to fit in as well as possible.



- **Location**

Teachers often find that their early lesson plans don't work out as they had planned because they haven't seen the classrooms! You'll need to check out 'your' classroom beforehand. You probably won't be able to change much but at least you'll be aware of the advantages and limitations before you give your first class. The layout of classrooms affects your teaching and you need to think about it beforehand!

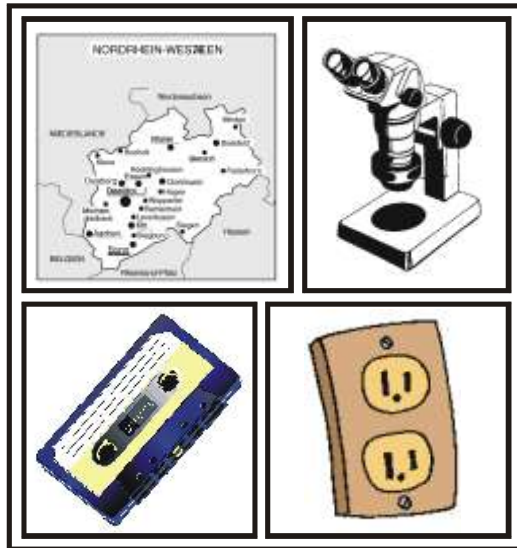


Some key issues to consider in relation to location are:

- Are the seats fixed or movable?
- Which is the best spot for demonstrations?
- What's the noise level from adjoining rooms?
- What is the visibility like at the back of the class for demonstrations or overheads or blackboard / whiteboard work?
- Where can you put up charts, posters, etc?
- How much ease of movement is there between work spaces?
- How will materials be distributed?

• **Equipment**

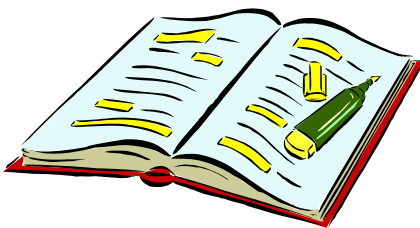
Equipment will be a major element in your classes. What are you going to need in the way of 'props'? You can avoid disasters and chaos in the classroom by



visualizing the lesson in advance and deciding exactly what you'll need, and locating or preparing it in advance. It's no good waiting till the day and then finding that another teacher is using the very thing that you need! Within your own area, you should be able to devise a list of equipment that you will need and then discuss this with the co-operating teacher beforehand, rather than leaving it till the last minute. Equipment checks beforehand are important! You may find that electricity has been partially cut off and that the outlets don't work!

• **Worksheets**

The development of structured worksheets in the form of a class list is exceedingly important - don't expect to rely simply on your memory for student participation and performance assessment! In terms of your memory be prepared for the worst!



Although this Preparedness section is short, you'll find in fact that preparation for teaching a class will take you a long time. Here we're just mentioning some of the issues - the hard work, i.e. lesson planning (see Book I), is elsewhere.

However, you are reminded in this section that preparedness is an essential part of classroom management and that many problems can be pre-empted, or certainly alleviated, by careful planning.

Use the following points as your checklist:

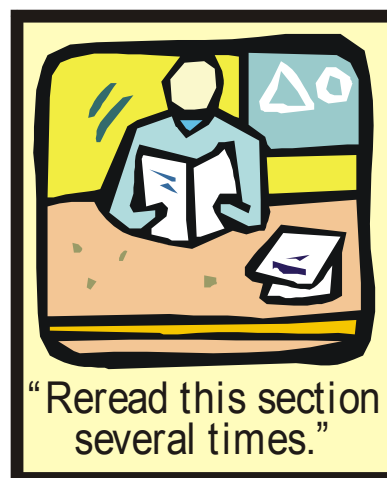
- **Visit the school** - with emphasis on finding out as much as possible, including school organization, staffing, curriculum, resources and contact with co-operating teachers.
- **Location** - part of your school visit should include the classroom that you'll be using so that you can foresee at least some of the problems!
- **Equipment** - you should find out as soon as possible what resources and equipment are available in the school - and therefore what you'll need to prepare and collect yourself.
- **Lesson planning** - here you are reminded of the key issues to be remembered when planning a lesson. Go back to the Lesson Planning section in Book I to see where and how you have to start planning.

Preventive Classroom Management

Prevent problems: sounds easy but in fact, preventive classroom management involves a whole range of skills, including alertness, keeping up the pace, and establishing procedures.

You can't prevent all problems - you will have to learn by experience - but you CAN learn from the experience of other teachers!

Preventive Classroom Management focuses on the different teaching and classroom management skills - and it links closely with Supportive Classroom Management, which concentrates on student-teacher relations.



Don't expect to be able to take in all the aspects in one go - you'll need to reread this section several times! Study each of the topics and take time to consider your ideas for the activities.

- **Start well!**



The beginning of the lesson is crucial - if you are late or flustered, because you've forgotten to check equipment or other resources, the students will probably sense your lack of control. You need every student's attention right from the first moment and this means that your presence must be felt as purposeful and task-oriented, calm and clear! If you want to get the students' attention you are going to have to establish yourself as someone who is in charge, whatever you feel like inwardly!



Set Induction (Warm-up) is the term used for the activities undertaken by the teacher at the start of the lesson. This means that you're inducing a positive mental attitude on the part of students so that they know that you mean business, that you're interested in and enthusiastic about what you're doing - and that you expect them to be as well. You need to establish a focus on the task with the class as a whole - even when you intend to start small group activities almost immediately.

The four purposes of the set induction (warm-up) are:

- Focusing attention on what is to be learned by gaining students' interest.
- Transition from old to new materials - relating back to previous learning.
- Providing a structure for the lesson - telling them what is expected.
- Giving meaning to a new concept or principle by providing examples.

The skill of Set Induction (warm-up) will come in time - and as with so many aspects of teaching, it is closely linked with sound lesson planning. You'll also need to focus on what you hope to achieve in the class and that also comes back to lesson planning with the definition of your aims and lesson objectives.

Remember - the first few minutes of any class are crucial! There are lots of different ways of beginning a class but with all of them you need to gain your students' attention and focus them on the task ahead.

- **Be enthusiastic!**

Observers have found that some teachers appear very deadpan, with little facial expression, or movement - and very little apparent interest in what they are teaching. This may be because they are a little nervous, but you have to remember that part of the job of a professional teacher is that you're on 'stage'.





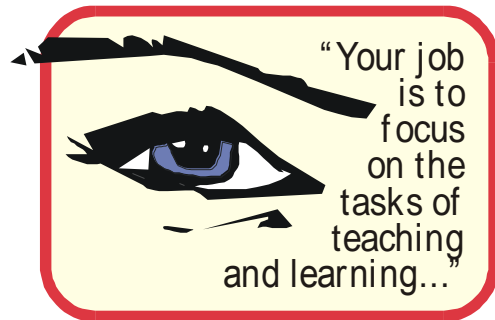
You are all at once a lion tamer, an actor, an entertainer, a clown, a tightrope walker as well as a navigator, an encyclopedia - and sometimes a traffic cop! Be aware not to overact any one of the above roles - each one carries its own inherent risks!

Are you enthusiastic about your subject? If not, how can you possibly elicit any interest from your students? This doesn't mean that you have to equal Anthony Quinn in stage technique but you do need to command attention and show your enthusiasm in your subject - and this is especially important at the start of the lesson.

You need to convey your enthusiasm through a task-focused, positive approach, your subject knowledge and a commitment to student learning. You may not feel 100% enthusiastic every time you walk into a classroom, but you must appear enthusiastic!

- **Be task focused!**

Your job is to focus on the tasks of teaching and learning - maximizing student learning through your different techniques in both class and group activities.



- Use interaction, i.e. present information, ask questions, provide feedback and monitor student work.
- Monitor the entire class during beginning and ending of group activities, as well as at intervals during the activity.
- Make sure that students understand the activities required of them and have the necessary skills and equipment.
- Give clear oral directions on how to do the activity and what to do when finished.
- Be aware of student behavior.
- Provide a variety of group work activity.

It's your job to keep students on task as much as possible - and to make sure that these tasks are worthwhile and enjoyable! If you make it clear that you mean business, that you are not going to be deflected from the task in hand without good reason, students will learn to accept this.

- **Establish procedures!**

If students don't know you, you need to make it clear straight away what you expect. Establishing procedures is crucial. Key procedures you need to establish first - in consultation with your co-operating teacher. But you'll also need to set about establishing the appropriate classroom climate for all the different aspects of a lesson, from the moment you enter the classroom.



- **Establish the appropriate classroom climate!**

If you observe a well managed classroom with an experienced teacher, everything will run smoothly and it may all appear so simple.

When you stand in front of a class yourself, you may find that this doesn't just happen - it's up to you to establish the appropriate classroom climate.

When you are observing an experienced teacher, you may find that procedures aren't even mentioned - students seem to just get on with it! Don't forget that she or he has spent considerable time clearly establishing procedures. You will have to do the same with your students. You need to find out what they are and make it clear to your students exactly what you expect in YOUR classroom.

You need to plan beforehand when and how you are going to implement basic procedures. Even a simple procedure like handing back homework has potential for disruption if you get caught up in explaining a problem to one student while the rest of the students run riot! Keep the procedures to a minimum and keep them simple!

- **Establish your Authority!**

It is important that you are in charge of the classroom, though this doesn't mean that you are the only one who has and provides an opinion! You do need to establish yourself as a figure of authority, though you must decide what that means for you.

The following key points may help you to establish your authority:

- Take up a central position in the room, especially at moments when you require full attention by the whole class.
- Be brisk and firm.
- Frequently scan the classroom.
- Make and hold eye contact with individuals.
- Refer to "my" classroom.
- Project a larger than life version of yourself.
- Resist distracting questions (the latest football results, TV soaps, etc).
- Convey clear expectations.
- Give clear indications of the learning task.
- Be obviously well-prepared!

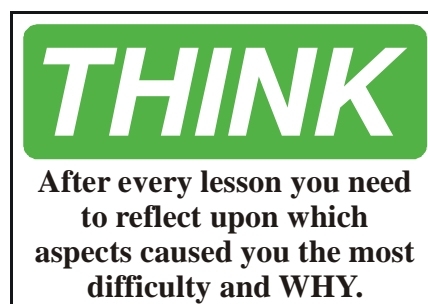


Furthermore, you should control entry and exit of the class, arrange seating, and control movement during the lesson. This may seem a very tall order at first - that YOU are in charge of the class and that YOU must take control - but you will get used to it, and you will soon find out what works - and what doesn't work for you!

- **Improve your teaching skills!**

The establishment of a strong presence and appropriate procedures, enthusiasm and focus on tasks are essential in classroom management. However, they are of little value when you neglect teaching skills.

You have to be able to teach your subject, too! If you ignore teaching skills, you will have problems! After every lesson you do need to reflect upon which aspects caused you most difficulty and why (review Experiential Learning Cycle, page 8).



No matter how enthusiastic and well motivated you are, you cannot teach effectively without a range of instructional skills. Plan to improve your skills every day and get active - complacency is probably the greatest enemy to improvement!

Working constantly on improving your teaching skills has other great benefits:

- You won't fall into a monotonous and predictable routine.
- You will have an open mind for new teaching techniques and apply them.
- Your students will appreciate your knowledgeable and lively teaching style!

- **Be alert!**

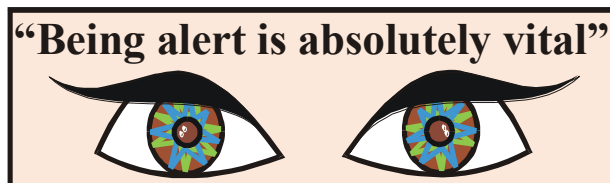
One of the most important skills that you need to develop is to be alert - to know exactly what's going on at all times everywhere in your classroom! Keen observation is crucial for the maintenance of a task-focused learning atmosphere.



You have or must develop the skill that enables you to know exactly what's happening, even when you appear not to be watching. The skill of being alert is absolutely essential! It means positioning yourself in such a way that you can see the whole class, no matter where you are.

Take the following points into consideration:

- Planning - make sure that you have provided worthwhile tasks for all students.
- Preparing - make it clear to students exactly what you expect of them.
- Anticipating - be aware of students who find it hard to concentrate.
- Seeing where students need help - make suggestions without spending too much time on individual students.
- Scanning - make a point of scanning the full class often.
- Alerting - a look, a stare, or calling a student's name shows that you are aware of what's going on.
- Dividing up your time - move around the class from group to group.
- Sensing - be aware of the mood of the class.

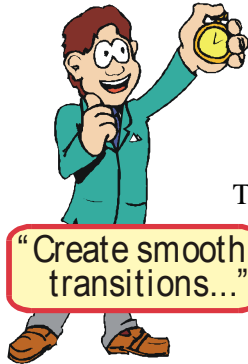


You need to consider all the different issues of classroom management! It means being permanently alert to what's going on around you and

making decisions about changes to your lesson while at the same time being involved in the lesson itself. Over a thousand interpersonal exchanges a day typically take place between a teacher and the students in his or her care. Being alert is absolutely vital. You need to know what's going on in **YOUR** classroom!

- **Keep up the pace!**

Keep up the pace of the lesson if you want to maintain the interest of your students.



The main aspect you need to consider in your planning in order to keep up the momentum of the lesson is how you're going to create smooth transitions between different parts of the lesson.

Transitions may sound rather technical but you need to think about them because it is at these times that you can have difficulties in classroom management. If you learn how to handle transitions, you're more than halfway there!

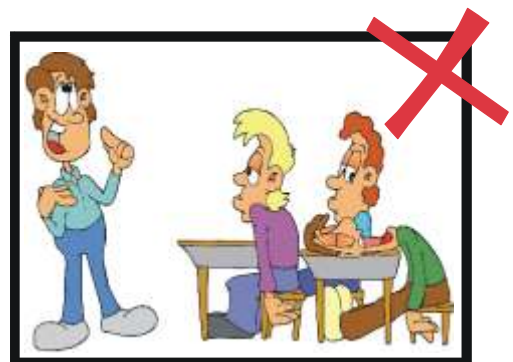
Plan transitions beforehand, particularly when the class activities are complex. Just think of the transition from an open forum question and answer session to a learning center group-work session that involves dividing the class into groups, rearranging the seating, and the students' selection of material and equipment. Get the picture?

Smooth transitions require careful planning beforehand and monitoring during the lesson to ensure that it goes smoothly without interrupting the flow of the lesson. They require skills, which don't come automatically but which need to be developed.

- **Prevent Boredom!**

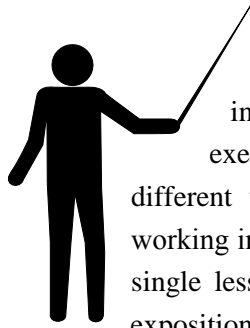
Some repetitive practices may be necessary in class. But you have to introduce tasks, which provide challenge. It is important to vary the stimulus - it helps to maintain student attention and to prevent boredom.

An excellent stimulus that prevents boredom is the learning-while-teaching activity of the students. It has the added benefit of the highest knowledge retention of all forms of knowledge acquisition, namely a proven 95% of all conveyed knowledge on the part of the students who do the teaching.



Introduce tasks which provide challenge!

Consequently, let your students demonstrate their knowledge! Let them explain a concept to the class, instruct a group on a project, describe their own experience, draw or write on the board, undertake individual or group written work, involve other students in exercise routines, use source materials to provide evidence of different viewpoints, etc. You could also think in terms of students working in pairs, groups, and class learning. This doesn't mean that every single lesson has to be different and that there is no room for teacher exposition with students listening - but apply "lecturing" sparingly.



- **Challenge!**

Your job as a teacher is to encourage your students to question the knowledge you convey and to consider the implications, i.e. applicability in real life of what they are learning. Consider the different levels of cognitive objectives from low to high when wanting to present a challenge to your students:

Low	Recall -yes/no- one correct answer
Low	Comprehension - need to think about what they recall - for example, "Explain the similarities and differences between... and ...?"
Medium	Application -applying a new skill to a new project
Medium	Analysis - for example "Why?" Questions
High	Synthesis - "How can we improve...?" "What if...?"
High	Evaluation - ask them to give reasons for their judgements

It's important to include questions, which are demanding, which encourage students to think about the purpose of what they are doing. You need to develop the skill of providing as much challenge as you can.

- **Manage your time!**

Keep an eye on your timing during the course of the lesson. If you don't keep an eye on time, you'll find that you're overtaken by the bell.



You can't go back to the beginning and start again. Maybe your students needed you to spend extra time going over an example, or repeating it. So, don't kill yourself if you misjudge the time.

"The time to adapt is during the lesson -not during the last 60 seconds."

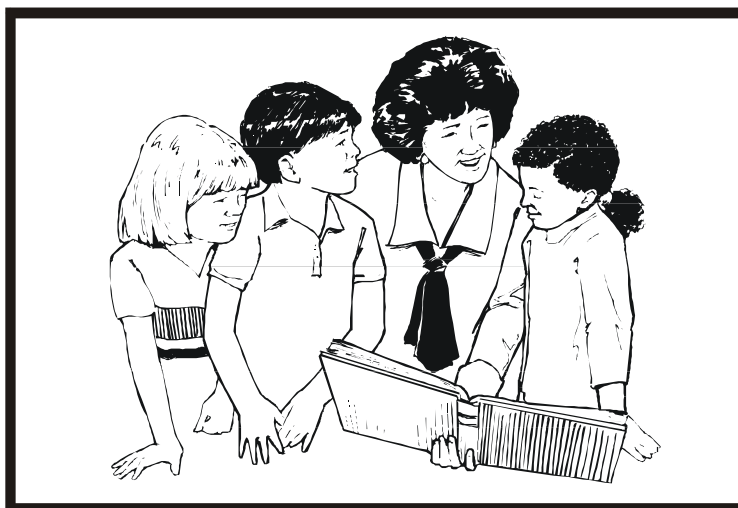
Once you've realized that the time is short, take a moment to review the options. You may decide to cut short the activity, even though everyone hasn't finished and bring the group together in a whole class situation to review what has been done.

If you do this, you might have to give the students a chance to revisit the activity in the next lesson. Or you may decide not to go on to a new topic, but to give the students an activity, which will revise the topic just covered. You may do a question and answer session to check out what has been learned - and then decide.

You have lots of choices - the important thing is to be aware early on that you won't get everything done - and make your decisions on the spot. Decide beforehand if it is essential to give out homework and whether your students will be able to do the homework if the lesson didn't go according to plan! The time to adapt is during the lesson - not during the last 60 seconds!

Supportive Classroom Management

Provide support for students: the relationship between teacher and student is crucial in fostering a positive learning environment. Your attitude towards students will have a major impact on your classroom atmosphere.



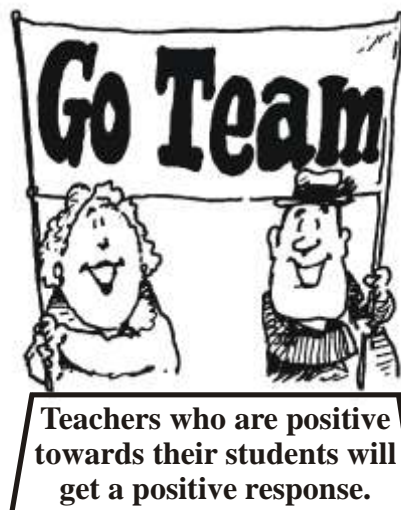
Supportive Classroom Management focuses on developing and maintaining positive student-teacher relations. It is the other side of the coin to Preventive Classroom Management, which concentrates on teacher skills, though both sections are inseparably linked.

Teaching is a profession where your values and beliefs will impinge on how you behave in the classroom in your interactions with students. You have choices - no one can dictate to you how you interact with your students - but you do need to consider how this will affect them and their learning.

- **Be positive and encouraging!**

A positive classroom climate is crucial for effective teaching and learning - and this depends on the interactions between you and your students, with you as the leader! An “incorporative” climate of participation and interpersonal relationships is very important.

Research has shown that students consistently prefer teachers who are firm, friendly and fair, who are interested in them, and who have a sense of humor.



You have to establish and maintain your authority and show that you are in charge. It is difficult to be warm, yet firm and friendly, and at the same time in charge, but as you get to know your students this becomes easier. A positive approach is one that you should continue to maintain throughout your teaching career.

It is a fine balance between showing your students that learning can be fun and making it clear that you are as task focused, as they should be! You have to be firm and friendly at the same time, though this may seem impossible at first!

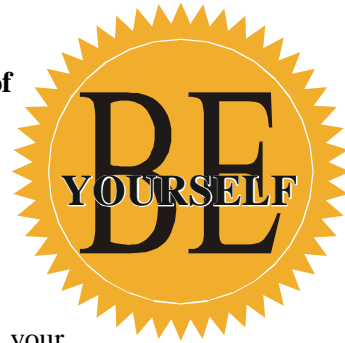
Go Team!!!

- **Be genuine!**

Your personality will come across. While you have to project yourself, you must also BE yourself.

Three personal qualities are crucial in the building of relationships:

- **Genuineness** - you may not always wish to display your feelings but if you don't care about the welfare of your students, you should forget about being a teacher.
- **Empathy** - you need to be able to put yourself in your students' shoes so that you can see the classroom from their point of view.
- **Acceptance** - be tolerant of your students, their idiosyncrasies, and their foibles.



- **Respect Your Students**

When you think of the word “respect” in relation to the classroom, the first thing that probably springs to mind is respect for you as the teacher - and this is important. But the question of respect for your students, less often mentioned, is equally if not more important and equally challenging.

- **Be friendly...**

Students value qualities such as “businesslike”, “explains difficult things well” and “teacher friendliness”. Strict teachers are respected, provided they are fair, consistent and capable of explaining material and teaching it effectively. It isn't easy to maintain a happy medium between firm and friendly.

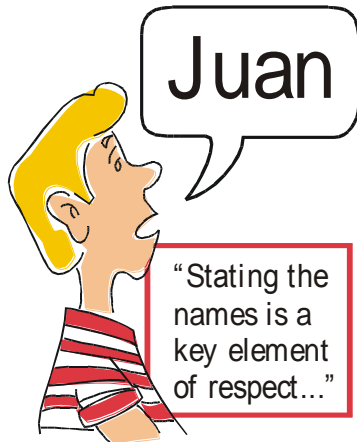
In this respect, it will be wise to remember that you are not your students' friend and that you should never even try to be their friend! If you have any doubts about this, take a moment and write down all the qualities of what it means to you to be a friend and what qualities you expect in a friend.



Then compare all these qualities to your role as a teacher as well as to your students. There isn't any comparison, is there? Just continue working to keep both sides of the firm/friendly approach going.

- **Know your students' names!**

Knowing your students' names makes a huge difference in terms of establishing positive relationships and of establishing your own authority. Stating the names is also a key element of showing respect for your students. It is well worthwhile



spending some time in getting to know and remembering names. Even if you do make mistakes at first, students will respect that you are making an effort.

To help you in the first instance of the “name game”, ask your students to give you their name when they answer a question and then repeat the student’s name that has just been given to you. Also looking at your students when taking a roll call helps to establish their names in your memory. With younger students you may want to give them stickers for the first couple of weeks.

- **Know your students!**

Knowing your students well has a very positive effect on student learning. Getting to know your students, even at a relatively superficial level, is an important part of your work as a teacher. Exchange a few words with one or two students during break or lunch time, chat for a little while to find out what is important to them.



Don't try to be their “friend”, or pretend to be “one of the gang” but show an interest. It is not an artificial exercise because there's no point in being a teacher unless you are also interested in your students as people, as human beings whose real life takes place outside the classroom and school. The more you get to know them and find out what interests them, the more rewarding you'll find teaching. Getting to know students outside the classroom helps enormously in classroom management.

- **Listen to your students!**

Listening to your students is hugely important – it's no good to know how to question your students well if you never listen to them!

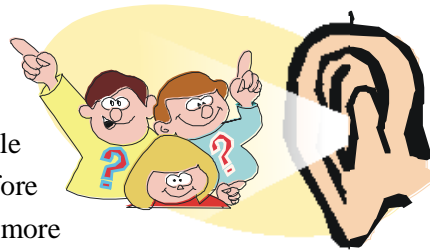
Listen to students' answers



You have to listen to your students to relate what they know to what they have understood. Questioning is not just to interact with students and prevent them from being passive and bored. Good questioning enables you to ascertain student problems and difficulties with learning. You need to listen very carefully so that you can see what students don't understand. In order to listen carefully you need to be reasonably relaxed and **concentrate on the students and not on yourself.**

- **Listen to students' questions**

Questions that students pose will give you insights into their learning difficulties - AND into areas where you need to improve your teaching skills. You need to ask students to give their responses to relatively simple issues during the course of the lesson before you can expect them to participate in more demanding questions.



You need to work on your and their questioning skills to maximize student response. You need to listen to student questions and call on individuals, both volunteers and non-volunteers, to maximize student participation. You need to encourage students to formulate their own questions defined in their own words, and value their responses and treat them with respect. But this doesn't mean you have to accept every answer as correct!

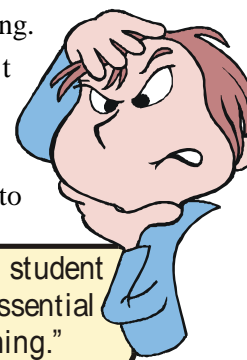
- **Listen to students' opinions**

Students have a strong sense of justice and if they feel that their opinions are dismissed, that you ignore their point of view and don't give them a chance to clarify a situation where they feel misunderstood, then this will certainly affect the relationship between you and them. Although it is often much easier to make decisions yourself about the rights and wrongs of a situation, rather than asking the students themselves, you have to be aware that they do have a point of view and that ignoring this will upset the relationship.



- **Be aware of your students' problems!**

Being aware of student difficulties is essential to good teaching. Otherwise you may go too fast and find that students can't keep up with you. You need to be alert and concentrate on the students - and not on yourself! You need to keep a close eye on the students to learn what they are finding difficult to comprehend - and then decide what you need to change.



"Being aware of student difficulties is essential to good teaching."

You need to check constantly that students do understand. Formulate some questions, which will help you and the students to be aware of specific difficulties, and then help them relating to these difficulties. If you do this regularly, students will begin to realize that you DO care whether they understand or not, and that you will treat their learning difficulties with respect. Then they will start to tell you themselves, without having to be prompted. It will take time for your students to tell you their difficulties - but at first it is your job to work at finding out!

- **Use your voice!**

Your voice is one of your greatest assets - you can use it to convey enthusiasm, warmth, task-focus, encouragement, approval and disapproval - a huge range of messages. You don't want to use your voice all the time, but it is crucial to your job as a teacher - so make the best of it.



It is important for you to be aware of your voice and to work on making it more expressive. You have a particular kind of voice, a particular accent, a particular way of speaking - and that is part of your personality. Some of the aspects of using your voice you might consider are relaxed sound, variation in tone, emphasis on key words, warmth, clarity and pitch. Become aware of any mannerisms you have - expressions which you tend to repeat over and over - such as "OK", "all right", "yeah", and "like" in the middle of a sentence. Don't try to change your accent or your way of talking but work on making your voice and manner of speaking more expressive. It is one of the ways in which you show your enthusiasm - make sure that your voice isn't dull and monotonous and that your expressions aren't repetitive!

- **Use non-verbal communication!**

You are conveying messages to your students from the moment you enter the room - without saying a word! You use all kinds of non-verbal communication to convey messages - your stance, your hands, a smile, a nod. You don't simply rely on your voice to communicate to students - you use your whole body! Non-verbal communication is very powerful!

You may find it easy to use it deliberately to convey certain messages. So, be aware of the three types of non-verbal communication proxemics, kinetics and oculosics and create the impression that you want to give - one of confidence, task focus and enthusiasm!



“Use your whole body to communicate...”

- **Proxemics**

Proxemics refers simply to the space between people - think of proximity - very important in a classroom. Use the space and don't get stuck behind your desk. Don't be afraid to make a deliberate effort to go to the very back of the class, while you are explaining something.



“...The space between people.”

This will get you closer to your students, will give you a chance to see what your board work looks like from a distance and will convey the message that you are in charge of the class.

- **Kinetics**

Kinetics refers to communication by body movement - the opposite of standing stiff as a poker! Use gestures - particularly hand and arm movements - to communicate your enthusiasm and interest. To do this well, you need to be alert and relaxed - at the same time! Ask someone else to observe you in action and tell you honestly how you come across.



Overdone gestures can be painful and be detrimental to your message of enthusiasm! A critical friend can alert you to mannerisms that you were unaware of and that distracted your students.

■ **Oculesics**

Oculesics is eye contact - an important part of classroom management. Don't be afraid to pause and look around the class, making sure that you make eye contact with different students as you do so. Remember the importance of constant scanning of the entire class. This is a habit to cultivate. What you convey by your eye contact is very important. Don't forget that you are communicating all the time, whether you are speaking or not!



• **Respond & Give Feedback to your Students!**

We learn best when we are given feedback on our progress, so that we can find out how well we have done and what we can do to improve. Part of your job as a teacher will be to give feedback to students as a group and individually.

You may know from studying operant conditioning that feedback is a form of reinforcement, which can help to strengthen appropriate responses.

You may provide feedback verbally (praise, encouragement, further prompting and probing), non-verbally (a nod, a smile, facial expression - for example amazement at an inappropriate response), by explanation (e.g. showing a student the consequences of inaccurate word order), in written form as a comment to homework, written work, and exams, and as practical feedback by demonstrating a task again, with emphasis on a particular aspect needing improvement.



Feedback can be both formal and informal - linked to assessment or simply as a verbal or non-verbal indication to students on how they are progressing.

6.1 Summary & Exercise

Preparedness deals with the work that establishes your basis for good classroom management, namely visiting ‘your’ school to learn as much as you can about it before the first day of class, checking out location and condition of ‘your’ classroom, determining what equipment you need and checking its proper function. Last but not least it involves designing the worksheets for your class lists and selecting the criteria according to which you will perform your student assessment.

Preventive Classroom Management and Supportive Classroom Management are like two sides of a coin, with the need to establish yourself and your procedures becoming “humanized”.

Preventive Classroom Management deals with the key issue of establishing yourself as a well-organized and enthusiastic teacher and as the figure of authority, who earns authority by being alert and task-focused and improving teaching skills every day.

Supportive Classroom Management deals with the way in which you should interact with your students as a helpful, supportive advisor and counsel. You should see your students as human beings, and should become aware of their learning needs.

Exercise (allow 4 hours to do all the tasks and answer all the following questions):

1. Why is it important to be prepared for your first day of class?

2. Recall your very first day of teaching: Were you prepared? What worked well? What went wrong? Define the high point and low point.

3. How do you earn (establish) your authority in the classroom every day? Who gives you the authority over your class when you earn it?

4. What is the direct advantage of earning your authority over applying given authority for you as a teacher in regard to classroom management?

5. Examine the teaching (stage) roles on page 65. What roles can you recall of having played as a teacher? What other roles have you adopted?

6. Make a list (on a separate sheet) of some forms of non-verbal communication that you may use in the classroom. Divide the list into positive and negative messages.
7. Why is it important not to become a friend to your students? How do you keep the balance of a firm and friendly attitude?

8. How do you provide positive feedback?

7. EVALUATION

Based on information from: University of Saskatchewan, Canada

Two fundamental questions are at the root of the evaluation process:

- 1. How well are the students learning?**
- 2. How effectively is the teacher teaching?**



These two questions imply that teachers have to respond to the concerns about better learning and effective teaching. Conservative educationalists may still insist that learning is only a matter of student discipline, i.e. students submitting to the teacher's authority and learning to recall book knowledge. But it has been recognized in various countries, i.e. Finland, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and Ireland, where students are encouraged to learn according to their needs and not according to the teachers' or curriculum's demands, that good learning starts and ends with good teaching. Students becoming effective, self-directed learners is the paramount goal of good teaching.

For these reasons, the process of testing, assessing, examining, and evaluating the students' learning progress has to start and end with the teacher's appraisal of his or her own performance. Without a critical assessment of your own performance, you will rarely if ever be in a position to evaluate your students' learning progress accurately and fairly.

“Teachers have the responsibility to review their effectiveness and seek improvements as part of a continuing process of their professional development.”

Appraisal

Self-appraisal is a reflective process of the teacher upon his or her own work. It is conducted largely to ensure that you employ the proper standards of practice in response to your students' needs and learning objectives.

1. Self-appraisal should be reflective of the knowledge and skills you are expected to master as a minimum requirement for responsible independent practice.
2. Self-appraisal should be reflective of your professional disposition, i.e. it should increase the probability of you improving your capabilities.
3. Self-appraisal should be reliable and valid in as far as proving to yourself that you are adequately prepared for responsible independent practice or that you are not. In the latter case, it should provide evidence in which areas and to what extent you need to improve to become adequately prepared for responsible independent practice.

The Three Dimensions of You as a Teacher

Important conceptual distinctions of your self-appraisal concern three aspects or dimensions of your quality as a teacher. Distinguish between your:

Competence

The extent to which you possess the knowledge and skills defined as necessary qualifications to teach.

Performance

The way in which you perform your teaching.

Effectiveness

The degree to which you achieve the desired learning effects upon your students.



These dimensions influence the type of evidence you gather to assess the results of your self-appraisal. Assessing your competence involves a test of your knowledge, your performance involves a reflection of your students' responses and participation, and your effectiveness involves reviewing your students' progress toward a defined educational goal, an objective.

The Validity of Your Self-Appraisal

Establishing the validity of your self-appraisal involves a conclusion on the basis of evidence and reasoning of observable parts and an unobservable whole that is implicit in the purpose and intent of the self-appraisal.

It means that although numeric values of students' test or exam results form a basis for your self-appraisal, it is the students' achievement of their individual learning objectives that is equally if not more important in establishing the validity of your self-appraisal.



Systematic Appraisal

A systematic appraisal of the results of your educational practices includes elements of the measuring approach and the interpretive approach. Rather than focusing on single test or exam score or the pure interpretation of performance, your self-appraisal should reflect your classroom observations based upon form and content of each aspect of the students' learning process.

A systematic evaluation can be achieved by assessing your students' performance on a continuous basis **while you are teaching** (see 'Assessment' below). This is neither time-consuming nor distracting, if you use a class list in the form of a worksheet with columns for student names, participation, homework, proficiency, and other assessment criteria you wish to enter. The worksheet provides two lines per student to enter



symbols or work-values concerning form and content, respectively. Form refers to the use of proper English, for example. Content refers to the students' recognition of and response to specific subject matter regardless of the correct form of the response.

Enter symbols or work-values reflective of the respective students' answers, statements or performance in the appropriate columns, and at the end of the lesson you may assess at a glance how well the students as a group performed. Although the symbols, e.g. '+' or '-', or work-values, e.g. 'A', 'B', 'C', etc, refer to the individual students' performance, when seen as a whole, they reflect the success or, for that matter, failure of the class and thus by implication your performance as a teacher.

A clearer picture of your performance as a teacher will yet emerge when you enter actual performance values in each column for each student based on your symbols or work-values, and you summarize the values of a number of lessons, e.g. those of a module.

Thereby you achieve two things at once, namely:

- A feedback on a student by student basis of how well they progressed individually over an extended period of time, and
- A wash-back of information of the class as a whole that will permit an analysis of your performance that results in a comprehensive, reliable and valid self-appraisal.

Self-appraisal places emphasis on the following two requirements:

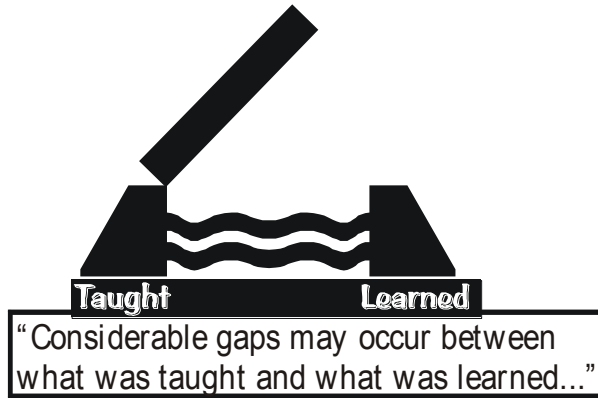
- Teachers have to become systematic observers sensitive to the learning process as it takes place in their classrooms.
- Teachers have to become more self-critical of their teaching.

Classrooms can be viewed as laboratories for the study of a mutual teaching/learning experience. This view will help to develop an understanding of learning and the impact of teaching upon it.

Before You Begin Evaluation...

If you simply assume that your students are learning what they are taught, you will be regularly faced with disappointing evidence to the contrary when you grade homework, tests, exams and learning statements. Too often, students do not learn as much or as well as is expected. Considerable gaps may occur between what was taught and what has been learned. By the time you notice these gaps in knowledge or understanding, it

may well be too late to remedy the situation.



To avoid such unhappy surprises, you need better ways to monitor the students' learning progress throughout the academic year. You need a continuous flow of accurate information on student learning.

Instruction in EFL should be cognitively complex, i.e. it should be a form of instruction that encourages students to use analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. This form of instruction must be linked to equally complex forms of assessment, so that the students' progress in language acquisition and their ability of applying the acquired language may be evaluated fairly and accurately.

First of all a teacher needs to know whether all students are really starting off on the same foot. Because an EFL student does speak a language other than English at home, **teachers who are assessing** have to establish:

- a) the student's language proficiency in his or her native tongue and in English, and
- b) the student's knowledge of academic content or life experience gained.

This is crucially important for the student's appropriate placing, which results in students, in any given class, starting off on the same foot. The appropriate placing of students is crucial for the successful outcome of any form of EFL instructions. As the course proceeds, the teacher needs to check whether the students are achieving the objectives of all intermediate points. Consequently, it is not enough to test students when the syllabus has arrived at a particular point to ensure high-quality learning.

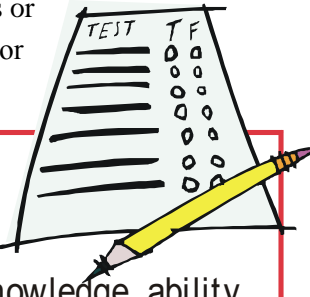


The evaluation of the students' learning progress is an ongoing process during every lesson throughout the academic year to monitor how well students started out and what they have learned at all intermediate points of the course. This will provide the required information for improvement when learning is not quite satisfactory.

Tests and Examinations

Tests are widely used in education. Tests are often confused with examinations or claimed to be the same thing. The first question to be answered should therefore be, "What is the difference between a test and an examination?"

Within the context of EFL, a **test** should be a series of questions or practical tasks to gauge a student's knowledge, ability, or experience in a **specific area**, i.e. it should be the discrete point testing of narrow, specific topics of English. By contrast, an **examination** within the context of EFL should be an exercise designed to examine the students' **depth of knowledge** of English.



"A test should be a series of questions or practical tasks to gauge a student's knowledge, ability or experience in a specific area..."

Simply put, a test serves to answer the questions if the students have understood a particular facet of the language and if they apply the specific knowledge correctly. An examination should establish beyond a reasonable doubt, if and to what degree the students can apply the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in English.

The Criterion for Establishing a Test

A test can have many forms. For example, it could be a Cloze test (fill in the missing word), select the proper words from a menu of words, correct the sentences, provide examples of the application of the topic, or conjugate verbs or form a noun, pronoun or adjective according to case, number or gender. The possibilities are numerous. However, you should ask yourself the following questions before applying a test:

- a) What is the purpose of the test?
- b) Does it represent direct or indirect testing (or a mixture of both)?
- c) Are the items discrete point or integrative (or a mixture of both)?
- d) Which items are objective, and which are subjective? Can you order the subjective items according to degree of subjectivity?
- e) Does the test measure communicative abilities?



The purpose of a test should always be within its narrow application of your students having understood and correctly applied a specific aspect of the language. As a result of a test you should be able to decide, if you can move on to the next topic within the broader context of the lesson or module or if you need to repeat the topic in question.

Multiple choice, true or false, or fill-in-the-blank tests (formative tests) usually test only basic factual recall. **Such tests should be used as little as possible** and fewer “marks” should be awarded them in comparison with those items that require more complex abilities. Tests based on multiple choice questions, which test higher levels of abilities than recall, can be constructed, but the process of construction is long and difficult.

The Criterion for Establishing an Examination

The following details show which criteria should be applied when examining your students’ knowledge of and facility to apply one, a combination of, or all four skills of the English language. The four skills are divided into the so-called ‘non-productive’ skills (listening and reading) and ‘productive’ skills (writing and speaking).



a) Listening

This should be an examination of listening comprehension in the context of general language proficiency. The exam should be concerned with social needs, as well as with situations related to educational or training contexts. An exam should include both monologues and dialogues between two or three people.



b) Reading

The reading examination should consist of texts of general interest dealing with issues, which are appropriate for, and accessible to students of their respective course levels. The exam should also draw on social and training contexts and deal with general interest topics within this context.



c) Writing

The writing examination should consist of short essays or general reports. The exam should require students to write semi-formal or formal correspondence, or to write on a given topic as part of a simulated class assignment.



d) Speaking

The speaking examination can be administered in the form of an interview with an emphasis on general speaking skills. It assesses whether the students have the necessary knowledge and skills to communicate effectively with native speakers of English.

The examination should include an introduction, an extended discourse on some familiar topic, a phase where candidates are given a task card and encouraged to take the initiative and ask questions to elicit information; speculate about and discuss future plans, and a conclusion.

Assessment

Assessment should always take place in the classroom. Its purpose is to help teachers find out what students are learning and how well they are learning it. It is a form of gathering information that ultimately permits an evaluation or passing a judgement. Assessment differs from tests and examinations in so far that it is applied on an on-going basis in a mostly non-formal form. In other words, assessment is reflective of the teacher's powers of observation and skills of listening to the students. An assessment has the following characteristics:

a) Learner-Centered

The learner-centered assessment focuses attention on observing and improving learning, rather than observing and improving teaching. It provides information to guide you and your students in making adjustments to improve learning.



b) Teacher-Directed

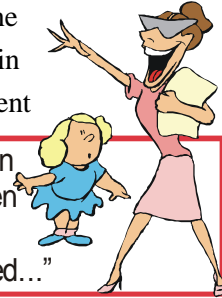
The teacher directed assessment respects your autonomy, academic freedom, and professional judgement as a teacher. You decide what to assess, how to assess it, and how to respond to the information gained through the assessment. Also, you are not obliged to share the results with anyone outside the classroom.



c) Mutually Beneficial

Because it is focused on learning, assessment requires the active participation of your students. By co-operating in assessment, students reinforce their grasp of the course content and strengthen their own skills at self-assessment. Their motivation is increased when they realize that you are interested and have invested in their success as learners.

“Their motivation is increased when they realize that you are interested...”



You also sharpen your teaching focus by continually asking yourself three questions:

- ? “What are the essential skills and knowledge I am trying to teach?”
- ? “How can I find out whether students are learning them?”
- ? “How can I help students learn better?”

As you work closely with your students to answer these questions, you improve your teaching skills and gain new insights.

e) Formative

The purpose of assessment is to improve the quality of student learning.

f) Context-Specific

Assessment has to respond to the particular needs and characteristics of the students and the disciplines to which they are applied.

g) Ongoing

Assessment is an ongoing process, best thought of as creation and maintenance of a classroom “feedback loop”: you get feedback from students on their learning and you provide your students with feedback on the results of the assessment.

f) Rooted in Good Teaching Practice

Assessment builds on existing good practice by making feedback on students’ learning more systematic, more flexible, and more effective. It provides a way to integrate assessment systematically and seamlessly into the traditional classroom teaching and learning process.

Assessment is based on Seven Assumptions:

1. The quality of learning is directly related to the quality of teaching. Therefore, one of the most promising ways to improve learning is to improve teaching.
2. To improve your teaching, you need to make your goals and objectives explicit and to get specific feedback from your students on the extent to which they are achieving those goals and objectives.
3. To improve their learning, your students need to receive appropriate and focused feedback early and often; they also need to learn how to assess their own learning.
4. The type of assessment that answers questions you have formulated in response to issues or problems in your teaching is most likely to improve teaching and learning.
5. Systematic inquiry and intellectual challenge are powerful sources of motivation, growth, and renewal, and assessment in the classroom can pinpoint such challenge.
6. Assessment in the classroom does not require specialized training.
7. By actively involving your students in assessment efforts, you and your students enhance learning and personal satisfaction.



Evaluation

Much research in education around the world is currently focusing on student evaluation. It has become clear, as more and more research findings accumulate, that a broader range of attributes needs to be assessed and evaluated than has been considered in the past. A wide variety of ways of doing this are suggested. Assessment and evaluation are best addressed from the viewpoint of selecting what appears most valid in allowing students to show what they have learned (see 'Examinations' above).



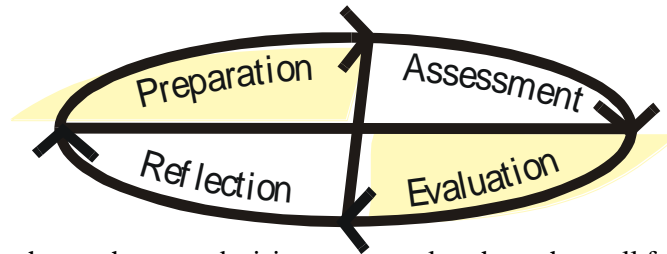
"Much research in education around the world is currently focusing on student evaluation..."

Student evaluation focuses on the collection and interpretation of data, which would indicate student progress. In combination with teacher self-appraisal, it provides a full evaluation.

Phases of Evaluation

Evaluation can be viewed as a cyclical process including four phases:

- Preparation
- Assessment
- Evaluation
- Reflection



Evaluation involves the teacher as a decision-maker throughout all four phases.

- **Preparation** - decisions are made which identify what is to be evaluated, the type of tests (formative, summative, or diagnostic) to be used, the criteria against which student learning outcomes will be judged, and assessment criteria on student progress. Decisions made during this phase form the basis for the remaining phases.
- **Assessment** - worksheets are designed or selected, criteria designated, assessment administered during class, and information on student learning progress is collected.
- **Evaluation** - the information gathered during assessment as well as test and exam results are used to pass judgements about student progress. Based on the evaluations, decisions about student learning programs are made and reported to students, parents, and school personnel.
- **Reflection** - allows you to ponder the success or shortfall of the evaluated lesson, module or course. Specifically, you should contemplate questions that encourage reflection on student assessment, your teaching, and the structure of the curriculum.

Grading your Evaluations

Report card grades based on your evaluation are an important part of communication among you and your students. Grades have two basic purposes: to reflect student accomplishments and to motivate students. But grades are extrinsic motivation not derived from self-determined criteria, as in learning out of interest and self-created goals. Grades can be a disincentive because somebody always loses, and a portion of the class is made to feel inept.

This applies particularly to teachers in traditional educational environments who do or have to consider factors other than achievement or growth in determining grades, such as perceived level of effort, attitude, ability, behavior, and even attendance. Two problems are evident in considering factors other than growth or achievement in assigning grades. First, the intermingling of achievement with other factors has a

negative effect because students receive a confusing message on their accomplishment, i.e. “Poor level of English but attended class regularly = Pass”, “Excellent level of English but didn’t attend a couple of classes = Fail”. The second problem is in the extreme variation in grading from teacher to teacher.

Despite the problems with grading practices, grades can be useful if they are based on authentic assessments and are assigned following certain guidelines. Grades are requested regularly by students as a guide to their performance and are useful as an overall indicator of student achievement. When combined with illustrative samples of student work, grades can provide a comprehensive picture of student growth and achievement.

Recommendations in grading of student performance based on authentic assessment are as follows:



Assign scores to individual student achievement or growth based on a standard of achievement to reflect mastery of classroom objectives.



Assign weights to different aspects of student performance as reflected in class assignments (e.g. projects, reports, and participation).



Multiply each rating by the weight and summarize the ratings of scores on individual papers or performances to obtain an overall numeric score.



Be consistent in regard to the interpretation of the summarized score with respect to grades.



Do not assign grades for effort (attendance), and especially do not combine effort and achievement in a single grade.

REPORT	CARD
A+	B+
Group	Individual

Assign separate grades for group work and for individual contributions. You should also explore alternative forms of assessment and grading that are adapted to your instructional methods and to the scoring you use in evaluating student performance.

7.1 Summary & Exercise

Self-Appraisal of a teacher has the three dimensions of competence, performance and effectiveness. Self-appraisal is a reflection of your students' learning process upon yourself as a teacher in the light of 'good learning starts and ends with good teaching'.

Tests are sets of questions to gauge your students' knowledge and ability in a specific area of EFL to determine if they are ready to move on to the next topic.

Examinations are exercises to probe the students' depth of knowledge of EFL, i.e. knowledge of and facility to apply one, a combination of or all four skills of the English language - Listening and Reading, Speaking and Writing.

Assessment always takes place on an on-going basis while the class is in progress. It permits you to assess form and content of your students' application of the four skills, their participation, and any other criteria you care to define. It is a necessary pre-cursor to evaluation.

Evaluation of student progress focuses on the collection and interpretation of assessment data and test and exam results. A full evaluation includes self-appraisal. Its four phases are preparation, assessment, evaluation and reflection. A systematic evaluation is achieved by assessing your students' performance on a continuous basis while you are teaching.

Exercise (allow 6 hours to answer the following questions on separate sheets of paper):

1. Devise a plan to include self-appraisal in your classroom.
2. How much validity do you accord a test you have to give your class on orders from a higher authority? Do you tell your students what you think of that 'official' test?
3. An exam may consist of the students looking at a picture, chart or data table and to present the information they glean in their own words. The students could also be presented with a point of view, argument or problem and asked to provide an outline, present a solution, justify an opinion, and evaluate ideas and evidence. Provide an outline of what you consider the best way to administer an exam.
4. Design a worksheet. If available, use computer software (MS Excel or similar spreadsheet). If not, design one that can be photocopied. Include title, your name, class level, subject taught, date, students' names, attendance (Y/N), and form and content assessment of the four skills, and any other attributes you care to define.
5. What are the advantages of involving the students in their own assessment?
6. How much of your students' assessment do you base on their ability to communicate? How much do you base it on their ability to manipulate grammar and vocabulary? Where do you place the emphasis in your assessment?
7. Devise a formula by which you assign weights to your students' assessment data and test and exam results. The formula should permit to calculate a final, single value on a scale of 0 to 100. The final value is supposed to enable you to pass judgement about your students' progress and assign a grade. Apply your formula to fictitious data. Does the result present a valid portrayal of what the student has learned and is capable of applying? Review your formula and the fictitious data carefully.

8. TEACHING CHILDREN ENGLISH

Based on information from: TESOL Institute, Canada

Before focusing on the main topic of this section “Teaching Children English”, it is a good idea to look at the differences between teaching adults and teaching children. Although we do remember our childhood days and schooling, our memory tends to be selective.





We may remember happy days as well as some stark, negative experiences, but all in all we don't have a clear vision of why so many days were carefree days of happiness or why we had problems on other occasions.

So, it is necessary to offset adult learning against childhood learning to become aware of the differences and to define what makes EFL interesting for children as well as for adults.

Teaching Adults... Teaching Children...

What's the difference?

ADULTS	CHILDREN
 <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Bring a lifetime of experience to the classroom.■ Generally know how to read and write in their native tongue.■ Are highly motivated for the most part.■ Have very specific and immediate goals.■ Expect to have to concentrate on a given topic during each lesson.■ Lack the uninhibited enthusiasm of children.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Have no experience but vivid imaginations.■ Have only a topical knowledge of reading and writing in their native tongue.■ Have often been “motivated” by their parents or guardian.■ Have no specific goals but unbridled enthusiasm.■ Have a very short attention and concentration span.■ Are bundles of energy. 

Teaching Adults for Success

What does that mean?

Results - that is the Terminal Objective of adults taking an EFL course. It has the highest and absolute priority. Your first and foremost commitment must be to your students'

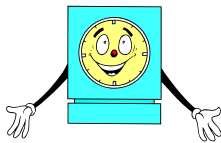


language needs. Fun and games in class are of secondary importance - adult students tolerate fun and games only as far as it supports the achievement of results.

The students' language needs have to be known as well as the teaching material. This means two things:

- a) The proper placing of adult students in a class is crucially important for a successful achievement of the course objective, and it has to be based on their English language level, their goals, and their professional background.
- b) The teaching material should relate to the students' learning needs, and you, as their teacher, should know the basics of your students' professional skills and be able to talk about it, at least in general terms.

How does it work?



Take your time to get to know your students. Show an interest in their professional aspirations and chat with them (in English) about their specific goals and needs.



Place your students in work-groups according to their motivation, professional or social need to learn English.



Encourage your students to question the knowledge you convey and to help each other in answering questions - that's what they do at work, so let them do it in the classroom.



Strive for "little" results - lesson by lesson. Adults are motivated by a sense of progress.



Be demanding - Make your students think about the language they have learned and how they can apply their acquired knowledge in real life.



Be prepared - Know your material and read up on your students' professions and professional skills. They will greatly appreciate your factual knowledge about their areas of specialization and will be motivated to continue coming to your class.

Understanding the Adult Student

LIFE EXPERIENCE:

Adults bring to the classroom setting a lifetime of experience that can be mutually shared. Sharing experiences makes the content of the class relevant to their real life outside the classroom, and ensures that the content of your instruction stimulates the motivation of the adult students.



MOTIVATION: Adult students for the most part are highly motivated. They attend class of their own free choice usually at some personal and financial sacrifice. The four main motivational factors are:

- Survival
- Job Enhancement
- Further Education
- Social Integration



GOAL

IMMEDIATE GOALS: Adult students usually have very specific and immediate goals.

SELF -CONCEPT: Many adult learners are afraid of returning to school for a variety of reasons. They lack the uninhibited enthusiasm of small children.



FORMAL EDUCATION: Adult EFL classes generally attract students of widely ranging ages, levels of education, and professional qualifications. You may need to use a wide variety of activities in the classroom in order to reach all of your students. Grouping students and doing a variety of activities in small groups can do this most effectively. Profession and age can be taken into consideration for grouping people.

Similarities of adult and young learners

- One of the most important factors, which motivates adult and young students alike, is a sense of progress albeit with a very different view of 'progress'. There should be clear markers of success, so students can look at what they are doing well. This means that there should be fairly frequent measurements (assessing oral and written skills of individual students, short quizzes, corrected homework, etc.). Often teachers avoid measurements because they are time consuming or because the students have an inordinate fear of examinations. However, a wise teacher will build in easy, convenient ways of showing the students their progress.

- A second factor, which will maintain and increase motivation for your students, is enjoyment. Activities should provide opportunities for real interaction and getting to know other students in relaxed and, sometimes, even humorous ways. If activities are exciting enough, students will not want to miss class because they know they will be missing the action. If you help your students develop feelings of respect and friendship for one another, those ties will draw them back to class as well.



- Relevance is probably the most important motivating factor for all students. If the students are exposed to real life skills in the framework of their English class, their interest will never waiver.

Teaching Children for Results

What does that mean?

Atmosphere - A good atmosphere is the pre-requisite for reaching the Enabling Objective of young learners. This starts with your attitude and ends with your ability to maintain your students' interest in the class. It means that fun and games are of primary importance with the learning of English almost as a by-product.



Your first commitment is to the students' need for interchanging mental & physical activities. Review the 'Energy Curve' in Book I and adapt your teaching style to the relatively short attention and concentration span of children. This means you have to stay one step ahead of your students and use or develop your anticipatory skills to maintain their interest and participation in class.

The students' language abilities are known at least as well as their learning preferences. This knowledge is crucial for group-work - try to place the students in groups of equal language ability but different learning preferences, but be prepared to change this around. Children thrive on learning from each other, but differences always bear the potential for conflicts arising, which you must avoid at all times.

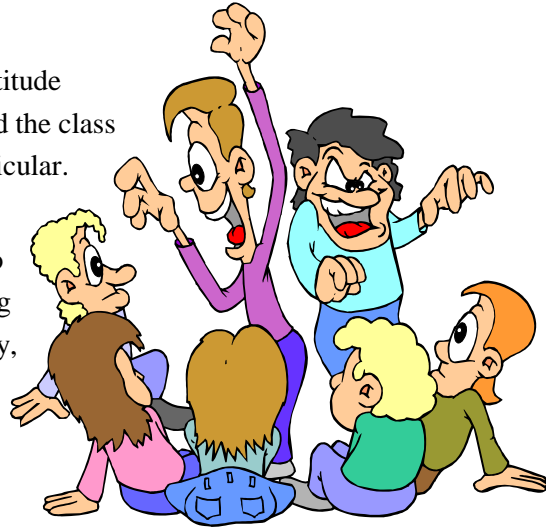
Flexibility and creativity are needed to forego a planned activity for a required activity for the sake of variety in the classroom. Embed recently learned language in games, songs, rhymes, stories, role-play, etc. and recycle known vocabulary in as many ways as possible. Make your students play with the language they have learned.

How does it work?

Be Patient - Exacting demands for using “correct” English is as counter-productive as is pushing for quick answers.

Be Positive - Students will adopt your attitude toward learning English as well as toward the class in general and individual students in particular.

Place students in groups according to their language abilities and/or learning preferences (analytical, global, sensory, visual), but be aware that homogeneity of the members of a group does not necessarily result in harmony.



Teach simple, basic language and recycle it in as many ways as possible - children thrive on repetition and variation of familiar material.

Don't Demand - Remember that children have no innate motivation to be in your EFL class. Make your students play with what they have learned, i.e. let them experiment in a playful way to support their creativity and find out for themselves what works and what doesn't.

Relax - They're just children... They aren't aliens. They're human beings, people in small bodies, people with short attention spans, people who think in concrete rather than abstract terms, but people, nonetheless.

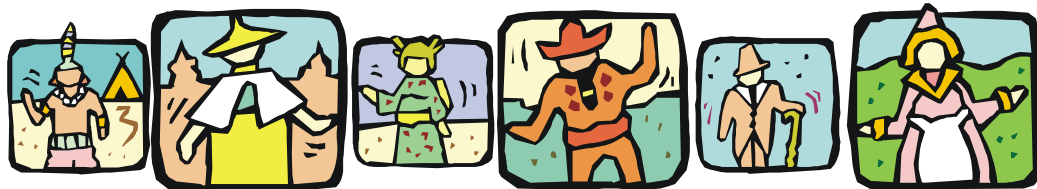
Understanding the Young Student

- **LEARNING PREFERENCES:** Children have more pronounced learning styles than adults. It is very important for result oriented teaching to get to know each student's preference. It will take time! But once the styles are defined, it may help to group the students according to those preferences.

The four main styles are:

Analytical:	Detail oriented; focus on form.
Global:	Socially interactive; focus on meaning.
Sensory:	Focus on visual, auditory, hands-on tasks.
Visual:	Focus on visual stimulation through reading.

- **LITERACY:** Another important factor in understanding the young students is their level of literacy in their native language and the use of their native language.
- **LANGUAGE BACKGROUND:** The native language background of your students, i.e. the use of language in their home environment, often exerts the strongest influence on their learning preferences. The native language backgrounds of the students can affect your teaching about as much as any other single factor.
- **CULTURAL BACKGROUND:** The variance in cultural backgrounds of your young students doesn't mean that one is better than the other - they are only different! Dealing with different cultural backgrounds means that you have to be tolerant and not judgmental.



- **Some Facets to Consider before You Start... Teaching Children EFL**

Arranging the Desks

The seating arrangement for your students is a factor that will contribute immeasurably to the success of your EFL class. It is crucial that you can move freely among your students and that you can see each student when you stand in front of the class. How you arrange the seating depends on the physical limitations of the classroom, the furniture and, of course, your particular lesson needs. Sometimes you may not be able to change how the desks and chairs are arranged in your classroom, and sometimes you may have to make one arrangement, which you can't change. You may want to arrange the desks in different ways for different lessons, but it is much simpler if you decide on the most suitable arrangement for a lesson and stick to it.

Moving desks during a lesson is very time-consuming. Let's look at three ways of arranging the desks in an ordinary classroom.



Arrangement A - Arrange tables and chairs for groups of four students each.

With Arrangement A, you can teach the whole class, and your students can do group work, with the class working in groups of four. It is good for students to sit in groups, even if they are doing individual or class work, since it is then more natural for them to talk to each other.

Drawback: When you are at the front of the class to do board-work, for example, you will see students' faces of only half the class. The students of the other half either have to crane their necks to look at you or you will have to stare at the back of their heads. Not an enviable position for you or your students! Arrangement A means you have to move about constantly, in other words it is a set-up for group-work but little else.

Arrangement B - Arrange tables (for two) and chairs in a tiered semi-circle.

It works for individual and whole class work. You can easily do pair-work if half the class turn their backs to the teacher moving to face each other. It is also ideal for work that requires students to step in front of the class or some physical activity due to the space in front of the semi-circle.

Drawback: This arrangement does not encourage natural communication among students since they sit in pairs. So it is not as suitable as Arrangement A for language work and requires a lot of furniture moving for group-work.

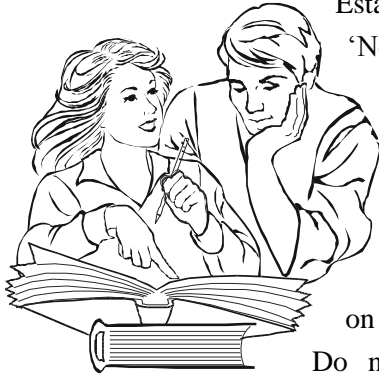
Arrangement C - Arrange individual tables and chairs in a half-star-shape.

This arrangement works in a similar way to Arrangement B, but is more flexible if you offset the chairs, i.e. you don't arrange them in straight rows from the front to the back of the class. Furthermore, if you also cluster the chairs in groups of four while maintaining the offset row pattern, very little movement of furniture is required to do group-work. It also leaves space for the teacher to move between the chairs and for the students in the front of the class for activities.

Drawback: Arrangement C doesn't work with tables for two or four students.

Pair-work

Pair-work is a very useful and efficient way of teaching EFL. It is simple to organize and easy to explain, especially if you use seat arrangements B or C; let students who are sitting near each other work together. Chairs should only be moved if absolutely necessary.



Establish a routine for pair-work, so that when you say, 'Now work in your pairs', students know what is expected of them. If you don't have an even number of students, then let one group work as a threesome.

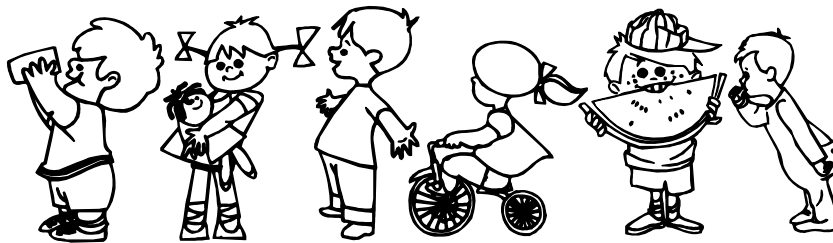
Pair-work means that everyone in the class is occupied, but even if everyone in the class is working on the same thing, not all pairs will finish at the same time.

Do not be tempted to let the pair-work continue until everyone has finished. As soon as you see that several pairs have finished, ask the others to finish and continue with whatever you planned to do next.

Students who simply do not like each other are unlikely to work well together. This is more of a problem with eight to ten-year olds than it is with five to seven year olds. Take this into consideration when you seat the students. For a few times you may have to ask a couple of students to change seats until you arrive at a mutually agreeable seating plan conducive to effective learning and pair-work.

Group-work

Everything, which has been said about pair-work, applies to group-work. However, if your students are not used to group-work in other classes or if they do not naturally develop a group identity, as they may do if they are sitting permanently in a group (arrangement A), then you should introduce them gradually to group-work. You can do that by encouraging one group of four students to work together when it comes to solving a riddle or thinking of a list of items linked to a topic. The other students will soon realize that group-work is fun and very productive, and they will want to follow along.



As in pair-work, you can't leave the seating plan to chance or let the students choose their groups. Usually it results in someone being left out. You are the teacher, you are in control, you tell your students where to sit. Furthermore, there is no reason why students should not be moved about from time to time. Particularly with the eight to ten year olds, you might want to put them in mixed ability groups or group them according to ability. Quick learners can and do help the not so quick ones if the groups are mixed.

The Four Skills

Nobody spends a whole lesson listening, speaking, reading or writing, and it is not suggested that any of the four skills are taught or learned in isolation. The division into the separate skills as headings is simply a convenient and systematic way of presenting teaching ideas. The following sections represent activities, which concentrate on the individual skills. However, each lesson will involve in some way the teaching of all four skills.



Listening

It is quite clear that listening is the skill that EFL-students acquire first. When the students start to learn a foreign language, it is going in mainly through their ears and what the students hear is their initial main source of the language. Of course, we also want to and will give them as much visual back-up as possible through facial expression, through movement, through mime and through pictures. It is worth remembering, too, that once something has been said, it disappears.

So when we talk to the students, it is important to say things clearly, and to repeat them. When you are telling a story, for example, you don't have to tell it from beginning to end without breaks.

You should re-tell it again and again as you go along:

It implies that if you are the listener, you can't decide how fast you work. Therefore, you have to concentrate very hard when you're listening. Young learners have a very short attention span. This is something, which increases with age for most students, and you'll find that the eight to ten year olds can listen for longer periods. But it's important not to overload children when you're working on listening tasks.

When we listen to somebody in everyday life, we usually understand what is being said and we nod, or we comment, or we show in some way that we know what the other person is saying. If we don't understand, then we usually say so at once. We wait very seldom until the end of a conversation or an announcement and then start asking questions about what we have heard. It is good practice to ask your students if they understood while they listen to you and not check their understanding only at the end of the activity.



Some listening activities will wake your students up, make them move about, create movement and/or noise. Others will calm them down, make them concentrate on what is in front of them, and create a peaceful atmosphere. Sometimes you want to have a nice quiet atmosphere and sometimes you want your children to move about, and you can use listening activities for both purposes.

The most obvious 'active listening' activity which we can and should make use of from the moment we start the English lessons is giving genuine instructions and directives (see TPR, page 19). Most classroom language is a type of 'listen and do' activity. Communication is a two-way process of give and take (sending and receiving), and you can see very easily if your students have understood the message or not when they follow your instruction or directive.

An entertaining variation of this activity is a mime story: you tell the story and the students do the actions. It provides you with an opportunity to tell a story and requires the students to follow the story with physical movement. Of course, you may play along with the students. In 'listen and draw' activities, you or one of the students tells about an object or a scene detail by detail and the other students draw what they hear or understand. This activity is particularly useful for checking object vocabulary, prepositions, colors and numbers.

Speaking

Speaking is perhaps the most demanding skill for you to teach. In their own language, your students are able to express emotions, communicate intentions and reactions, explore the language and make fun of it, so they expect to be able to do the same in English.



Taking part in an EFL-class is all about communication in English, and the sooner your students learn simple, meaningful expressions in English, the easier it will be. Speak English as much of the time as you can, using mime, acting, puppets and any other means you can think of to get your meaning across. Your students are unlikely to have the opportunity to hear English all day so you should let them hear as much as possible while you have them in class. Keep your language simple but natural, and keep it at their level.

With beginners, it is important for you to find the balance between providing language through controlled and guided activities and at the same time letting them enjoy natural talk. Most of your students will have little opportunity to practice speaking English outside the classroom, so they need lots of practice when they are in class. When the students are working with controlled and guided activities, we want them to produce correct language. If they make mistakes at this stage then they should be corrected at once.

During this type of activity the students are only imitating, so correction is straightforward. However, when students are working on free oral activities, you should let them say what they want to say. The emphasis for the students should be on content. If a student is telling a story, for example, then correction of language mistakes should not be done while the activity is going on. You should note what you think should be corrected and take it up in class later. Of course, if students ask you what is correct or what the English word for 'X' is while they are talking, then you should give them the answer.

Reading

When students start to read, the language becomes something permanent and the message the words and sentences convey has to be figured out. Students can read a book again and again, and they can stop and think about the message. But there is intonation, mimic or body language to accompany the text. So illustrations are extremely important for students' growing awareness of written language and for their own growth in the language.



Just as listening is the main source of language when students start to learn a language, print is the second main source. As students become better in the foreign language, the printed word becomes the main source of expanding and strengthening the language. Reading is the language skill, which is easiest to keep. Books open up other worlds to your students, and making reading an enjoyable activity is a very important part of the language learning experience.

D E A R

Drop Everything and Read

A fresh method of turning kids on to reading is D.E.A.R. - Drop Everything and Read. “Drop Everything And Read” is a time that should be regularly set aside in the classroom schedule for both students and their teachers to drop everything they are doing and turn to reading. Make sure every student has a book to read before D.E.A.R. begins. D.E.A.R. accommodates a variety of your students’ interests and ability levels, since each student will select for him or herself the book he or she wishes to read.

D.E.A.R. time is “dear.” It is an important part of the weekly classroom schedule. It should be scheduled for the same time each week so students recognize that D.E.A.R. is a priority and they can look forward to this special period. D.E.A.R. doesn’t take a large quantity of time. Fifteen minutes a week for younger students and twenty minutes to half an hour a week for older students is ample.



The goal of D.E.A.R. is to encourage students to read, to become interested in literature, an adventure story, a fairy-tale. Then let them finish reading the book at home!

To make D.E.A.R. work, you need to develop a literature-rich classroom environment. A classroom library or a school library should offer books from a variety of genres and books written at various reading levels. Children surrounded by books are more likely to read books. If you don't have any book resources in your school, contact publishers by e-mail in English speaking countries, or public libraries in Canada, the USA, England, Ireland, Australia, and express your need and purpose for book donations and what type of books you need. Or place a similar e-mail on a range of EFL-teacher Internet web-sites. With a bit of luck, you just may have the surprise of a lifetime and get literally flooded with books sent to you free of charge! That's when you can start planning to include D.E.A.R. time into your weekly schedule in earnest.

Writing

Although the writing and oral skills are combined in the classroom and the one clearly benefits from the other, writing has certain characteristics, which seem to make it difficult for students to get a grip on it. Many children take a long time to master the skill of writing - for good reason: In a survey done in Canada in 1999 on attitudes to



writing in a foreign or second language, the majority of eleven year old students thought the survey was about the mechanical problems of writing - pens and pencils, neatness, correct grammar and spelling. It didn't occur to them that the question concerned the content of a sentence, a paragraph, a story that expresses what the writer tries to convey to the reader.

The survey result reflects the fact that writing in a foreign language is all too often associated with 'correct writing'. Sadly, too many teachers give handwriting, grammar, spelling and punctuation priority over content. If we tried to make students more aware of the importance of content, a lot of problems with writing could be avoided.

Writing activities help to consolidate learning in the other skill areas. Balanced activities train the language and help aid memory. Practice in speaking freely helps when doing free writing activities. Reading helps students to see the 'rules' of writing, and helps build up their language choices. Writing activities allow for conscious development of language.

When we speak, we don't always need to use a large vocabulary because our meaning is often conveyed with the help of the situation. Structures in the language appear more frequently in writing, and, perhaps most important of all, when we write we have the time to go back and think about what we have written.

Writing activities, like oral activities, go from being tightly controlled to being completely free. You will usually do more guided activities with beginners, but you should not exclude very simple free activities. In general, controlled and guided activities are being done to practice the language and concentration is on the language itself. Free activities should allow for self-expression at however low a level, and content is what matters most.

Dictation is a very safe type of guided activity to introduce your students to the next level of writing after copying. But you must keep the language elementary and simple, because you, the teacher, are providing the actual language as well as the context. For young learners, dictations should be short and be made up of sentences, which can be said in one breath. The text should have a purpose and be connected to an activity, which has gone on before. You should read or say the dictation text at normal speed.

For a first free writing activity, you may want your students to try their hand at letter or postcard writing. It is a popular language class activity, and it is indeed a useful way of getting students to write short meaningful pieces of prose. You may be surprised to learn that letter writing is not just a very useful EFL exercise but that it is often at the very root of great novels.

The hugely popular American novelist Kurt Vonnegut, who taught creative writing for decades in Chicago and New York, always suggested to his students to write a novel as if they were writing a long letter to a good friend. He credits the success of his more than twenty novels and short story collections to exactly this writing technique. **Think about it!**

Free writing covers a wide range of activities. It can include poems, reports, descriptions, messages, fictional stories, etc. - anything which has length or substance. Writing is an exciting and rewarding activity and is the most visible of the skills. Becoming a writer in a foreign language is magic - your students can take writing home; their writing can be displayed; they can look back in their folders and see how much better they can do things now. So take time to make their writing as good as possible.

SPECIAL TOPICS

Topic-based teaching EFL is a useful, helpful, practical and exciting way to teach. When students concentrate on a particular topic, the content becomes more important than the language itself. This means that it is easier to relate the lessons to the experiences and interests of your students. The students can associate words, functions, structures and situations with a particular topic. Association helps memory and learning language in context. This in turn brings the learner's needs more into focus.

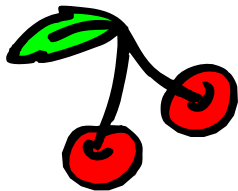
Working on topics allows you to give a personal touch to materials, which may not have been produced, locally. You can rearrange material to suit what is happening at the time of teaching. The time that you spend on a topic can be as long or as short as you like, depending on how much time you have available and how much material you have. Since the emphasis in topic-based work is on content, the work in the classroom naturally includes all the language skills as well as guided and free activities.

Topic: Food

'Food' is a broad topic, which everybody likes because everybody likes to eat. Here you have the opportunity to introduce your students to practical ways of preparing a meal and learn English at the same time. It might take about twelve lessons in all, but should perhaps be done in two blocks of six lessons.



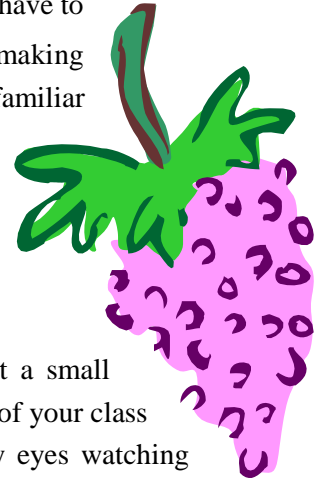
Materials needed: Lots of menus, lists of prices, actual food such as tins, packets of food etc. Furthermore, you need cups, saucers, etc. and perhaps stories, songs and rhymes about food.



Situations and functions: You want your students to be able to follow simple recipes, and give instructions on how to make simple dishes. You want them to be able to express likes and dislikes and to do simple shopping. Having decided on what you want the students to learn, there are lots of ways of tackling the work itself. Here are just a few suggestions.

Vocabulary work: pictures pasted on cardboard can be used to present the vocabulary, along with actual food which you can bring in or ask students to bring in on the day. To practice the vocabulary, you can use the cards, stick them up on the board and let your students write underneath what they depict. With the help of a recipe, you can then go into a student-teaches-student activity whereby they have to guess which materials are used in which sequence.

Recipes and making food: For this part of the work, you will have to choose recipes with no actual cooking involved, like making sandwiches or salad. Find recipes, which will be relatively familiar to the students. Turn the student-teaches-student into a students-teach-teacher activity whereby they have to give you instructions what to do first, what to do next, what not to do, etc.



Make sure you prepare something that gives every student a small sample - not that you stand at the end of the activity in front of your class munching a Dagwood sandwich with forty pairs of hungry eyes watching you. Food preparation is a co-operative effort and food consumption should follow suit.



Topic: Friends

‘Friends’ is a topic, which is of great interest to students perhaps because friendships are developing in class or vice versa. You may want to spend just two or three lessons on the topic, but you may want to re-use this topic at a different time using a different angle. What is important here is to get students to talk about friends and what it means to be a friend, and that may be your only aim. You may not even specify a language aim. The emphasis here will be on student-produced work.

Start the students off by letting them discuss the questions of what a friend is, and what qualities and characteristics they expect in a person to become their friend. Get as many suggestions as possible. Ask them to write the suggestions down and tell them that they can write as many sentences as they like.

Then ask your students to close their eyes and think about the last time they quarreled with a friend. **Make a list on the board of all the things they quarreled about. Ask them to put the list into two columns “Important Things” and “Unimportant Things”.**

Towards the end of the first lesson on the topic 'friends', ask all your students to write their names on a piece of paper. Put them in a box and ask each student to take one piece of paper. The person they pick is their secret friend for the next week.

They have to write a list of reasons why that person is their friend. Note the psychological aspect of this exercise: a student may pick the name of someone he or she dislikes intensely and is now in a situation of describing positive characteristics, which make that co-student likeable. At the end of the week, they should read their lists to the class.

The topic 'friend' can be spun out into many different sub-topics such as 'My Ideal Friend', 'A Friend I Miss', 'My Best Friend', etc. Working with



your students, define the sub-topics involving friends and let them discuss these and write down their thoughts, opinions, grievances, etc. Another line to follow would involve a quiz about a friend.

This would require your students to think of and write down a situation (one sentence) where a friend needed their help, and they couldn't provide it, for instance, or where they would have liked or needed a friend to help them.

In group-work they can work out three questions that would test the scruples of whomever would be confronted with these questions. The questionnaire can be put to the test in class or be given to other classes to answer.

Many other topics are suitable for this kind of work that entails all four language skills of your students at once. However, it may be a good suggestion to survey your students as to which particular topic is of interest to them.

In the end it doesn't matter which topic has been picked. What matters is that the topic content becomes more important than the language itself. That brings an aspect of your students' real life into the classroom, and by having to deal with a real life situation in EFL, English will connect to their real life.

Summary & Exercise

Consider the main difference between teaching adults and children to understand the task of Teaching Children English:

- Adults are goal oriented. They tolerate fun and games in the classroom only as far as it supports their achievement of the Terminal Objective which is outside the classroom, i.e. get a better job, ability to negotiate a business deal in English, etc.
- Children have no goal. They have been “motivated” by their parents or guardian. **Fun and games and a great atmosphere in the classroom are of primary importance to them.** The learning of EFL is achieved as a by-product to focused playful interaction.

Similarities are that adults and children are both motivated to come back to class by a sense of progress, enjoyment and the relevance to real life of the English they learn.

Important factors to remember about children are that they usually have:

- no experience but vivid imaginations and unbridled enthusiasm
- only a topical knowledge of reading and writing in their native tongue
- a very short attention and concentration span, and they are bundles of energy.

When teaching children you should teach simple, basic language and recycle it as many ways as possible; you should be patient and positive and don't demand.

Exercise

1. What are children's main learning characteristics of which you as an EFL-teacher must be aware?

2. What do you consider the important characteristics of an EFL-teacher of children?

3. Think of stories in your own language suitable to tell children. Write down keywords of one of these stories in English and practice telling the story in English.

4. Record yourself telling the story, and listen carefully to the result. Write down ways of improving your storytelling.

5. Write down the sequence that you follow to teach young learners to write.

6. Write down a topic you think is suitable for topic-based teaching EFL? Why do you think it would be of interest to young learners? What do they achieve participating in the activity of your choice?

APPENDIX I

EFL TEACHERS' JARGON

Based on information from: Universidad de Barcelona, Spain

A, a	
ABSOLUTE BEGINNERS:	Students that never have heard about the English language (vocabulary, structures, pronunciation...). They are also called “pre-beginners”.
ACCURACY ORDER:	The relative accuracy of grammatical forms in learner language. Some researchers have inferred that accuracy order is equivalent to sequence of acquisition.
ACQUISITION:	The process of picking up a language by means of exposure to it in a natural environment and without sustained effort to learn it.
APTITUDE FOR ORAL MIMICRY:	It is said when someone has a “better ear” for foreign languages.
ASSESSMENT:	Procedures for measuring the extent to which students have achieved their objectives.
ATTEMPT:	When the teacher knows that the students have not yet learned the language necessary to express what they want to say, we can call their mistakes ‘attempts’. When it is not clear what the students mean, or what structure they are trying to use, we can also call these mistakes ‘attempts’.
ATTITUDE:	Feelings of the student towards the foreign language, the people who speak it, and his/her own capacity (self-confidence) for communicating in it. Attitudes can change (positively or negatively) during the learning process.
AUDIO LINGUAL METHOD:	Audio lingual teaching is based on the behaviorist theory of structural linguistics. This instructional method emphasizes the formation of habits through the practice, memorization, and repetition of grammatical structures in isolation.
B, b	
BACKCHAINING:	It is the joining of new concepts with the ones you already have..
BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE:	The knowledge of the world, which the reader or listener makes use of when interpreting a piece of spoken or written language.
BEHAVIORISM:	A psychological theory that all learning, whether verbal or non-verbal, takes place through the establishment of habits.
BOTTOM-UP PROCESSING:	Decoding the smallest elements first, and using these to decode and interpret words, clauses, sentences and the whole texts.

BRAINSTORMING:	A technique for the spontaneous gathering of ideas/information in which all the members of the class participate.
C, c	
CAPTIVE AUDIENCE:	The listeners who must listen to a teacher because they are obliged to.
CARETAKER TALK:	See MODIFIED INPUT.
CHUNK:	If a paragraph is too long for your students to read or to study all at once, you can divide it up into smaller sections which are still meaningful. These are known as chunks.
CITATION FORM:	Is used when referring to the form a word has when it is “cited” in isolation (has a different pronunciation).
CLASSROOM LANGUAGE:	The language used in class (easier, simpler...)
CLOZE PROCEDURE:	You leave out some words of a paragraph (every 7th. word). The best is to use 50 blind spaces.
CLT:	Abbreviation of Communicative Language Teaching.
COGNATE:	A word in a second language that is very similar (in spelling, meaning...) to the equivalent word in the mother tongue.
COGNITIVE MATURITY:	The ability to engage in problem solving, deduction and complex memory tasks.
COGNITIVE STRATEGY:	Techniques learners apply (consciously or unconsciously) to process language/information (input and output). Some strategies can be developed.
COGNITIVE THEORY:	A psychological theory, that views learning as the building up of knowledge systems which can eventually be called on automatically for speaking and understanding, (Noam Chomsky).
COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE:	The ability to use language in a variety of settings, taking into account relationships of speakers and differences in situations.
COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING (CLT):	CLT is based on the premise that successful language learning involves not only knowledge of the structures and forms of a language, but also the functions and purposes that a language serves in different communicative settings.
COMPOSITE SYMBOLS:	Symbols used in the writing system that are combinations of two or more letters from the alphabet.

COMPREHENSIBLE INPUT:	A term introduced by Stephen Krashen to refer to language which a learner can understand. That language may be comprehensible in this sense through the aid of clues such as gestures, situations, or prior information.
COMPREHENSION-BASED INSTRUCTION:	A general term to describe a variety of second language programs where the focus of instruction is on comprehension rather than production.
CONSONANT CLUSTER:	It happens when two consonants occur within a word.
CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION:	Second language programs in which lessons are organized around topics, themes, and/or subject matter rather than language points.
CONTENT WORD:	A word that refers to a thing, quality, state, action or event. Also called lexical word.
CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS HYPOTHESIS (CAH):	The CAH predicts that where there are similarities between the first and second languages, the learner will acquire second language structures with ease; where there are differences, the learner will have difficulty.
CONTROL GROUP:	In experimental studies, a group of learners which, ideally, differs from the experimental group only in terms of a single factor which is manipulated by the researcher. Performance of the control group is used to show that the factor in question is the best (or only) explanation for changes in the experimental group.
CONTROLLED PRACTICE:	Exercises where the student is not free to choose the answer.
CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK:	An indication to a learner that his or her use of the target language is incorrect. Includes a variety of responses that a language learner receives.
CORRELATION:	A statistical procedure, which compares the frequency and size of different factors in order to determine whether there is a relationship between the two.
CREATIVE CONSTRUCTION:	A theory that L2 acquisition is a process by which a learner constructs his/her own rule system for the language being learned.
CRITICAL PERIOD HYPOTHESIS (CPH):	The proposal that there is a specific and limited time period for language acquisition. There are two versions of the CPH. The strong version is that a language must be learned by puberty or it will never be learned from subsequent exposure. The weak version is that language learning will be more difficult and incomplete after puberty.

CROSS-SECTIONAL STUDY:	A research method in which subjects at different ages and stages of development are studied. Contrasts with longitudinal studies.
CUISINAIRE RODS:	Are colored plastic materials used to teach languages.
D, d	
DELAYED COPYING:	It is useful for training short-term visual memory as well as for learning to write. Process: write a short, familiar sentence on the board, give the students a few seconds to look at it; and then erase it and see if the students can write it down.
DELAYED CORRECTION:	The teacher makes correction, not when it happens but later (in order not to interrupt a conversation, an explanation...)
DEVELOPMENTAL ERROR:	An error in learner language which does not result from transfer from the first language, but which reflects the learner's gradual discovery of the second language system.
DEVELOPMENTAL FEATURES:	Those aspects of a language which, according to Peinemann and his colleagues, develop in a particular sequence, regardless of input variation or instructional intervention.
DEVELOPMENTAL SEQUENCES:	The order in which certain features of a language are acquired in language learning.
DIRECT METHOD:	A teaching technique where the English language is used from the very beginning.
DISPLAY QUESTION:	A question to which the questioner already knows the answer. Teachers often ask these questions not because they are genuinely interested in the answer, but rather, to get the learner to display his or her knowledge of the language.
DRILLING:	Making students practice intensively; they normally aim to practice the form or structure of an item, but often do not attach much importance to what it means. It could be oral or written.
E, e	
EFL:	Abbreviation of English as a Foreign Language.
ELT:	Abbreviation of English Language Teaching.
EMERGENCY ACTIVITIES:	Activities (always ready) that can be developed if we have time left over, at the end of a session, or if an activity doesn't work quite well...

ENHANCED INPUT:	It's additional, form-focused instruction and corrective feedback in communicative language programs.
EPP:	Abbreviation of English for Professional Purposes.
ERROR:	It is a sort of mistake. The student cannot self-correct the mistake in his or her own English, but the teacher thinks that the class is familiar with the correct form.
ESL:	Abbreviation of English as a Second Language. This refers to the learning of English for use in a setting where English is the principal language used.
ESP:	Abbreviation of English for Special Purposes.
ETEN:	Abbreviation of European Teacher Education Network.
EVALUATION:	Student's and teacher's analysis of the process and end product, which provides constant feedback throughout the project and allows for changes to be made.
EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES:	Useful activities to be done but don't appear in the official curriculum (e.g. play readings...).
F, f	
FACTUAL QUESTION:	A question that refers to a specific fact (we need the answer).
FALSE COGNATE:	A word in a second language that is quite close to its equivalent in the mother tongue but only in terms of its spelling, not in meaning.
FEEDBACK:	The response you get from and give to individual students.
FILL-IN EXERCISES:	See CLOZE PROCEDURE.
FLASHCARDS:	In a classroom, students usually wait for a sign from the teacher before they speak. It is effective if picture cues or verbal cues are on flashcards that can be held briefly or "flashed" in front of the class to cue an answer or a response.
FLUENCY:	The use of the language freely to express our own ideas.
FOREIGNER TALK:	See MODIFIED INPUT.

FORMAL LANGUAGE LEARNING SETTING:	A setting in which second language learners receive instruction and opportunities to practice. In this context, efforts are made to develop the learner's awareness of how the language system works.
FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT:	Student's and teacher's ongoing analysis of the process and end result of a task or set of tasks. Decisions are made concerning ways of improving the task(s) as a result of this analysis.
FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION:	Instruction, which draws attention to the forms and structures of the language within the context of communicative interaction. This may be done by giving meta-linguistic information, simply highlighting the form in question, or by providing corrective feedback.
FORMULAIC PATTERNS OR ROUTINES:	These are expressions, which are learned as unanalyzed wholes, or "chunks".
FOSSILIZATION:	A lack of change in inter-language patterns, even after extended exposure to or instruction in the target language.
FRANNEL BOARD:	Made of rough frannel stuck on to cards hung on the wall; figures or people or objects made of felt or card backed with sand paper stick on easily and can be moved around the board.
FREE ACTIVITIES:	Activities where children say what they want to say; it gives genuine communication, focus attention on the message...
FUNCTION:	The communicative purpose of an utterance or unit of language, which can be learned/memorized as a formula. Some syllabi are organized around lists of functions.
FUNCTION WORD:	A word that indicates grammatical relationships.
G, g	
GENUINE QUESTION:	In contrast to display questions, genuine questions are asked when there is a focus on information: the questioner does not know the answer in advance.
GLOBAL TASK:	See INTEGRATIVE TASK.
GRAMMATICALITY JUDGEMENT:	A type of task/test in which students are asked to give their view about whether a sentence is correct or incorrect. In some cases, learners are also asked to correct those sentences they judge to be incorrect.

GRAMMATICAL MORPHEMES:	Are the smallest units of language that carry meaning.
GUIDED-DISCOVERY GRAMMAR:	Teacher-guided exercises based on samples of the students' own output (written or oral), to help them diagnose and correct their own mistakes.
GUIDED PRACTICE:	It follows on directly from controlled practice and gives the students some sort of choice, but the choice of language is limited.
H, h HANDOUT:	It's the Material to be distributed among the students.
HARDWARE:	Tape recorders, cassette players, OHP; -in other words, the equipment, usually electrical, found in classrooms.
HEARING:	For a teacher, it requires mere presence plus ears. See LISTENING.
HERE AND NOW ACTIVITIES:	Very contextual activities that are done according to the children's reality.
HOMOGRAPHS:	Pairs of words that are written the same but are pronounced differently.
HOMOPHONES:	Pairs of words that are written differently, but sound the same.
I, i ICEBREAKER:	Activity used to create a risk-free atmosphere and promote the students' confidence. (see SET INDUCTION, WARM-UP)
IMMERSION PROGRAM:	Programs in which a second language is taught via content-based instruction. In this program, little time is spent focusing on the formal aspects of the second language.
IN SERVICE TT:	Teachers that still learn things but that work already in schools.
INFORMAL LANGUAGE LEARNING SETTING:	A setting, in which the second language is not taught, but rather, is learned naturally through informal conversations and interactions with native speakers of the language being learned.
INFORMATION GAP:	It's a piece of information that is incomplete.
INNATISM:	A theory that human beings are born with some basic knowledge about languages in general that makes it possible to learn the specific language of the environment.

INPUT:	The language to which the learner is exposed (either written or spoken) in the environment.
INTEGRATIVE TASK:	A task, which focuses not only on the practice of a single area of language or strategy. It has a high degree of authenticity in terms of language and content.
INTELLIGIBILITY:	Is being understood by a listener at a given time in a given situation.
INTERACTIONISM:	A theory that language acquisition is based both on learners' innate abilities and on opportunities to engage in conversations in which other speakers modify their speech to match learners' communication requirements.
INTER-LANGUAGE:	The learner's developing second language knowledge. It may have characteristics of the learner's native language, characteristics of the second language, and some characteristics, which seem to be very general and tend to occur in all or most inter-language systems. Inter-languages are systematic, but they are also dynamic, continually evolving as learners receive more input and revise their hypotheses about the second language.
J, j JIGSAW:	It's any kind of puzzle (cartoon jigsaw...).
K, k	<i>No entries</i>
L, l	
L1:	It refers to the mother tongue (native language). Many children learn more than one language from birth and may be said to have more than one mother tongue.
L2:	Any language other than the first language learned; it's also called second language or target language.
LANGUAGE ACQUISITION:	This term is most used interchangeably with language learning. However, for some researchers, most notably Stephen Krashen, acquisition is contrasted with learning. Acquisition is thought to represent "unconscious" learning, which takes place when the emphasis is on communication and there is no attention to form.
LANGUAGE ACQUISITION DEVICE (LAD):	A metaphor for the innate knowledge of the "universal" principles common to all human languages. The presence of this knowledge permits children to discover the structure of a given language on the basis of a relative small amount of input.

LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE

APPROACH:	This approach to reading is based on the child's spoken language.
LANGUAGE LEARNING:	This term is a general one, which simply refers to a learner's developing knowledge of the target language. In Stephen Krashen's terms it's a "conscious" process which occurs when the learner's objective is to learn about the language itself, rather than to understand messages which are conveyed through the language.
LAYOUT:	It refers to the position of the desks (or tables) inside the classroom.
LESSON PLAN:	It helps the teachers to know what to do in a class (prepared by themselves) with quite specific activities.
LISTENING:	It requires work (according to the learner). See HEARING.
LONGITUDINAL STUDY:	A study in which the same learners are studied over a period of time. This contrasts with cross-sectional studies.
LOOK AND SAY:	It is a technique of learning to read based on words and phrases. It uses a lot of flashcards.
LS:	Abbreviation of Learner Strategies.
M, m	
MEANING-BASED INSTRUCTION:	See COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING.
META-LANGUAGE:	The language used to describe language items (e.g. "present simple tense) or used in class to give instructions, explain things. Meta-language usually needs to be clear and concise and avoid complexity.
META-LINGUISTIC AWARENESS:	The ability to treat language as an object, for example, being able to define a word.
MICROTEACHING:	Concentrating on one specific item (in some explanation...).
MINIMAL PAIR:	Is a pair of words which differ only in the two sounds being focused on (road, load).
MODIFIED INPUT:	Adapted speech which adults use to address children and native speakers so that the learner will be able to understand. Examples of modified input include shorter, simpler sentences, slower rate of speech, and basic vocabulary.

MODIFIED INTERACTION:	Adapted conversation patterns speakers use in addressing language learners so that the learner will be able to understand. Examples of interactional modifications include comprehension checks, clarification requests, and self-repetitions.
MORPHEME:	See GRAMMATICAL MORPHEME.
N, n	
NATIVE-LIKE:	The ability to comprehend and produce a second language at a level of performance, which is hardly distinguishable from that of a native speaker.
NATIVE SPEAKER:	A person who has learned a language from an early age and who has full mastery of that language.
NATURAL ORDER:	See DEVELOPMENTAL SEQUENCES.
NEGOTIATION OF MEANING:	Interaction between speakers who make adjustments to their speech and use other techniques to facilitate communication.
NOISY ACTIVITIES:	Activities that provoke noise, perhaps too much, depending on the situation.
NON-LEXICAL FORMS:	Sounds used in spoken language which are not words, but convey meaning through non-lexical means, principally through intonation pattern (“um”, “er”...).
NORMAL CONVERSATION:	A conversation not related with exercises or class activities, even inside the class.
NRA:	Abbreviation of Non Roman Alphabet.
O, o	
OBLIGATORY CONTEXT:	The place in a sentence where a particular grammatical form is required if the sentence is to be correct.
OHP:	Abbreviation of Over Head Projector.
OHT:	Abbreviation of Over Head Transparency.
ONE-WORD SENTENCE:	A sentence made by just one word. Examples: Yes! Help! Please...
ONE-WORD SIGNS:	A word that means much more than its meaning itself. Examples: Hotel, Toilet...

ORDER OF ACQUISITION: See DEVELOPMENTAL SEQUENCES.

OUT OF CLASS LEARNING: The learning that is produced not inside the class but outdoors (because of the TV, an English penpal...).

OUT OF CLASS ACTIVITIES: Are activities that are done outside the class (clubs, libraries...).

OUTPUT: What is produced by the students (in writing or orally) throughout a task or a set of tasks.

OVER CORRECT TEACHER: A teacher that doesn't speak (or write) freely in class in order to avoid mistakes; he or she speaks carefully, slowly and only when he/she is sure that what he/she has prepared to say is correct. That does not give a good model for the students.

OVERGENERALIZATION ERROR: This type of error is the result of trying to use a rule in a context where it does not belong.

P, p

PACE: When a teacher spends a long time introducing a new item, the pace is slow. When a lot of new material is introduced the pace is fast.

PAIR WORK: Is work in groups of two.

PARALINGUISTIC FEATURE: Include sounds like "er", "ah", and facial expressions, gestures, all of which can communicate something without actually using words. See NON-LEXICAL FORMS.

PARROT FASHION: When students repeat parrot fashion, they repeat automatically the sounds they heard without understanding their meaning, like a parrot imitates, with no understanding.

PATTERN PRACTICE DRILL: An audio-lingual teaching technique; learners are asked to practice sentences chosen to represent particular linguistic forms.

PBL: Abbreviation of Problem Based Learning. It is characterized by real life situation providing the point of departure for problem processing, self-directed learning and team projects.

PEER CORRECTION: The teacher, when someone can't answer a question, asks if anyone else in the class can do it correctly.

PERIPHERAL LEARNING: The learning produced not in class but around it.

POLAR QUESTIONS:	See YES/NO QUESTIONS.
POOR DISCRIMINATORS:	Students that are not good at distinguishing different sounds.
PPP:	Abbreviation of Presentation, Practice (2 students as an example), Production (everybody).
PRE-SERVICE TT:	What someone does (study) in order to become an English teacher.
PROCEDURE:	The operations and strategies necessary to project for the students to learn/acquire language.
PROCESSING:	Dealing with content/information in order to complete a task. It also refers to the operations performed to understand language input and to produce language output.
PRODUCTIVE SKILLS:	Are the main skills of speaking and writing. See RECEPTIVE SKILLS.
Q, q	
QUIET ACTIVITIES:	Activities that don't provoke noise, movement or excitement on the child.
R, r	
RAPPORT:	The quality of relationship within the classroom. Good rapport increases motivation.
RATE OF DEVELOPMENT:	The speed at which learners progress in their language development.
REAL ITEMS:	Photos, posters, books, souvenirs, postcards... any kind of material from an English-speaking country that we can bring to class (to make activities, talks...).
RECALL:	Is to remember something. To aid recall, you can use visual aids, to make something memorable.
RECEPTIVE SKILLS:	Include listening or reading and understanding. The receptive skills are different from productive skills. In a teaching situation, students should listen before they speak, speak before they read, and read before they write.
ROLE-PLAY:	It's a way of presenting dialogues. In role-play, the students are pretending to be someone else.

ROUTINES:	Things that we do regularly (perhaps in each class): forms of address, how to “have the floor”...
RP:	Abbreviation of Received Pronunciation. It is the standard pronunciation of English.
S, s	
SCANNING:	A reading technique, which involves glancing quickly through a text to locate a specific piece of information.
SCHEME OF WORK:	Is a kind of “map” of the work that is to be done and when it should be done. You may have an overall target for the year, which is broken down into sections. Sometimes it comes from outside the school (Government...).
SCHWA:	This is the name given to the vowel sound made with the lips and tongue in a neutral or rest position.
SELF-CORRECTION:	It’s a form of correction; students correct a mistake on their own.
SENTENCE BY SENTENCE EXERCISE:	An exercise made from single sentences (often used to work in pairs: one asks and the other answers).
SET INDUCTION:	Is the term used for the activities at the start of the lesson to induce a positive mental attitude on the part of students.
SILENT WAY:	It’s a method to teach languages; here the teacher doesn’t speak; he/she uses colors to explain.
SIMPLIFICATION:	Is to leave out elements of a sentence.
SIMULATION:	It’s an artificial imitation of a real-life task in class for the purposes of language practice.
SKILLS:	This is used in two ways: (i) the four main language skills are listening, speaking, reading and writing (ii) “enabling” skills, which are sub-skills.
SKIMMING:	A reading technique, which involves glancing quickly through the text to get its gist.
SLA:	Abbreviation of Second Language Acquisition.
SLIDE PROJECTOR:	It’s a machine to see photographic slides.

SLIP:	It's a type of mistake. Here, the teacher thinks that a student can self-correct the mistake.
SOFTWARE:	Tapes, books, papers, and additional materials like games, magazine pictures, homework sheets, class worksheets, and supplementary reading materials.
STARTERS:	Sentences, words, and even activities done to begin a task; they could be examples, warm-up activities...
STRUCTURAL GRADING:	A technique for organizing or sequencing material in a textbook or lessons. The basis for the organization is a gradual increase in complexity of grammatical features.
STRUCTURE:	A division of language based on grammatical patterns. Some syllabi are organized around lists of syntactic structures.
STT:	Abbreviation of Student Talking Time.
SUBJECTS:	Participants whose knowledge or performance is observed in a research study.
SUBSTITUTION DRILL:	An audio-lingual teaching technique in which learners practice sentences, changing one element at a time.
SUBTRACTIVE BILINGUALISM:	This is often the result of learning a second language when one's first language skills are not fully developed. In this situation, the first language is partially or completely lost.
SUB-VOCALIZE:	Students who sub-vocalize when reading silently go through the motions of reading out loud, moving their lips and tongue but making no noise.
SUMMATIVE ASSESSMENT:	The gathering of information about the results of learning (concerning language, strategies, and attitudinal change) at the end of the project.
T, t	
TARGET LANGUAGE:	The language, which is being learned, whether it is the first language or a second (or third or fourth) language.
TASK:	The carrying out of an activity/series of activities to achieve a pre-established objective.

TASK AUTHENTICITY:	The level of reality of a task. When moving from first (mother language-based) to second and third generation tasks, authenticity increases.
TEACHER TALK:	See MODIFIED INPUT.
TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGE:	The place where someone studies in order to become a teacher.
TEFL:	Abbreviation of Teaching English as a Foreign language.
TESFL:	Abbreviation of Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language.
TESOL:	Abbreviation of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages.
TL:	Abbreviation of Target Language.
TOPIC-BASED TEACHING:	A way of organizing the communicative syllabus, which gives emphasis to the topics or themes through which language (structures, functions, lexis) is practiced.
TRANSFER:	Learner's use of patterns of the first language in second language sentences. Also called "interference".
TPR:	Abbreviation of Total Physical Response. It's a way of learning through body movements (acting, not only seeing or listening).
TS:	Abbreviation of Teacher Strategies.
U, u	
UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR:	Children's innate knowledge which, it is hypothesized, consists of a set of principles common to all languages. This term has replaced the earlier term language acquisition device in work based on Chomsky's theory of language acquisition.
UTTERANCE:	Something which is spoken. An utterance is usually short, two or three sentences at the most, perhaps a small part of a dialogue.
V, v	
VARIATIONAL FEATURES:	In contrast to the developmental features in the framework developed by Peinemann and his colleagues, variational features can be learned at any point in the learner's development.
W, w	
WARM UP:	See SET INDUCTION.

WASH-BACK:	Feedback from the students of a class as a whole, which permits analysis of trends and developments and, consequently, definition of areas of teaching skills improvement.
WEAK FORM:	It occurs when a word has a special pronunciation in unstressed position.
WH- QUESTIONS:	Questions that have a word starting with Wh-. Example: What's your name?
WHOLE SENTENCE READING:	In this technique of reading learning, the teacher teaches recognition of whole phrases and sentences, which have meaning in themselves.
WORD BOUNDARIES:	An utterance that has several different words together.
WORKSHEET:	A piece of paper on which you make an entry, e.g. class list.
X, x	<i>No entries</i>
Y, y	
YES / NO QUESTIONS:	Questions answerable by yes or no. See POLAR QUESTIONS.
Z, z	<i>No entries</i>

APPENDIX II

GLOSSARY OF EFL ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

Based on information from: *Universidad de Barcelona, Spain*

AAIEP	American Association of Intensive English Programs
ACCESS	Auxiliary Closed Captioned English with Simplified Spelling
ACCET	Accrediting Council of Continuing Education & Training
ACTE	American College Testing's Examination - equivalent to the SAT
ACT ASSET	ACT Assessment of Skills for Successful Entry and Transfer
ACT PEP	ACT Proficiency Examination Program
AE	American English
AIESEC	<i>Association Internationale des Etudiants en Sciences Economiques et Commercial.</i>
ALEC	Association of Language Excellence Centers (England)
ALM	Audio-Lingual Method - a widely used language teaching method popular in the 50s and 60s based structuralism and behaviorism. Classroom activities are rote memorization and habit formation.
ALTE	Association of Language Testers in Europe
AmE	American English
ARELS	Association of Recognized English Language Schools (est.1940). An inspecting body for EFL/ESL/ESOL schools in the U.K. ARELS merged with FELCRO in the 1980s.
ARELS/FELCRO SCHOOL	School which has been inspected by these two bodies.
AYUSA	Academic Year in the USA
BA	Bachelor of Arts. A common undergraduate degree.
BAAL	British Association of Applied Linguistics

BALEAP	British Association of Lecturers in English for Academic Purposes
BASCELT	British Association of State Colleges in EFL Teaching
BATQI	British Association of TESOL Qualifying Institutions, a voluntary association of UK educational institutions, which offer courses leading to ESL/EFL teaching qualifications.
BBC	British Broadcasting Company.
BC	British Council
BE	Black English (English spoken by Americans of African descent).
BrE	British English
BRITISH COUNCIL	British information organization similar to USIS.
B.Sc.	Bachelor of Science. A common undergraduate degree.
BVT	Bilingual Vocational Training
CAE	Certificate of Advanced English - the fourth of Cambridge's series of exams.
CAH	Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis
CALI	Computer-Assisted Language Instruction - Instruction in a second or foreign language provided via computer and intended to supplement (not replace) what is taught by a live teacher.
CALL	Computer-Assisted Language Learning
CAMBRIDGE EXAMS	Examinations of English proficiency leading to certificates of proficiency.
CAN	Communicative Acquisitionist Naturalistic. A theory of language instruction based on a group of mutually supportive theories.
CanE	Canadian English
CAT	Computer Adaptive Testing

CBT	Computer-Based Test
CCSE	Certificates in Communicative Skills in English. CCSE test the ability of candidates to use English communicatively in the four skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking.
CEELT	Cambridge Examination in English for Language Teachers. Tests the English competency of non-native teachers of English.
CEIBT	Certificate in English for International Business and Trade. Tests for high level English competency for the workplace.
CELT	Comprehensive English Language Test
CELTA	Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults
CfBT	Center for British Teachers
CILTS	Cambridge Integrated Language Teaching Schemes
CLBA	Canadian Language Benchmarks Assessment
CLT	Community Language Teaching
COTE	Certificate for Overseas Teachers of English - a certificate program for teachers who are non-native speakers of English. (Cambridge University).
CPE	Certificate of Proficiency in English - the fifth and the most advanced of Cambridge's series of exams. The CPE is the exam which many British universities request of foreign students.
CSIET	Council on Standards for International Educational Travel
C-TEFLA	Certificate of Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults (see CELTA).
DELTA	Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults (Cambridge/RSA Language Teaching Scheme, to replace the D-TEFLA in September 1998).
DOTE	Diploma for Overseas Teachers of English - diploma program for teachers who are non-native speakers of English. (Cambridge U.).

D-TEFLA	Diploma of Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EBE	English for Business and Economics
ECCE	Exam for the Certificate of Competency in English (Michigan University).
ECPE	Exam for the Certificate of Proficiency in English (Michigan University).
EEP	English for Employment Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EGP	English for General Purposes
EIL	English as an International Language
ELICOS	English Language Intensive Courses to Overseas Students. The ELICOS Association is the national professional association of accredited and government registered centers teaching English to overseas students in Australia.
ELIU	British Council English Language Information Unit
ELT	English Language Teaching/Training
ENL	English as a Native Language
EOP	English for Occupational Purposes
EPP	English for Professional Purposes
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESOL	English for Speakers of Other Languages
ESP	English for Special Purposes
ESS	English for Social Sciences

EST	English for Science and Technology
ETS	Educational Testing Service
EVP	English for Vocational Purposes
FCE	First Certificate in English - the third of Cambridge's series of exams (roughly comparable to a score of 500 on the TOEFL and 5.7 on the IELTS).
FELCRO	Federation of English Language Course Organizations (Established in 1972). An inspecting body for EFL/ESL/ESOL schools in the U.K. FELCRO merged with ARESL in the 1980s.
FLES	Foreign Language in Elementary Schools
GMAT	Graduate Management Admission Test. The GMAT measures general verbal, mathematical and analytical writing skills. The total testing time is 4 hours.
GNVQ	General National Vocational Qualification; UK.
GPA	Grade Point Average
GRE	Graduate Record Examination - an evaluation test for graduate admission to colleges and universities in the U.S.
G-TELP	General Tests of English Language Proficiency
IAESTE	International Association for the Exchange of Students for Technical Experience
IATEFL	International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language
IDP	International Development Program (for Australian Universities and Colleges). IDP Education Australia is owned by Australia's Universities and a key-recruiter of international students.
IELTDHE	Institute for English Language Teacher Development in Higher Education

IELTS	International English Language Testing System. Most UK universities specify an IELTS score as an entrance requirement for non-native speakers. IELTS is jointly managed by The British Council, The University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES) and IDP Education Australia.
KET	Key English Test - The most elementary of Cambridge's series of exams.
L1	Language 1 (the native language).
L2	Language 2 (the target or second language).
LAD	Language Acquisition Device. A model of language learning in which a child is credited with an innate predisposition to acquire linguistic structure.
LAURELS	Latin American Union of Registered English Language Schools
LCCIEB	London Chamber of Commerce and Industry Examinations Board
LEP	Limited English Proficient
LINC	Language Instruction for Newcomers to Canada
LL	Language Learning
LLBA	Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts
MAT	Miller Analogies Test
MATESL	Master of Arts in Teaching English as a Second Language
MBA	Master of Business Administration
ME	Middle English
MELAB	Michigan English Language Assessment Battery
MLA	Modern Language Association of America - Organization of US college and university teachers of English and modern languages.
MT	Machine Translation (computer based translation).
MT	Mother Tongue (L1).

MTELP	Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency
NAFSA	Association of International Educators. Promotes the exchange of students and scholars to and from the United States.
NALATIE	North American Licensing Authority for Teachers of International English
NATECLA	National Association for Teaching English and other Community Languages to Adults (UK).
NATESOL	National Association of Teachers of English for Speakers of Other Languages
NCTE	National Council of Teachers of English
NCVQ	National Council for Vocational Qualifications
NEAS	National ELICOS Accreditation Scheme, an Australian organization.
NEST	Native English Speaking Teacher
NL	Native Language (L1 or MT).
NLLIA	National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia
NNEST	Non-Native English Speaking Teacher
NNL	Non-Native Language
NVQ	National Vocational Qualification; UK.
OE	Old English
OED	Oxford English Dictionary
OULDLE/AET	Oxford University Delegacy of Local Examinations/Arels Examinations Trust (UK).
PET	Preliminary English Test - The second of Cambridge's series of exams.
RELSA	Recognized English Language Schools Association - An association of 18 EFL schools in England.

RP	Received Pronunciation - refers to a variety of British English dialects representing the accent of educated BrE, and popularly known as the King's English, the Queen's English, BBC English, Oxford English, and Public School English.
RSA	Royal Society of Arts (also RSA Examinations Board); UK
SAE	Standard American English.
SAT	Scholastic Assessment Test - an evaluation test for undergraduate admission to colleges and universities in the U.S. The SAT is a three-hour test that measures verbal and mathematical abilities.
SATEFL	Scottish Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SLACC/I	Second Language Acquisition through Classroom Communication/ Interaction
SSS	Simplified Spelling Society
SVQ	Scottish Vocational Qualifications
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TEFLA	Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults
TEIL	Teaching English as an International Language
TESL	Teaching English as a Second Language
TESOL	1) Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages; 2) Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (professional organization - Canada and USA)
TEYL	Teaching English to Young Learners
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language. Test to measure English skills of prospective entrants to most U.S. and Canadian universities, and also accepted by several British universities.

TOEIC	Test of English In Communication. It is broken down into two halves: reading and listening comprehension. Employees of international businesses, recruits and business students might take the test, as it is primarily used for recruitment evaluation purposes.
TOT	Tip-of-the-Tongue refers to the difficulty of not having the right word come readily to mind.
TPR	Total Physical Response
TRINITY COLLEGE CERTIFICATE TESOL	A professional qualification certificate for prospective EFL teachers, available in the U.K.
TSE	Test of Spoken English. A TOEFL-related test
TWE	Test of Written English. A TOEFL-related test
UCLES	The University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate. The Cambridge Examinations governing body.
UK	United Kingdom
ULCA	University Language Centers Australia. ULCA is a network of twenty-eight universities in Australia which offer English language courses to international students.
USIA	United States Information Agency. A U.S. government agency for semination of misinformation.
VESL	Vocational English as a Second Language. A specialized branch of ESL that deals with English language skills in the workplace.
YLE	<p>Young Learners English Tests. Cambridge tests to assess the English of primary learners between the ages of 7 and 12. There are three levels: Starters, Movers and Flyers. The tests aim to sample relevant and meaningful language use, measure ability accurately and fairly, and promote and encourage effective learning and teaching. Each level of the test has three components: Reading and Writing, Listening, and Speaking.</p> <p>As the highest level test, Flyers is roughly equivalent in language level to the KET, it can serve as an appropriate bridge to the KET or a step leading to PET, as learners move into adolescence. Detailed test specifications are available from UCLES.</p>

Reading and Writing.

Paper and pencil test, which lasts 20 minutes (Starters) or 40 minutes (Flyers). Texts are short and constrained by a specified set of words and structures. Candidates perform simple operations such as selecting and ticking, writing words and phrases in gaps (cloze), or answering open-ended questions. Papers are sent to UCLES for marking.

Listening

Paper and pencil test, which lasts 20 minutes (Starters and Flyers) or 25 minutes (Movers). Texts are limited in the language assessed to what is specified in the test specifications. Candidates listen to recorded dialogues involving child and adult speakers, and perform simple operations such as drawing lines, selecting, matching and coloring. Papers are sent to UCLES for marking.

Speaking

Face-to-face test, which lasts 5 and 10 minutes with suitably qualified, experienced and trained Examiners. Children perform various activities in response to prompts from the examiner using visual stimuli, and give simple information about themselves.

Results

There is no pass or fail. Every candidate who attempts all three components will receive an Award showing a number of badges (Cambridge crests) out of five for each component. For example, a candidate may obtain three badges for Reading and Writing, four badges for Listening and five badges for Speaking. The minimum award for children who have attempted all three components is an Award with one badge for each component. Marking is completed at UCLES within two weeks of receiving the children's completed answer booklets.

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