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CLASSROOM LANGUAGE

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CLASSROOM LANGUAGE

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For 3 Year students

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"Classroom Language" is a manual of theory and practice which can be used in theoretical and practical course of "Classroom Language". Its aim is to explore approaches, methods, and problems related to the development of classroom language in ELT. The book is divided into two parts, first one containing lectures, second part is practical and consists of activities. The book ends with the list of the authors, whose works have been addressed to create the manual.

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PREFACE

The training manual is based on the new state educational standard, model and working training program and is intended to teach classroom language to the 3rd year students of English language and literature department. The task of integration of our country into the international community, rapid development of Science and technology, competition of the younger generation in the multicultural world requires the cultivation of professional teachers who know foreign languages well. This determines the implementation of international standards of teaching foreign languages in the education system of the Republic of Uzbekistan.

There are not enough textbooks and manuals dedicated to the subject of classroom language.

This training manual is designed to teach students of the faculties of foreign languages (English) to develop the ability of using English language as medium for classroom instruction, giving feedback, error correction and other teaching practices. Assignments included in the curriculum allow students to formulate the skills and knowledge necessary for classroom language development.

The given manual gets the students acquainted to modern pedagogical technologies as means of effective language teaching. Magazines, newspapers, conference proceedings and Internet materials published in English in foreign and native languages were widely addressed to facilitate the creation of the book.

We are confident that the manual will greatly help students develop their classroom language skills by furthering their interest in English language teaching.

"It's time to create a new system of teaching foreign languages – a solid foundation for the future"

Shavkat Mirziyoyev

"Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world."

Nelson Mandela

"What we learn with pleasure we never forget."

Alfredy Mercier

PART I
LESSON 1. TEACHER'S PHYSICAL PRESENCE IN CLASS

Plan:

1. What is teaching presence?
2. Teaching presence: identifying a framework.
3. Research findings on teaching presence.

The relationship between instructor and student is at the heart of the learning process. Instructional settings characterized by frequent and meaningful instructor-student interactions have consistently been found to support student achievement and learning satisfaction.

With responsibilities ranging from the selection of appropriate instructional methods to fostering positive and supportive learning climates, the evidence that instructors play a critical and influential role in supporting student achievement is robust (Hattie, 2009; Nye, Konstantopoulous, & Hedges, 2004).

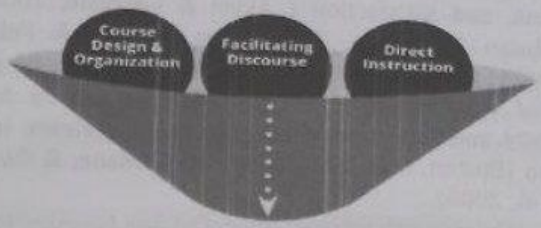
As education has increasingly moved online, however, many of the interactional affordances typically found in a traditional classroom have been displaced by new technologies or have been made impractical by geographic and temporal distances. In online learning, for example, instructor-student communication is primarily computer mediated, often involving asynchronous text-based exchanges, and thus lacks the physical nuances and

immediacy of face-to-face interactions. These significant changes in instructor-student dynamics have prompted educators to call for increased research into the emerging roles and responsibilities of online instructors. From this research has emerged the concept of teaching presence, broadly characterized as the virtual "visibility" of an instructor in an online learning environment, an idea that has become the subject of significant scholarly attention in recent years (Baker, 2010). While teaching presence is still an emerging area of inquiry, and recommendations remain tentative, substantial progress has been made in conceptualizing and investigating the importance of establishing teaching presence in online learning (Swan, 2003).

Teaching presence: identifying a framework. In an effort to promote best teaching practices, a number of empirically-informed guidelines have been proposed during the past several decades to formalize available research on teaching and learning (e.g., Chickering & Gamson, 1987). More recently, scholars have sought to develop updated models that capture the unique and novel features of learning in the online medium. One model that has generated significant interest from researchers of online learning is the Community of Inquiry (COI) framework proposed by Garrison, Anderson, and Archer (2000). Garrison, et al. contend that effective online learning/teaching is best understood in terms of the interrelationship of three types of presence: (1) cognitive presence, the ability of learners to construct meaning and build understanding; (2) social presence, the capacity of learners to present themselves as "real people" with individual characteristics; and (3) teaching presence, the design and facilitation of cognitive/social presences to achieve learning outcomes. The COI framework conceptualizes effective online learning as the result of appropriately designed and encouraged interactions between instructional content, students, and instructors (Swan, 2003). Most relevant for our purposes is the concept of teaching presence which has, to a significant extent, framed past and current research into the activities of successful online instructors.

Teaching presence is defined in the COI model as "the design, facilitation, and direction of [student] cognitive and social processes for the purpose of realizing personally meaningful and educationally worthwhile learning outcomes" (Anderson, Rourke, Garrison, & Archer, 2001). More concretely, teaching presence consists of three discrete elements: instructional design and organization, facilitation of discourse, and direct instructional activities. It is claimed that teaching presence is the "binding element" that connects an online learning community together and makes possible the cognitive and social activities required for effective online learning (Garrison, et al., 2000; Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2005). A closer look at these elements of teaching presence reveal more detailed guidelines for online instructors.

Teaching presence begins prior to any interactions with students through the **design and organization** of an online course (Arbaugh, 2007). Decisions regarding course goals, timetables, and curricular materials reflect the instructor's role as the primary designer and administrator of students' learning experience (Anderson, et al., 2001). Successfully fulfilling this role—for instance, by making learning outcomes clear and ensuring a strong link between learning activities and assessments—supports students 'efforts to navigate a course and construct meaning from instructional content. Instructors also play a critical role in **facilitating discourse** among course participants. Learning outcomes are improved when students actively participate in collaborative dialogues with other participants (peers and teachers) through discussions that personalize, challenge, and expand on the topics covered in class. As a result, instructors have a primary role in promoting productive discourse by focusing class discussions, raising pertinent questions, finding areas of consensus, and moderating student participation (Shea, Li, & Pickett, 2006). Finally, teaching presence depends on the effective and frequent use of **direct instruction.** Instructors engage in direct



Teaching Presence

instruction when exercising scholarly leadership, through coherent content presentation and the injection of external resources/perspectives, and conducting evaluative activities, such as providing feedback or assessing student understanding (Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2005). It should be noted that these interactions between teacher and student do not require synchronicity; in fact, research suggests that online courses employing an effective asynchronous approach often achieve greater student achievement than those mandating frequent synchronous interactions (Bernard, et al., 2004).

The construct of teaching presence as described by the COI framework provides an intuitive and explanatorily powerful framework for understanding the important roles of effective online instructors. For these reasons it has found widespread support among online educators and is arguably the most influential and widely used model for researching teaching online (Anderson, 2008). Accordingly, the COI framework has generated a significant scholarly literature among online learning researchers.

Research findings on teaching presence. The general literature consensus is that teaching presence is strongly predictive of several important variables believed to contribute to student learning (Garrison, 2007; Swan, 2003). Studies investigating the influence of teaching presence in online learning consistently report a significant positive relationship between COI teaching presence indicators (i.e., course design, facilitation, and

direct instruction) and student perceptions of learning, motivation, and satisfaction (Akyol & Garrison, 2008; Baker, 2010; Russo & Benson, 2005; Shea, Pickett, & Pelz, 2003). Additionally, teaching presence has been found to be positively correlated with students' feelings of belonging to a learning community and can account for significant variance in student retention (Boston, Diaz, Gibson, Ice, Richardson, & Swan, 2010; Shea, et al., 2006).

Notably, research has also indicated that teaching presence is more predictive of student success in online learning than interactions with peers (Marks, Sibley, & Arbaugh, 2005; Means, Bakia, & Murphy, 2014). This finding has been attributed to the observation that a strong teaching presence, as evidenced by a robust course structure and active instructor leadership, is crucial for achieving deep and meaningful learning outcomes (Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2005). Conversely, online courses dominated by student interactions can easily devolve into exchanges of poorly-reasoned personal experiences and extended serial monologues (Angeli, Valanides, & Bonk, 2003).

While research on the importance of teaching presence is promising, we must remain cautious about overreaching in our conclusions. Current research is preliminary and largely based on self-report data utilizing student/instructor surveys. It thus lacks the experimental rigor to make any definitive causal claims about the impact of teaching presence on improving student learning (Rourke & Kanuka, 2009). That being said, recent preliminary research explicitly investigating the link between teaching presence and objective learning outcomes (i.e., course grades) has been encouraging (Shea, Vickers, & Hayes, 2010).

Establishing an effective teaching presence. Although available research provides only provisional guidance, the importance of the three elements of teaching presence are corroborated by surveys of experienced online students and teachers (Kupczynski, Ice, Wiesenmayer, & McCluskey, 2010; Shea, et al. 2003; Sheridan & Kelly 2010). In addition, many of the specific guidelines associated with teaching presence—e.g., providing students with clear goals, frequent feedback, and strong

direct instruction—are well-supported by available empirical research (Hattie, 2009).

Below we outline a number of techniques for creating and maintaining an effective online teaching presence utilizing the COI framework. These suggestions have been adapted from a number of sources (Anderson, et al., 2001; Baker, 2010; Lowenthal & Parscal, 2008).

Course Design/Organization	Facilitating Discourse	Direct Instruction
•Provide clear course learning goals. •Share a course overview and welcome message •Hold initial face-to-face or synchronous meeting to introduce teacher and course. •Ensure instructions for completing course activities and using required technology are clear. •Set expectations for student participation and activity in the course. •Communicate assignment deadlines and give frequent reminders as deadlines approach. •Provide engaging, relevant, an appropriate active learning opportunities. • Design assessments that are congruent with	• Begin course with a trust building conversation (e.g., introductions and icebreakers). • Provide clear discussion participation requirements (length, content expectations, netiquette, and timeliness). • Foster fruitful discussions through engaging/open-ended questions. • Challenge and test student ideas (ask for justification/ rationale). • Monitor discussion to ensure productive dialogue and shape direction as necessary. • Model appropriate contributions. • Focus on student creating	• Offer specific ideas/share expert and scholarly knowledge. • Help students correct misconceptions/diagnose understanding. • Suggest new resources/ content; inject knowledge from outside resources. • Connect ideas (analogies, related topics) and make abstract concepts concrete. • Provide personal anecdotes and commentary on teacher's own efforts to master material. • Provide frequent feedback and evaluation guidance (particularly explanatory feedback—expansion of ideas/ different explanation). • Present content in effective and focused manner. • Raise questions that lead to reflection and cognitive

learning goals
• Communicate expectations for teacher participation (e.g., extent of teacher involvement in class discussions and email response times).
• Present content in a conversational rather than academic style.

meaning and confirming understanding.
• Encourage "thinking out loud" and openness for all ideas.
• Identify areas of agreement/ disagreement.
• Reinforce and encourage participation (draw in less active participants and temper more active posters).
• Find consensus/agreement; summarize class discussions
• Share personal meaning/ experiences.

dissonance.
• Scaffold student understanding as necessary.
• Annotate/comment on assigned scholarly work to personalize and add interest.

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LESSON 2. BODY LANGUAGE

Plan:

1. Definition and background of Body language
2. Types of Body Language
3. The importance of Body Language in Teaching
4. Cultural Differences in Body Language

Definition and background of Body language.

Communication between human beings is always coordinated with other behaviours. These displays in face-to-face communication are essential items in conveying information. The informative communication is important and it is widely transferred by means of verbal language. Emotional and attitudinal communications are expressed primarily by other means refer to as Paralanguage and Kinesics. (Key, 1970, p. 16)

Paralanguage, as defined by the Oxford Dictionary is the non-lexical component of communication by speech. Paralanguage is mostly concerned with voice nuances as means of expressing feelings and thoughts. Whereas Kinesics, which is the anthropological term for Body Language, appeared with the development of paralinguistic studies in 1952 by the American anthropologist Ray Birdwhistell, it basically refers to the study of gestures and facial expressions and other body movements.

Body language is an old aged science; it was first to appear as Physiognomy, which is the art of discovering temperament and character from the outward appearance (Merriam-Webster, n.d). This science originated from ancient Greeks. It was then revived in the beginning of the 19 th century by the Swiss pastor and poet Johann Kaspar Lavater in his book Physiognomische Fragmente zur Beförderung der Menschenkenntnis und Menschenliebe 1 1775-1778. (Chisholm, 1911).

The science of Physiognomy was related to other science called Phrenology, literally "mental science" originated by Gall and Spurzheim. It was based on some brain measurements and of its development as an organ (Dictionary.com, n.d). This science of Phrenology was considered as a pseudoscience because it did not rely on a valid scientific method. Since Physiognomy was associated with Phrenology it was written-off for a period of time.

The science of Physiognomy was revived by many researchers around the world as a way to know human beings' behaviours. It is called the New Physiognomy and it has a tied relation to the movement of human body in communication (Wiseman, 2009) which is the core of the study of modern body language.

By the end of the twentieth century, researchers like Albert Mehrabian and Birdwhistell have taken Darwin's observations from his book The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals 1872, on nonverbal cues and signals. Birdwhistell found out that the amount of non-verbal communication is bigger than the verbal one. He estimated that the normal person speaks an average of 10 or 11 minutes a day, and the average sentence takes about 2.5 seconds. Mehrabian have found, also through many experiments, that words are only 7% of the whole communication, the rest 35 and 65 are divided between vocal variety and body movements (gestures, postures, facial expressions...)(Wainwright, 2010).

Considerably, it has been found that some of our inborn gestures and facial expressions are similar to those of primates (apes, chimpanzees...) as referred by Charles Darwin in his book The Expressions of the Emotions in Man and Animals. Mammalians show some facial expressions and even significant body movements. Aggression signs, for instance, are characterised by the opening of the mouth, direct staring, and forward erection of ears (Waller, 2013) Humans are just the evolutional version primates according to Darwin's evolutionary theory.

In Kinesics, a "kine" is the smallest observable unit. In linguistics we have the terms phoneme in Phonology and morpheme in morphology, there is also the term "kineme" in Kinesics. A kineme is a movement associated with meaning, and it

is considered to be a basic unit in studying different criteria of body movement. A person is kinetically-mature means that he/she knows how to use her/his body and knows when and where a movement is done. The person who uses body movements with no real meaning is immature kinetically according to Birdwhistell.

Types of Body Language. What types of body language can be recognised and distinguishable? Knowing about the types and each unit in reading body language helps us controlling our nonverbal behaviour through our communication.

a) Postures Each person has his/her repertoire of postures, and they are considered as a tool to characterise and recognize ourselves. It also helps us giving good impressions about us in our social lives. Some people have what Birdswhistell described "Preferred Postures", those people are said to be reflected by their past. For example, those who faced bullying, or were forced to stand up for themselves as children, may show curved, defensive postures and will imply on everything they do in their daily lives. There are three kinds of postures: standing postures, sitting postures, and lying down postures. This section will mainly deal with the first two. Positions of the legs and the arms, and body orientations are what postures mostly composed of. (Wainwright, 2011, p. 94) Knowing others' postures as they are standing/sitting allow us to determine the most productive approach to deal with them, Albert Mehrabian shows how postures reflect our mental attitudes:

Open or Close: People with arms folded, legs crossed, and bodies turned away are signaling rejection of the messages being conveyed (Murugan). On the other hand, people showing open hands, fully facing the audience and (if sitting) both feet are on the ground, they are more open to others, and accepting what the others are saying, they are more willing to interact (positive attitude).

Forward or Back: When people are leaning forward and pointing towards you, even with a small angle, they are actively accepting or criticizing (evaluating) the information given to them. If they are leaning back, looking at the ceiling or probably

busy with anything (looking at their fingers, cleaning their glasses, looking around...) they are not interested in the lecture or ignoring it (find it boring), or they passively absorb the messages being broadcasted.

b) Gestures Gestures express attitudes, emotions and non-verbal reactions. They permit a degree of expressiveness that other aspects of nonverbal communication don't. Gestures are important not only in body language, but also in sign language (the language used by deaf and mute people). According to Gerard Nierenberg and Henry Calero, gestures express attitudes and emotions like openness, frustration, confidence, nervousness...etc. Several scientists classified gestures in categories. For instance, Michael Argyle 2 who suggested the following classification of gestures:

- Illustrations and other speech-linked signals.
- Conventional signs and sign language.
- Movements that express emotions.
- Movements that express personality.
- Movements that are related to religious practices and cultural rituals. Other categorisation done by the psychologist Paul Ekman and Wallace Friesen show that gestures are divided according to: ¬ Emblems: movements that substitute words. (Can easily be translated. E.g. the ok sign). ¬ Illustrators: movements that accompany speech.

Regulators: movements signalling the change in listening or speaking roles. (E.g. nodding is a sign to encourage the speaker that you are following.)

Adaptors: movements betraying the person's emotional state, unconscious cues. (E.g. hair twisting, swinging legs). ¬ Affect displays: movements that directly reveal emotions. More related to facial expressions. Some gestures are universal i.e. they have the same meaning wherever we go. For example: rubbing palms together to show anticipation; yawning as a sign of boredom; shoulder shrug (it can mean: 'I don't know' or 'I don't care' or 'what else can I do?')

c) Head Tilt "Use your head" doesn't mean only think. Head movements are not only important in speaking but also in listening. They can be conscious or unconscious indicating attitudes and preferences; they can also replace speech and provide support for what is being said. Head movements have a major role especially in public speaking, as a speaker or as a hearer. As a speaker, you use your head to support or emphasise your speech, as a hearer, your nodding is a sign that you are interested; if not, your head will loose and will need your hand to prevent it from falling as a sign of boredom and dislike 3 . We can recognise our audience for being active listeners by looking at their heads, if the head is slightly tilted when they are listening to a certain speech, they are actively listening. You can watch children tilting their heads when someone is speaking to them, and even animals (especially dogs) if they hear anything that delights them. Nodding can mean many things: agreement, approval, acceptance, attention, and understanding.

The importance of Body Language in Teaching. Body language is an important medium in people's communication. It includes gestures and facial expressions. As we know, language is important in communication, but nonverbal communication also can't be neglected. American psychologist Albert said, people get 55% information from expressions. In classroom teaching, nonverbal communication is more important than verbal one. When teaching, teachers will try their best to arouse the student's interest of learning English. Body language as a secondary means of teaching English is vivid, it can warm up the class atmosphere, help students to understand the point, shorten the distance between teacher and students, stir interest of learning English, improving the quality of education. So, in teaching, teachers should learn and work hard to master the means of communication in the application of classroom, servicing teaching.

Cultural Differences in Body Language. The world nowadays is getting smaller, and communication between people all around the world is a must because what is going on in the world concerns everybody. Yet, we sometimes find difficulties in communicating with other people from different cultures though

we may know well their language. People of western countries tend to focus more on body language and eye contact during face-to-face communication while, for instance, Arabs and Muslims find it disrespectful to maintain a long duration eye contact. The Japanese look at other people very little and tend to focus on the face and the neck while conversing. Gestures are also different in many places in the world. One gesture can mean something in The United States, and mean something offensive in another country. Hands and fingers are also different in use; Middle Eastern cultures prevent eating with left hands because they are reserved for bodily hygiene. Some Venezuelans may use their lips to point at things because pointing with a finger is impolite. Though we may differ in many gestures and bodily expressions, we are alike in many others, like universal facial expressions that do not change because they characterize all human beings. The differences may be due to the social customs or some religious factors in society. We have to take into consideration those differences to show respect and appreciate other cultures because people are more comfortable with those who show good manners and sincerity (Joanne).

a) Use your Voice. Teachers perform their lessons as they perform to sell an idea to their audience, with their voice, gestures, and facial expressions. As a teacher, try to address your class with clear and upbeat voice, that's how you take control of your students' divided attention. Nothing is more frustrating for students than struggling to hear the low voice of your lecturer (or those who mumble, stutter...) inside the classroom (Genard, 2012).

b) Avoid Standing behind the Table for too Long Standing behind the table for a long time may create a physical barrier between the teacher and his/her students, and may establish gaps in communication during class, especially teachers who tend to sit all the session on their chairs with no motion or lack of it. Those teachers were described by the majority of students attending as "boring".

c) Use your Space: Occupy space in a way that shows you are comfortable in your class. The way you stand and move on stage

demonstrate confidence, and will lead your audience to trust you and what you are presenting to them. Over moving, on the other hand, may confuse and distract your students. Try to find a way to use space effectively.

d) The Power of Face: The face is very important in any communication. Facial expressions are very helpful in establishing authentic teaching/learning experience, in which students will depend mostly on the face of the teacher to enhance the deliverance of the lesson. The more expressive your face is, the more students will pay attention and engage more in participating to achieve the aim of the class.

e) Hands and Gestures: According to Vanessa Van Edwards 2, our hands play a major role in indicating trust. It is said that back to cave men life, when people encounter, the first thing to do is checking the others' hands for weapons or physical threats so that they can or cannot trust each other. Behaviorists say that this is a survival trick that we still use unconsciously to detect trust-worthy people. Therefore, teachers need to keep their hands open and use them relevantly with verbal communication to indicate trustworthy to their students and gain their attention (Edwards, 2014).

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LESSON 3. TEACHER'S VOICE AND INTONATION

Plan:

1. **Aspects of Voice and the Teacher**
2. **Voice as a tool of pedagogical communication**

Aspects of Voice and the Teacher. The voice consists of various elements, components or aspects some of which are: pitch, volume, tempo, tone, pronunciation, articulation and fluency.

Pitch: The pitch of an individual's voice is created through the vibrations of the vocal folds. It is the frequency of the sound waves an individual produce. It has to do with rise or fall of the sounds produced by the individual; his ability to produce high or low notes in his voice. According to Ogum (2018), pitch is the auditory phonetic attribute which a sound possesses, and its sensation helps a speaker and listener to recognise, classify and place it on a scale graduated from high to low and vice versa. In the course of the teaching-learning process, the teacher needs to vary his pitch. Particularly, when a teacher wants to deliver an important piece of information or essential aspect of the instructional task, he needs to apply pitch. This will enable him get the attention of the learners concerning the information he is trying to convey. There is equally need for the teacher to vary his pitch throughout the lesson delivery. This will establish and reinforce the instructional content.

Volume: Volume is concerned with the loudness of the voice. Some people speak at a much louder volume (than probably necessary), while others need to be urged to speak up. It is important that people adapt their volume to the situation that they are in. This implies that appropriate conversational volume is essential. Teachers thus need to maintain the volume that is appropriate for the particular situation in which they find themselves. However, there is need for them to speak loudly enough in order for everyone in the class to hear them appropriately. They should learn to change the volume of their

voice whenever there is change in the idea they are trying to pass on, and also when there is change in the approach they adopt in passing on the instructional message. In addition, a teacher should raise the volume of his speech gradually as he tries to build a point. Whenever learners are unable to hear what the teacher says, they become frustrated and engage in unwholesome acts that are detrimental to the effectiveness of the teaching-learning process. Some common speaking volume errors as identified by Meikle (2017) include:

- Speaking too quietly.
- Speaking too loudly.
- Speaking at a constant volume.
- Allowing the volume to drop off the end of each sentence.

A teacher needs to vary the volume of his speech. Speaking with a constant volume will bring about monotony and this can affect the effectiveness of the teaching-learning process. Meikle observed that the speech volume problems usually come down to two main causes: physical tension caused by fear and 'a limited vocal comfort zone' (that is the habit of using a fraction of one's full vocal range and not being aware of it). He went further to suggest ways to expand ones' comfort zone. According to him, a softly spoken speaker should:

- give himself permission to speak louder
- learn to speak from one's diaphragm
- consider engaging a voice coach.

An overly loud speaker on the other hand needs to learn to modulate his speech volume to give much needed contrast. A teacher's ability to tune down his volume can create a much more intimate atmosphere that attracts and sustains the students' attention and at the same time, gives their ear the much-needed respite. When a teacher's voice is loud continually, the way he is perceived can be damaging and this can affect the effectiveness of the teaching-learning process. It should be noted that the volume of a teacher's voice is so important that a carefully crafted instructional content can be ruined by a dull vocal delivery.

Tempo: This is about how quickly or slowly an individual speaks. It is the pace of an individual's voice. Individuals tend to

hurry their speech in moments of agitation and this affects the way in which the recipient perceives the spoken utterance. It is important thus that a teacher consciously slows down the pace with which he presents the instructional message from time to time as this can greatly influence the rate at which learners assimilate the content of instruction. Slowing down the pace with which the instructional content is being presented will as well help the teacher ascertain whether he has the learners' attention or not. To successfully slow down the pace of the lesson, a teacher needs to take deep breaths and use a purposeful pause before he presents a salient aspect of his lesson (Ogiator & Okafor, 2012; Washington, 2012).

Pronunciation: Pronunciation refers to an individual's ability to produce comprehensible utterances that are capable of fulfilling task requirements. Accurate spoken language is produced when individuals are able to correctly pronounce the words that they use when communicating. Pronunciation is very important because it is responsible for intelligibility; it accounts for peoples' ability to get across intended message. When words are wrongly pronounced, it brings about misunderstanding. The situation is even more serious in the teaching-learning process because whenever a teacher fails to pronounce words rightly, learners get confused and this can bring about so many devastating effects on the learners (Thornbury in Singh, 2013 as cited by Ochoma, 2015). A teacher, irrespective of whatever subject he teaches, must be able to pronounce words appropriately to avoid being misunderstood by the learners and thus make teaching ineffective.

Fluency: This has to do with the flow of speech. Speaking with fluency means that the individual's speech flows well and there are not many interruptions to the flow. It is very vital that a teacher speaks with fluency if effectiveness is to be attained. Two main problems that affect the flow of speech are fluency hiccups and verbal fillers. While fluency hiccups are intended pauses in a speech that usually result from the speaker's forgetfulness about what he was saying, verbal fillers are words or phrases that a speaker uses to fill in a moment of silence between connecting

thoughts. Fluency hiccups and verbal fillers are capable of distorting the flow of speech, so teachers should try as much as possible, to avoid them.

For proper use of voice, every teacher needs to be aware of the various aspects of voice and use them appropriately. All the various aspects of voice ought to fluctuate as the teacher presents the instructional message through the medium of language via the spoken words. Where this is missing, the teacher speaks in monotone and this can have a devastating effect on the learners to the extent that some learners can even switch-off. It is pertinent to note that what a teacher does with his body in the course of teaching is as influential as the words he speaks. Washington (2012) averred that the teacher's body, tone of voice and the words he speaks must match. The teacher should be able to 'show' while he 'tells' the learners that what he has got to share is exciting, relevant, and important. In order to have learners that are motivated, energised, focused and actively paying attention to the instructional task, the teacher's personality via the quality of his voice must reflect such.

Voice as a tool of pedagogical communication. Pedagogical activity is based on communication, and the effectiveness of teaching often directly depends on how masterfully the teacher has the skills to use a variety of means of communication. The interest of students in the subject being studied is largely determined by the ability of the teacher to vividly present the material being studied. Even more important is the personality of the teacher, his ability to lead, charm and inspire. But for this, he needs not only to skillfully use his communicative experience, but also to develop opportunities in this area.

Today, many teachers are convinced that they always know with whom and how to communicate, so they do not think about replenishing their knowledge in the field of communication, continuing to be in the zone so-called unconscious communicative incompetence. This significantly reduces the effectiveness of their professional activity. During communication, information comes to us through communication channels that arise with the participation of various senses: visual (visual), auditory (hearing),

kinesthetic (motor), tactile (based on sensations), osmotic (olfactory, associated with smells), tasting (taste). At the same time, as American researchers have long proven, verbal communication in a conversation takes less than 35%, and more than 65% of information is transmitted using non-verbal means. Therefore, non-verbal become the most important means of pedagogical communication. Although the ratio of information transmitted verbally to information without the help of words in pedagogy seems not so unambiguous, no one will dispute the importance of non-verbal means in education and upbringing.

Teachers working with students, children of primary and even secondary school age know that the intonation of the voice, its timbre coloration, the rate of speech and even pauses can affect the wards extremely strongly, causing a variety of emotions and thereby reinforcing (or weakening) knowledge , and cravings for them in children.

This happens because words are controlled by consciousness, and non-verbal means act bypassing consciousness, which means that they are always more accurate and accurate, even if we do not understand this, we are not aware of it. Thus, taking into account the peculiarities of perception and interpretation of the incoming in the process communication of information, the teacher needs to take into account not only the verbal text, but also the non-verbal context.

Let us dwell on the non-verbal means of pedagogical communication transmitted and perceived through the auditory transmission channel. They are called paralinguistic and are associated with the expressive features of the human voice. These include timbre, tempo, diction, articulation, pause, manner of speech, as well as loudness and melodic coloring of the voice.

The voice is the teacher's most powerful tool. Its expressiveness is perceived by schoolchildren not so much by reason as by feeling. The well-known adage is widely known: "It is not so important what they say, it is more important how they do it." Paralinguists identify four The main voice dimensions that a teacher should pay attention to are loudness, pitch, speed, and pauses. By itself, loud or soft speech is neither good nor bad. Only

in the context of what has been said and in conjunction with intonation, pauses, register, the dynamics of the teacher's speech helps the perception of what was said, or levels it. By training the vocal apparatus, the teacher expands the boundaries of his influence on students.

The loudness of a voice indicates its dynamic response. The loudness directly depends on the strength of the voice, which comes from the subglottic pressure, from the tension of the exhaled air, from the degree of closing of the vocal folds. Interestingly, the perception of the strength or loudness of the voice varies greatly depending on its gender. Objectively, the male voice can be louder than the female, which, among other things, is associated with a relatively larger lung volume and higher subglottic pressure. At the same time, the female voice can be perceived and seem louder, since its highest overtones have more flight.

The volume level of the teacher's voice should be appropriate for the size of the audience. It is advisable to accurately place accents and emphasize verbal nuances by either raising or lowering the volume of the voice during the lesson. The strength of the voice, if necessary, should be developed by exercises that increase its endurance and volume. Good for vocal endurance alternating dynamically various techniques: whispering, chanting, singing.

As loudness changes, as a rule, the pitch of the voice or its tone. The pitch of the voice controls the tension of the vocal folds, the frequency of impulses coming from the analyzers of the brain. In the process of speech, it is necessary to pay attention to the repeated change in pitch. The monotony of speech can interfere with teacher-student interaction.

Excited people speak in a higher tone. This is able to draw attention to the issue under discussion, but not for long, because after that comes fatigue from increased, and therefore more intense tones. Already through a few minutes of a teacher's conversation with schoolchildren "in high tones", the tired body of the latter spontaneously "turns off" attention. This is especially true for children of primary school age, whose nervous system,

defending itself, diverts their attention to any foreign object. Psychologists explain this by the fact that all the attention of the person to whom the flow of indignant words is directed is concentrated not on the meaning of the explanation, but on the attitude of the speaker towards him. As a result (as a defensive reaction) a shift of attention occurs, which blocks the analyzer activity of the brain, and addressed the interlocutor does not understand the words - understanding is blocked.

There is a significant difference in the tone of voice between men and women. A grown man speaks (and sings) in a low register that women are naturally unable to reproduce in full and vice versa.

A feature of human perception is that the lower the voice of a person, that is, his voice register, the more pleasant it is to hear. This is due to the prenatal period of human development. Being in the womb, the child hears the surrounding sounds a little lower in pitch than they really are. We also perceive our voice and imagine it to be lower than it really is. Therefore, when for the first time a person hears his voice "from the outside", it seems to him "thin", "squeaky", not solid". Focusing on this feature, teachers, following the radio and television announcers, should develop more low voice register.

Important individual characteristics are also the timbre of the voice (its color), which depends on the anatomical structure of the speech apparatus and on the skills of speech activity, as well as the vocal range (the volume of speech capabilities of all analyzers of the brain). The timbre of the voice, in addition to the individual, has a pronounced gender coloring. Each person has an inherent, largely unique, timbre. The timbre of a girl's speech differs from an old woman, a man from a woman, a child from an adult. The beauty of the timbre is affected by the state of health of the vocal ligaments. It is important for the teacher to know this and, if necessary, to maintain the vocal cords in an elastic state, tempering and treating them in time.

The intonation of speech is remembered most of all. It can be soothing, insinuating, angry, harsh, joyful, enthusiastic, etc. With proper intonation, a teacher can achieve a lot. The melodic,

intonational play on information in itself is already capable of captivating the audience. At the same time, too frequent changes in intonation are tiring almost more than monotonous speech. Therefore, this effective means of non-verbal communication should be used in a dosed manner.

It is important for the teacher to remember that his professional image is greatly influenced by the manner of speaking. A "positive" message is best conveyed to the listeners by ending the statement on a higher, pathetic and energetic note, and a "negative" message is more subdued, in a voice lower and calmer.

Teacher should remember to use pauses skillfully, each time giving them a certain duration and significance: as the speech equivalent of a comma; to separate one thought from another; to focus on something significant; filling it with "dramatic" content and, consequently, acting skills. It also means a lot for establishing contact with the student (for example, distracted, not listening).

A pause can do a lot: attract attention to a phrase or word, to make you think, allows you to comprehend what was said and remember it. The pause enhances the memorization of what was said before and immediately after it. There is an unwritten rule - the longer and more expressive the pause, the more important and significant should be what follows it. A pause is very effective if it taken at the right time and in the right place. So, pauses not only interrupt the flow of speech, they perform psychological functions: they enhance the semantic load, focus on what was said and help to make respite. An experienced teacher can distinguish in speech, the main thing, emphasizing this main thing with intonation or a pause.

An important role for the correct understanding of speech by the interlocutor is played by its speed. The fact is that the difference between the rate of speech of the teacher pronouncing it and the speed of processing this speech by the student can be extremely large both in the direction of increasing the time of perception, and vice versa. Not only too fast speech makes it difficult to comprehend what was said, but also too slow. Delaying on individual words can annoy listeners.

The number of words spoken per minute determines the rate of speech. At the same time, the slow pace is 80–100 words per minute, and the fast pace is 160–180. Today, there is a tendency to compact the information field, and hence the increase in the speed of speech. It is known that over the past 30 years the rate of speech of newscasters reading the news on the country's main channels has quadrupled.

However, too fast speech, sometimes up to 200 words per minute or even more, can create a feeling of haste, associated with the low status of the speaker, who is afraid that he will not be listened to. Slow speech is considered to be a sign of solidity, confidence. Pace or rate of speech for the most part, it depends on the natural characteristics of the teacher's body, more precisely, his temperament and the state of the nervous system. It is equally difficult for listeners of any age to perceive too slow, "stretched" or fast, tongue twister speech. It has been proven that the most optimal speech speed for a teacher is 120–140 words per minute.

So, if the teacher needs to draw the attention of a student or another interlocutor to his own statements, he should:

- reduce the speed of speech;
- make micro-pauses between blocks of words;
- lower your voice slightly;
- give your voice a pleasant timbre, trusting or authoritarian intonations.

In the process of pedagogical communication between interlocutors, a phonetic barrier often arises. This is an obstacle created by the characteristics of the speaker's speech. Phonetics deals with the acoustic and physiological features of speech. Ignorance of its laws, neglect of it requirements hinder the communication process. The phonetic barrier of misunderstanding arises between people when the information they hear, due to some reasons are not perceived by them.

Phonetic misunderstanding can be minor, incomplete (for example, in the pronunciation of words), or complete. Complete misunderstanding occurs when we are spoken to in a foreign language that we do not understand. A barrier of misunderstanding also arises if the teacher speaks indistinctly, in

a tongue twister, with an accent, lisping, etc. Clarity, intelligibility of pronunciation, coupled with the attack of sound and its flight, constitute the crown of the teacher's professionalism in non-verbal communication with his students.

Thus, the teacher needs to speak clearly, loudly enough, while avoiding the monotony and "rate of fire" of speech. It is known that the execution these conditions improves the "passability" of information, optimizes pedagogical communication. Most teachers follow these rules intuitively, and yet phonetic barriers arise whenever when the pace and speed of speech, diction and pronunciation leave much to be desired.

Competent pedagogical communication, the need for self-development of teachers, expressed, among other things, in the formation of skills to apply the acquired knowledge about paralinguistics, in the ability to hone and improve the culture of non-verbal communication - this is an opportunity not only to effectively influence students and interact with them, but also the most affordable way to increase authority of the teacher in society.

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LESSON 4. CREATING A POSITIVE CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT

Plan:

1. Positive classroom environments = positive academic results

2. The elements of a positive learning environment

3. The effects of a positive learning environment

Creating a positive classroom environment is an important aspect of effective teaching. By creating positive classroom environments, teachers are provided the opportunity for better classroom discipline and management. A positive classroom environment is essential in keeping behavior problems to a minimum. It also provides the students with an opportunity to think and behave in a positive manner. Positive classroom environments help to enhance, promote, and encourage students' learning in all academic settings. The classroom environment can be defined in terms of the students' and teachers' shared perceptions in that environment (Fraser & Pickett, 2010).There are a number of ways in which teachers can create positive classroom environments. Some suggestions for creating a positive classroom environment includes: starting the year with high expectations, encouraging student involvement, making the classroom visually appealing, getting parents involved, and using effective praise and effective feedback.

It is essential for teachers to start the school year with high expectations in order to guarantee a positive classroom environment. The implementation of positive expectations should occur on the first day of school. By doing this, the students will gain a sense of ownership & responsibility for their actions. This implementation will encourage them to behave and act appropriately with an academically structured setting. Teachers should adhere to these expectations throughout the school year. Teachers must strictly adhere to the structured guidelines set forth at the onset of the school year. Failure to do so will undermine the process and students will revert to previous undesirable behaviors. To ensure a positive classroom

environment, teachers must explain why expectations are important. Students must also have an input in the development of a positive environment. This involvement will allow them to become stakeholders in the learning process and encourages an atmosphere of shared beliefs (Andrews, 2008). This new found sense of responsibility enables students to make their own decisions about learning. One possible strategy utilized to encourage student involvement is the use of classroom monitors. The monitor (s) can be either an individual student or a group of students. These students will have assigned tasks to be carried out on a daily bases within the classroom. This engaging activity allows them to have positive interaction with their peers with the classroom setting. As a result, the students are provided an opportunity to take on leadership roles. The classroom should also be arranged and set-up in a way that promotes and increases students' learning through group cohesiveness. The classroom should be inviting by using bright, and bold colors on the walls. Blair (2008), states that, "No one wants to learn in a dull environment". The teachers should also encourage academic engagement by incorporating the use of word walls and thematic units in the classroom. The word walls and thematic units may serve as motivational tools for the students. These areas should always be organized, neat, and clean. Keeping bulletin boards up-to-date in the classroom encourages students to perform to the best of their ability. Undeniably, the appearance of a classroom leads to a positive classroom environment and a productive school year.

Moreover, allowing and encouraging parents to be involved within the classroom can aid in creating a positive environment. Parental involvement in the classroom and in their child's education are two factors that play a crucial role in having a successful school year as well as having a positive classroom environment. Blair (2008), states that, "When parents are involved in the classroom , it sends the message that what is happening in the classroom is important." Parents may actively get involved by chaperoning on field trips and taking part in special events that take place at the school and out of school.

Teachers should remember to always try to involve those parents who are unable to be actively involved in the classroom throughout the school day.

A positive classroom environment is an important tool for establishing a successful and effective school year. There are numerous factors that may have an influence on positive classroom environments. However, it is critical that teachers create a positive classroom environment to encourage the students' growth. A positive classroom environment enhances the students' ability to learn and to be productive in and out of the classroom.

The elements of a positive learning environment. There are three elements of a positive learning environment; physical, psychological, and instructional. The physical environment in the classroom includes how furniture is arranged, how materials are stored and maintained, the cleanliness of the classroom, and the overall color and brightness. Classrooms should be inviting environments that make students feel good to be there. The psychological environment in the classroom is how the students feel about their learning. When instructions are clear and consistent, praise and gratitude is offered, and teachers set a good example, students are confident and comfortable in the classroom. The instructional environment is the setting for all teaching. When teacher's instructions are clear, there are hands-on activities, cooperative learning groups, and small group activities, learning is interesting and fun. This keeps students engaged, which means they will likely remember content long-term.

The effects of a positive learning environment. Students learn better when they view the learning environment as positive and supportive. In fact, this study from The University of Salford shows that the classroom environment can affect student's learning and academic progress by as much as 25%. According to this study, a positive environment is one where students feel a sense of belonging, trust others, and feel encouraged to tackle challenges, ask questions, and take risks. An environment such as this provides relevant content, chances to build social skills, clear

learning goals and feedback, and strategies to help students succeed.

Here at The Roig Academy, we empower, nurture, and promote student achievement in a learning environment where children feel comfortable taking risks in order to inquire, explore and reflect upon their learning. Our staff teach to the whole child by engaging in ongoing teacher collaboration and use differentiated instructional techniques that are supported by current and best practices in teaching and learning. These various teaching strategies allow us to foster the development of the whole child encompassing social, physical, emotional and cultural needs, as well as academic welfare.

We encourage flexible seating and collaborative work, use fun and engaging technology in our classrooms, and work hard to ensure that each child has all the tools they need to succeed. Each child's unique social, physical, emotional, cultural and academic welfare is nurtured in a supportive learning community. Our learning environment is a place where all children feel safe, respected, and loved.

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LESSON 5. QUESTIONING AND ELICITATION

Plan:

1. The role of questioning in the classroom
2. Why do teachers ask questions?
3. Types of questions

Since Socrates, and probably before, teachers have used questions to stimulate thinking in the classroom. Appropriate questions help teachers and students learn from one another (Lathan, 1957 as cited from Wood; Carol, 2001). Reviews of research findings on questioning reveal that it is an effective skill "to stimulate student interaction, thinking, and learning" (Wilen, Ishler, Hutchison", and K.indsvatter, 2000 as cited from Wood; Carol, 2001).

A teacher's questioning technique, correlating with enhanced achievement, should include a balance of convergent and divergent questions, probing questions, listening to student responses, redirecting student responses to other students, providing respectful feedback, and allowing for appropriate time after asking a question. Convergent questions serve the purpose of getting low-level cognitive information from students; divergent or open-ended questions are more likely to stimulate a discussion and foster an interactive and democratic classroom atmosphere (Wood; Carol, 2001).

Every day teachers ask dozens, even hundreds of questions, thousands in a single year, over a million during a professional lifetime (Wragg 2001). Questioning has been and is a dominant method of instruction in the classroom. Some say questioning is, in fact, the most important teaching technique in use today. The greatest attribute of questioning is that it stimulates thinking in the classroom (Filippone, 1998).

Research indicates that almost 40% of classroom time is spent in a question-response mode (Johnson, Markle, & Haley-Oliphant, 1987). Nevertheless, many teachers do not ask questions effectively (Gall, 1984). Ineffective or inappropriate practices include asking questions at only lower cognitive levels

(Ornstein, 1987), directing a disproportionate percentage of questions toward limited number of students (Jones, 1990), or waiting only for a short time after asking a question and before reacting to the student's response - typically one second or less (Rowe, 1986). Questions too often flow in only one direction and become a way of maintaining control rather than stimulating thought. For example, teachers are likely to ask at least 50 questions during a typical class period while it is unlikely that the students in the class ask even one question (McGlathery, 1978 as cited from Barnette, 1994).

Researchers, Rothkopf (1967) and Prase (1963), consider questions as an important form of instructional interaction as they act as motivational stimuli and have arousal and associative outcomes. Through asking questions the teacher has the ability to construct students thinking and ways of inquiry. Stevens (1912) stated that approximately eighty percent of a teacher's school day was spent asking questions directed towards their students. More contemporary research on teacher questioning behaviors and patterns indicate that this has not changed. Teachers today ask between 300-400 questions each day (Leven and Long, 1981 as cited from Brualdi, 1998). Teachers ask questions for several reasons (Morgan and Saxton, 1991 as cited from Brualdi, 1998):

1. The act of asking questions helps teachers keep students actively involved in lessons.
2. While answering questions, students have the opportunity to openly express their ideas and thoughts
3. Questioning students enables other students to hear different explanations of the material by their peers
4. Asking questions helps teachers to pace their lessons and moderate student behavior
5. Questioning students helps teachers to evaluate student learning and revise their lessons as necessary

As one may deduce, questioning is one of the most popular modes of teaching. Unfo1iunately, although the act of asking questions has the potential to greatly facilitate the learning process it also has the capacity to tum a child off if done inconectly (Brualdi, 1998). Questioning is an integral part of scientific

inquiry and the learning process. Students' questions can reveal much about the quality of their thinking and conceptual understanding (Watts and Alsop 1995, White and Gunstone 1992, Woodward 1992), their alternative frameworks and confusion about various concepts (MaskiH and Pedrosa de Jesus 1997), their reasoning (Donaldson 1978), and what they want to know (Elstgeest 1985).

In order to teach well it is widely believed that one must be able to question well. Asking good questions fosters interaction between the teacher and his/her students. Rosenshine (1971) found that large amounts of student-teacher interaction promote student achievement. Thus, one can surmise that good questions foster student understanding. However, it is important to know that not all questions achieve this. Teachers spend most of their time asking low-level cognitive questions (Wilen, 1991). These questions concentrate on factual infonnation that can be memorized (ex. What year did the Civil War begin? Or who wrote "Great Expectations"?). It is widely believed that this type of questions can limit students by not helping them to acquire a deep, elaborate understanding of the subject matter (Brualdi, 1998).

High-level-cognitive questions can be defined as questions that require students to use higher order thinking or reasoning skills. By using these skills, students do not remember only factual knowledge. Instead, they use their knowledge to solve, to analyze, and to evaluate. It is believed that this type of questions reveal the most about whether or not a student has truly grasped a concept. This is because a student needs to have a deep understanding of the topic in order to answer his type of question. Teachers do not use high-level-cognitive questions with the same amount of frequency as they do with low-level-cognitive questions. Ellis (1993) claims that many teachers do rely on low-level cognitive questions in order to avoid a slow-paced lesson, keep the attention of the students, and maintain control of the classroom. Arends (1994) argues that many of the findings concerning the effects of using lower level-cognitive questions versus higher-level-cognitive questions have been inconclusive. While some

studies favour asking high-level-cognitive questions, other studies reveal the positive effects of asking low-level cognitive questions. Gall (1984), for example, point out that "where emphasis on fact questions is more effective for promoting young disadvantaged children's achievement, which primarily involves mastery of basic skills, emphasis on higher cognitive questions is more effective for students of average and high ability..." (p. 41). Nevertheless, other studies do not reveal any difference in achievement between students whose teachers use mostly high level questions and those whose teachers ask mainly low level questions (Arends, 1994; Wilen, 1991).Teachers decide to ask low level cognitive or high level cognition questions in accordance with the needs and interests of students to help them understand the subject matter.

Why do teachers ask questions?

Reasons for teachers asking questions to their pupils in classrooms are often rather different from those in everyday conversation. Put another way the rules of talk in the classroom are different from those in other contexts. We question students not to obtain new knowledge for ourselves but to find out what the student already knows. This principle is stressed by Ausubel: "The most important single factor influencing learning is what the learner already knows. Asce1iain this and teach him/her accordingly" (1978 as cited from Wragg 2001).

Other reasons for asking questions are to stimulate recall, to deepen understanding, to develop imagination, and to encourage problem solving. There are also questions to do with classroom management such as, 'Have you got your books?' Turney et *al* (1973), in their first edition of the Sydney Micro Series, list twelve possible functions of questions (see below).

- To arouse interest and curiosity concerning a topic
- To focus attention on a particular issue or concept
- To develop an active approach to learning
- To stimulate pupils to ask questions for themselves and others
- To structure a task in such a way that learning will be maximized
- To diagnose specific difficulties inhibiting pupil learning

• To communicate with the group that involvement in the lesson is expected,and that overt participation by all members of the group is valued

• To provide an opportunity for pupils to assimilate and reflect upon information

• To involve pupils in using an inferred cognitive operation on the assumption that this will assist in developing thinking skills,

• To afford an opportunity for pupils to learn vicariously through discussion Tumey et *al. (1973 as citedfrom Wragg, 2001)*

Tumey's list is rather more comprehensive than that of most young teachers who are for the first time considering the way they ask questions. For example, in a study of 190 teachers in US elementary schools, Pate and Bremer (1967) asked teachers to provide reasons for asking questions. They found that the most common category was questions to check knowledge and understanding' followed by 'diagnosing pupils' difficulties' and 'recall of facts'. Only 10 per cent stressed the use of questions to encourage pupils to think. Significantly, there were no responses suggesting that questions may be used to help pupils to learn from each other, or that questions may be used to encourage pupils to ask their own questions. Yet when teaching is discussed amongst professional people encouraging pupils to talk and think is often stated as a high priority (Wragg 2001).

Types of questions. While forming questions, not only the level of the thinking skills that students will be required to use in answering, but also the types and/or amounts of responses the question will prompt from the students should be thought. Generally questions can be put in three types; convergent, divergent and evaluative questions.

Convergent Questions (Fact Questions). Convergent questions are those that require one correct answer or a limited number of acceptable answers. This type of questions is useful for establishing facts or ascertaining answers to problems that have one correct answer. Convergent questions, for the most part, elicit short responses from students. In general, they are questions of fact and recall and are often low level.

Teachers use convergent questions if they use an inductive teaching style. Also the teacher may wish to use short-response questions as "warm-up" exercises with which to break the monotony of the traditional classroom. These warm-up exercises may follow a "rapid-fire" method, which would be most appropriate when the teacher is building vocabulary skills. Teachers in foreign language classes may use a convergent, rapid-fire pattern to help develop oral, vocabulary, and spelling skills among students. The use of a convergent, rapid-fire technique also allows for participation by all students. The use of convergent, rapid-fire technique focuses on specific learning objectives, skills, terminologies, or short responses. The use of this technique with short answers may be demonstrated in a math class, in which the teacher wishes the students to practice verbalized rapid calculation. A social studies teacher may want to use a pinpoint technique in identifying specific bits of information or facts.

The basic convergent pattern allows the teacher to "dominate" the thinking of the students by asking for short-length, low-level intellectual responses that involve a single answer or a limited number of logical answers. The convergent technique is an ideal application of "teacher-directed instruction" or direct instruction, where all students in class respond in unison to teacher-asked questions. Everyone participates.

An exception to this rule involves solutions for problems requiring application, or analysis. For example, if the math teacher asks "I have 400 feet of fence, and I want to enclose the maximum area in a four sided figure. What should the dimension be?", This is a high-level question, but is still convergent in that only one answer to the problem is correct.

Examples of convergent questions:

1. What's 6 X 9?
2. Under what conditions will water boil at less than 100℃?
3. What helps bread dough rise?
4. Where do relatively few people live in the desserts of any country?
5. What's the chemical formula for table salt?
6. Explain the "Big Bang" theory.

Divergent Questions (Interpretive Questions). While convergent questions require one correct answer, divergent questions are just the opposite, in that many different answers are appropriate. The focus of divergent questions is broad. Rather than seeking a single focus the teacher evokes student responses that vary greatly. Divergent questions also elicit longer student responses. Although often there will still be correct and incorrect answers, students have more freedom in responding to "free think" the answer to a divergent question. The "open-endedness" of these questions encourages students to consider many possibilities. When ideas are discussed and teacher wants to elicit a variety of responses from the students, divergent types of questions are appropriate.

Eliciting multiple responses. If the teacher wishes to elicit multiple responses, a multiple-response technique can be used. In this technique, the teacher asks a question that can be answered with multiple responses and calls on three or four students and then assumes a passive role in this mini-discussion. Such a technique teaches the students to conduct a classroom discussion and sharpens the listening skills of the students.

Accepting diversity. Questioning is one of the most effective tools teachers have for communicating that they value all students and welcome them in their classrooms. When the teacher asks a divergent question, s/he must expect a multiplicity of responses as well as some creative ones. If the teacher elicits diverse responses from the students, then the teacher has the professional obligation to those students' responses. To reinforce appropriate response behavior, the teacher must demonstrate a high degree of acceptance for the response of each student. By doing so the teacher sends a powerful message to students; "I don't care if you're a boy or a girl, minority or nonminority, or high or low achiever; I want you in my classroom, I believe you are capable of learning, and I'll do whatever it takes to ensure that you're successful."(Kauchak, D.P., Eggen, P.D. 2003; Orlich, D.C., Harder, R.H., Callahan, R.C., Kravas, C.H., Kauchak, D.P., and others. 1985).

The teacher who uses a divergent technique of questioning will soon discover that the students will respond in the higher-

level thinking categories of the cognitive taxonomy- that's "application, analysis, and synthesis". The divergent method is appropriate for eliciting multiple responses from students. If this is the intention of the teacher, it's important to inform the class that a set of multiple responses is desired and each student is wanted to cue from the other students' responses. This means that the teacher does not repeat student responses for other class members. The rationale underlying the technique of not repeating is that if a student knows that the teacher will repeat the previous student's response, then most students become conditioned to listening only for the teacher's repetition of the response. If the teacher is sensitive to this technique –not repeating the student responses -, the students will realize that their responses are important.

(In general, teachers tend to interrupt their students before they fully explain their positions.)

Some examples of divergent questions:

1. How does the environment affect human behavior?
2. How are the plays *Julius Caeser* and *Hamlet* alike?
3. What are the responsibilities of the President of Turkey?
4. Give me one of the most significant dates in the world history?
5. What kinds of evidence would you seek if you were an opponent of the "Big Bang" theory?
6. What would happen if a school had no rules?

As it has been said before that convergent questions are low-level or divergent questions are high-level is not true always. Both convergent and divergent questions can be created at both ends of the knowledge-evaluation continuum (Thomson, S.J., Benson, S.N.K., Pachnowski, L.M., Salzman, J.A.2001:162)

Evaluative Questions

These questions can be under the title divergent questions but the basic difference between a divergent question and an evaluative question is that evaluative question has a built-in evaluative or judgmental set of criteria. An evaluative question asks one to think about his or her own values or experiences. Such

questions sometimes ask a reader to consider how s/he would act in a situation similar to one character in the story finds himself or if s/he has had a similar experience (Moeler, V.C., Moeler, M.V. 2000: 30). When a question *why* something is good or bad is asked an evaluative question is being raised. Sometimes answers to evaluative questions won't have value, but like divergent questions the teacher must accept student responses to encourage students to provide evaluative responses.

A major component in the evaluative questioning framework is that the teacher systematically helps students develop a logical basis for establishing evaluative criteria. When an illogical response is given to an evaluative question by the student, the teacher must provide a specific set of criteria from which students may develop their own criteria. In this manner, students will understand why they hold value judgments or opinions.

Not all the time, convergent questions need to be low-level or divergent questions high-level. For example, in the classroom students may face this kind of question. "Based on the evidence you have just heard, is the suspect innocent or guilty?" To respond this, students will have to analyze all of the arguments they have just heard, and evaluate the credibility of the witnesses. In the end, there are two possible responses that they can make. Although it's a convergent question, it's also a high-level question.

Elements of effective questioning. Effective questioning depends on two essential factors. The first is clear and precise goals. The goals may not be written in a plan book, and teachers may have to modify them during the lesson if students' current understanding requires it, but effective teachers, nevertheless, begin their lessons knowing what they want their students to accomplish. The second is effective representation of content, which also depend on clear goals. Expert teachers use content representations that help students reach goals, and they guide their students to the goals through their questioning. There are essential questioning strategies of effective teaching. They include:

- Questioning frequency
- Equitable distribution

- Prompting
- Probing
- Wait time (Kauchak, D.P., Eggen, P.D. 2003:66; Jacobsen, D.A., Eggen, P., Kauchak, D. 2002)

Questioning Frequency. Questioning frequency refers to the number of questions that teachers ask over a period. Hamilton and Brady (1991), and Henderson et al. (1996) suggest that research indicates that effective teachers ask more questions than do those who are less effective (Kauchak, D.P., Eggen, P.D. 2003:67). As asking more questions is an effective strategy, knowing when to ask questions is also important. Asking many questions may cause students to be passive and to be in a not thinking position. Dillon (1987) has suggested times which are not suitable for asking questions (Açıkgöz, K. İ.2003: 254-255). These times are:

- Starting the discussion; when teacher asks the questions the activity doesn't progress as deep discussion, but it becomes answering the teacher's question session.
- Explaining a point; instead of asking a question, there should be a short explanation.
- When students have difficulty completing their utterances, asking questions will block the communication.
- Trying the get the answer determined before will disturb the student independence and creativity.
- Responding a student's question with a question may cause the student feel s/he does not have right to ask questions.
- Trying to motivate student by asking questions may cause them to be ready for a question instead of listening what's going on in the class.
- Asking student's personal feelings or thoughts may cause them to stay quiet.

Equitable Distribution. Equitable distribution describes a questioning pattern in which all students in the class are called on as equally as possible. Equitable distribution runs counter to two common teaching patterns. First, in typical classrooms, about two third of all teacher questions are undirected, meaning that

students who volunteer are allowed to answer, and those who are not allowed to remain passive. This practice detracts from achievement because the involvement of students who don't volunteer decreases (Kauchak, D.P., Eggen, P.D. 2003). As it's stated in the same book taken from Gage and Berliner (1988), in a review of the literature in this area, experts concluded that teachers should call on volunteers less than ten to fifteen percent of the time. The researchers suggested that 85 percent to 90 percent of all teacher questions should be directed to students who don't volunteer! Equitable distribution communicates that the teacher expects all students to attend and each student will be able to and assisted to answer. If teachers practice equitable distribution as a day-to-day pattern, student involvement and learning can dramatically increase. When the students know that they are certain to be called, the level of attention becomes high. In cases where students "drift off", the teacher intervenes immediately. An example of this kind of interaction –only a segment –can be seen below. (José is the teacher.)

José: How do we know it (the bottle) was heated?... Ginny?

Ginny: I, er, I didn't hear the question (answering sheepishly).

José: What did I do with this bottle, Ginny (holding up the bottle with the red balloon)?

Ginny: You put it in the coffee pot.

José: Yes I did, Ginny. Good. And how do we know the coffee pot was hot? ... Rosemary?

The simple sequence served two important functions. First it got Ginny back into the lesson, and second, it contributed to a positive classroom climate. Ginny knew that José has caught her not paying attention, but he didn't criticize her. Instead, he simply rephrased his original question and went on. This sequence communicated that José was on her side, wanting her to contribute and learn. This helped to create a positive climate (Kauchak, D.P., Eggen, P.D. 2003).

Like above example, Grossier (1964) has noted at least three situations where it makes sense to call on the student before asking a question (Good,T.L., Brophy, J.R. 1984):

1. The teacher wants to draw an inattentive student back into the lesson.
2. The teacher wants to ask a follow-up question of a student who has just responded.

The teacher is calling on a shy student who may be "shocked" if called on without warning.

In lesson on questioning techniques teachers are suggested to employ the research supported practices to foster higher student achievement. That's why it is aimed to be the asking the right question in order to receive right answer. For this the teachers or the 'askers' should settle the structure in a clear way, wait for the student to think and judge on the question for a while after asking, help them lighten the ambiguity ifs/he has, encourage the students to answer in some way.

The efficiency of the answer based on the efficiency of the question. To maximize the productivity of the students, the teacher and all the audio - visual classroom materials should be careful of what to ask and how to ask. Because asking is the best way of communicating with the pupils and make them involved in the lesson.

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LESSON 6. GIVING INSTRUCTIONS

Plan:

1. The importance of giving instructions
2. To make your instructions CLEAR

First of all, **When should we give instructions?**

We give instructions at all times! If we want people to do something specific for us, or if someone asks how to do things, or how to assemble things we read instructions. So we should give instructions **BEFORE** a task, in our case, before a task-based activity so that it can go well and smoothly.

There are two ways of giving instructions, this is the first one:
(We can watch in this video)
https://youtu.be/E6RFsHAY_Go
(Second video)
https://youtu.be/DJsn7v-Qjak
https://youtu.be/wjcI3J65Nao

Can you perceive any difference? What is your opinion about them? If you were receiving instructions from different people, which would you prefer?

The first ones are what we call **poor instructions giving**. You can see that one is too fast, the other is confusing, both are messy, badly explained, unclear...

The second one is a woman **giving instructions properly**. You can see that she shows a moderate pace, it is organized, well explained, clear...

Why is it important to give clear instructions?

- Students will understand it the first time;
- It avoids misunderstandings;
- You don't need to repeat yourself;
- You don't need to repeat it individually;
- You won't waste time;
- Activities will flow;
- Students will do exactly what you asked.

Remember that it also applies to your lives. If you are giving instructions to other people instead of your students, you also have to do them clearly to avoid the problems mentioned above.

How to give instructions for a task-based activity?

So how can we do it properly? There are a few simple steps:

1. Give clear and simple instructions.

Use simple words and phrases in the present simple, imperative, or be going to depending on your intention. Good examples of simple and clear instructions are: *"I want you to sit down and open your books to page 18"* or *"You are going to sit down and open your books to page 18"*. Another way is by being direct *"Sit down. Open your books to page 18"*.

2. Break too long instructions.

Sometimes you have lots of instructions to give, so break them into parts. Instead of saying: *"You are going to sit down, open your books to page 18 and do activity 6. You are going to put the name of an activity you like and draw it on the side", say this: "I want you to sit down and open your books to page 18.* (wait for students to do what is asked) *Look at activity six. Write the name of the activity you like most and draw it on the side"*. Can you see the difference?

3. Demonstrate.

Use the words *"for example"*. If you feel that the instructions are too complicated, simply invite a volunteer and model the activity to the class.

4. Ask *Instructions Checking Questions (ICQs)*.

It is not good to use *"Do you have any questions?"* at all times. Sometimes the students lie and don't tell you that they didn't get anything – not because they are bad students, but because they

feel embarrassed to be in the spotlight. So try using ICQs, for example: *"Are you going to first draw or write your name? "*

5. Ask *"Do you have any questions?"*.

But sometimes using this question is not wrong, specially if you tried ICQs first.

6. Hand out papers or say *"Turn to page..."*.

One very important step, especially with kids is handing out things. Just hand your material to your students once you explained it, otherwise, they will forget that you exist and start doing the activity before you ask them to do so. Later they will have lots of questions related to the thing you have just explained but they were not paying attention.

7. Say, *"Please start"*.

Last, but not least... be polite! Whenever you want them to do things, say *"please"*. People will enjoy it and they tend to do it faster and happily.

Tips to give good instructions:

How can we give good instructions after all?

- Always get students' attention;
- Start with the main verbs – imperatives (it keeps sentences clear/short/simple);
- Speak loud and clear;
- Grade your language;
- Show-don't give;
- Use visuals/*Realia*;
- Check understanding: either/or questions;
- Give examples;
- Use keywords / Give logical aspects;
- Use gestures.

By following these steps I'm sure your classes will be much better.

To make your instructions CLEAR

What can we teachers do to make our instructions clear? Here is a list of 10 simple steps you can follow:

1. Get students' attention. Gather the group together and signal you are about to tell students what to do. You can do so by putting up a hand and/or asking for silence. It is of paramount importance that you wait until you do get full silence. If you don't, you will most probably have to go over your explanation again once those students who were still chatting pay attention to you.

2. Be clear, specific and concise. (Breiburd, Nacamuli Klebs & Vázquez, 2017). Three conditions need to be met: instructions need to be specific which means "relating to one thing and not others" (Cambridge Dictionary), i.e. being precise and specified; concise, which involves "expressing or covering much in few words" (www.Thesarus.com). Also, your instructions need to be easy to understand. Therefore, refer to one particular thing at a time, and avoid over-lengthy, 'over-wordy' explanations, which may confuse students with too much information that is not needed. At lower levels use simple language (no complex structures), short sentences, and true cognates (transparent words) where possible.

3. Project your voice. Classrooms may be quite big and may hold a large number of students. Therefore, you need to choose a spot in the room where your voice reaches everyone and all students can hear what you are about to say.

4. Provide visual support. Use gestures and body language wherever suitable and possible. Back in 1967, Dr. Albert Meharabian broke human communication into three components: words, which account for 7%; tone of voice, 38%; and body language, 55%. This means that what we say carries only 7% of the message. And, although not all researchers agree with that number, everyone does agree that non-verbal communication overshadows verbal. If most of a message is conveyed by communication which exceeds words, our instructions will need to reflect that as well.

5. Assumptions. Do not take for granted that students understood what you have explained. Dartnell (n.d., p.1) claims that "the message received might differ from what we actually meant." She also reminds us of the saying 'assumption is the mother of all mistakes'. Even if most of our students may be focused and 'tuned-in', this may not be the case for all. As a result, you will need to take a further step before you set the activity going, which is 'checking' they have understood what is required of them.

6. Checking. Seek for an explanation on the part of the students where they state two things: what the nature of the task is (i.e. what the task consists of) and a description of the behaviors that are expected from them. This may take, for e.g., the form of one student 'paraphrasing' what the teacher has said. Let them use the language they handle: remember that other students may find it easier to understand utterances at their own level of interlanguage rather than complex book rubrics. Personally I believe that at beginner levels, some L1 may also be allowed, since the purpose of this step is to clarify what to do, rather than to test how much English they can produce.

Another way of checking is doing a dry-run or a practice-run (i.e. a rehearsal), where students will see the activity in action and how to solve it.

7. Complex tasks. Break down a complex activity into simpler and shorter steps. This will keep the whole group advancing together more or less at the same speed, and will prevent students from losing the overall thread. A few key words numbered on the board to keep students focused is a good idea as well.

8. Mark the beginning of the activity. This will help you maintain the pace of the lesson, as, since all students will start at the same time, most students will end (more or less) at the same time.

9. Assign a time limit. Remember that it is the teacher's job to allot how much time each activity takes, which is of paramount relevance to maintain the momentum throughout the lesson

(Richards & Lockhart 1994). Also, students need to be aware of how much the activity takes to that they organize their own time.

10. Warning! If you notice any problem crops up, there are misinterpretations or the meaning of a word/ couple of words is blocking the right development of the activity, do not try to solve it on a one-student-at-a-time basis. Just stop the activity as a whole, gather students' attention, repair misunderstandings, mark the new beginning, and let students finish the activity.

Last but not least, remember that after you have given proper, clear instructions and students start working, walking around and monitoring their work is always a good idea!

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LESSON 7. GIVING DIFFERENT TYPES OF FEEDBACK

Plan:

1. **What is feedback?**
2. **What kind of feedback do students need?**
3. **Three levels of feedback**
4. **Ineffective feedback to avoid**

What is feedback?

Feedback is information provided (by the teacher, a peer, a book or computer program or an experience) about aspects of a student's performance or the knowledge they have built up from a learning experience. Learners can use feedback to confirm, overwrite, fine tune or restructure existing knowledge, beliefs and strategies.

Research suggests that appropriate, constructive and assessment-based feedback is one of the most critical features of effective teaching and learning. In a meta-analysis of over 800 studies, Hattie (2009) found feedback was the most important teacher practice in improving student learning. Feedback supports students to know where and how to improve, and it can support their motivation to invest effort in making improvements. It is an integral part of assessment for learning.

Well-timed feedback can support cognitive processes for better performance, including confirming or restructuring understanding, improving strategies, guiding students to more information, and suggesting directions and/or alternative strategies they could pursue in order to improve. Feedback can also engage students in metacognitive strategies such as goal setting, task planning, monitoring, and reflection, which are important skills for self-regulated learning. Feedback can influence students' affective processes, improving effort, motivation and engagement.

What kind of feedback do students need?

Feedback improves learning when it focuses on the particular qualities of the student's work, with specific guidance on what the student can do to improve.

Feedback should be user-friendly (specific and personalised), transparent, addressable, timely, ongoing, and content-rich. It also needs to be clear, purposeful, and compatible with students' existing knowledge, while providing little threat to self-esteem.

The best kinds of feedback:

- are goal-referenced: linked to, and assisting understanding of, the goals of learning
- are matched to the needs of the students, with the level of support they need
- are accurate and trustworthy (with teachers and students in agreement about what counts as success)
- are carefully timed: provided when students need it to improve learning (which might be during the learning activity, or before revising a piece of work)
- focus on strengths and weaknesses as well as revealing what students understand and misunderstand, and accompanied with strategies to help the student improve
- emphasise correct rather than incorrect responses
- focus on changes from previous work or understanding
- guide ongoing learning
- are directed towards enhanced self-efficacy and more effective self-regulation
- are two-way conversations (either written dialogue or oral) rather than one-way
- are used in conjunction with self and/or peer assessment
- do not threaten self-esteem
- are checked for clarity, adequacy and effectiveness with the student — "Does this feedback help?"
- are actionable — with the student given time to respond to and act on feedback.

Three stages to effective feedback

1. **Feed-up:** Before feedback can be given, students need to know the learning intention(s). Feed-up clarifies for the student

Where am I going? What are the goals? This information sets the context for feedback.

2. **Feedback:** Feedback itself focuses on monitoring and assessing learning progression in relation to the learning intention or task. It is about How am I doing? What progress is being made towards the goals?

3. **Feed-forward:** This relates to the next steps required for improvement on a specific task or learning intention. It is about Where to next? What activities need to be undertaken to make better progress? Here the answer is likely to be directed to the refinement of goals, and seeking more challenging goals, because these are most likely to lead to greater achievement.

Effective feedback is when teachers and students address all three of these questions.

Three levels of feedback

Feedback operates on, or can be geared towards, three levels. These are:

1: Task-level (or product) feedback

Feedback aimed at the task or product describes students' performance and may offer students directions on how to acquire more, different or correct information. Example: "That is correct. Could you include more information about the Treaty of Versailles?" Immediate feedback is likely to be most effective for task-level feedback. Task-level feedback is not the most powerful kind. This is because feedback at the task level is not usually generalisable to other tasks. However, this level of feedback can be effective when the information it provides about the task is later used for improving strategies or self-regulation. For example, task-level feedback might help students to reject incorrect interpretations and provide directions for better ways to process and understand the material. Too much feedback at the task level focused on the accuracy of responses, and not on the processing required for these responses, can direct students' attention away from a higher-level understanding of their task performance, and focus them instead on a surface understanding

of learning involving acquisition, storage and reproduction of knowledge.

2: Process-level feedback

Feedback aimed at the process of understanding focuses on how the student has completed a task or created a product. Example: "You might find it easier to punctuate this page if you read it aloud with a peer." Process-level feedback is particularly powerful for improving students' deep processing and mastery of tasks and directing students towards more effective task strategies. It provides a deeper understanding of learning, enabling students to appreciate relationships between strategies and performance, which helps them to transfer skills to more difficult or unfamiliar tasks. Process-level feedback on metacognitive processes might focus on enhancing students' self-efficacy, self-regulatory skills or confidence to engage further on a task. Example: "You already know the key features for introducing an argument, check to see that you have incorporated them into your first paragraph." Feedback focused on cognitive or metacognitive processes is most effective when there is a delay between student performance and feedback, which enables better reflection.

3: Personal-level feedback

Feedback focused on the personal level is directed to the self and contains little task- related information. Example: "That's an intelligent response, well done." This is the least effective level of feedback as it rarely leads to more engagement, enhanced self-efficacy or better understanding of the task. In fact, praise often directs attention away from the task. When feedback draws attention to the self, students have a high fear of failure, and it becomes risky for students to tackle challenging tasks or to try hard. However, sometimes praise focused on the student's effort, self-regulation and engagement can assist in enhancing self-efficacy and increase student motivation. Summary: Feedback that is designed to move students from the task to the underlying processes or understandings and then to self-regulation is most effective. For example, feedback based at task performance can build students' confidence and help them to feel more able to

improve and experiment with strategy use. Then questioning and feedback can focus on learning strategies and metacognitive skills, which eventually help students to become self-regulating learners. These are the students that seek and give their own feedback! How to improve feedback practices in your classroom.

Ineffective feedback to avoid

Giving marks or grades

Students tend not to pay attention to feedback comments when they are given a mark or grade. Students who get low marks twice in a row come to expect to get low marks every time, with a negative impact on both motivation and achievement.

Comparisons with other students

Competitive environments also have a negative impact on motivation and achievement. Rather than comparing individuals against the performance of a class, a fairer comparison pits each student's current performance against their own previous performance. This comparison is seen as relevant and achievable, whereas trying to compete with peers is stressful for many students.

Extrinsic rewards

These undermine students taking responsibility for themselves, increase teacher control and surveillance, and generate competition amongst students.

Non-specific or general feedback

Telling students to work harder, or recalculate, does not help students know how or where to improve their work. Unclear evaluative feedback, which details students' successes and failures but does not specify reasons, is likely to have negative effects on self-efficacy, exacerbate poor performance and damage self-images.

Giving feedback unrelated to critical aspects of learning goals

Feedback should be clearly focused on the learning goals and agreed success criteria for meeting these goals. Students should not be given feedback on presentation, spelling and/or the

quantity of writing when the learning goal is "creating mood in a story".

Overloading students with too much or too technical information

It is better to identify one important thing that you noticed, that, if changed, will likely yield immediate and noticeable improvement

Too much written feedback

Giving too much feedback in written form can be overwhelming for students and difficult to understand. Some students have difficulty understanding and processing written feedback. However, this can be mitigated by good communication between the teacher and student in which the student is invited to say if feedback is not useful or doesn't help them to make improvements.

Associating "what next?" with more

Often teachers suggest that students gather more information, or perform more tasks, so that students come to understand that the answer to "Where to next?" is "more". Instead, feedback can provide information on greater possibilities for learning, including enhanced challenges, more autonomy over the learning process, greater fluency, and diversifying strategies and processes for tasks.

Giving feedback when students lack knowledge or information

Feedback can only build on existing learning or understanding. Students with very little understanding of a content area are more likely to benefit from targeted instruction than from feedback on poorly constructed concepts. Feedback is better focused on faulty interpretations and fine-tuning performance.

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LESSON 8. USING MOTHER TONGUE

Plan:

1. The mother tongue in the English language classroom
2. Advantages of using the mother tongue

The mother tongue in the English language classroom

Many English language teachers go to great lengths to avoid the use of their students' mother tongue in the classroom. Nunan (1999: 158) describes a situation where an EFL teacher in China imposed fines on his students when they spoke Cantonese in the classroom. The effect, unsurprisingly, was that the students just fell silent. The teacher got his wish of no Cantonese, but ironically he did not get any English from his students either!

Harbord (1992: 350) contends that the "strategy of mother tongue avoidance" in ELT can be explained by the emergence of two major trends: • The growth of ELT as a casual career for young travelers visiting Europe, which necessitated the use of English only in the classroom. • The development of a "British-based teacher training movement", which aimed at providing guidance to English teachers working with multilingual classes.

Even with many teachers avoiding the students' L1, it can work its way into the English language classroom in a variety of ways, for a variety of reasons. What follows is not an exhaustive list but is meant to highlight some of the major ways the students' L1 is represented in the language classroom. They have been divided into three broad categories: (1) providing L1 equivalents of English words and expressions; (2) using L1 to focus on language in use; (3) using L1 for classroom interaction.

Providing L1 equivalents of English words and expressions Atkinson (1987: 243) recommends techniques using L1 equivalents for "eliciting language" and "checking for comprehension". Eliciting language can be done by both teacher and student, often in the form of "How do you say ____ in English?" According to Atkinson (1987: 243), checking for comprehension using questions like "How do you say 'I've been waiting for 10 minutes' in Spanish?" is "often more foolproof and quicker than more 'inductive' checking techniques." But is quicker necessarily better? What implications does this have for SLA?

Using L1 equivalents alongside L2 words is also seen as a useful approach to memorizing new vocabulary (Carter 1987: 153). Although most teachers prefer to teach vocabulary in context, Seibert (1930/ 1945) (quoted in Carter 1987: 168) found that providing paired lists with L1 equivalents was the superior approach. Of course many teachers would discount such a statement, claiming that vocabulary should not be learned out of context, especially with L1 pairings (Cook 1991, summarized in Willis 1997: 138). The L1 may also be used as cues for English pattern practice (Green 1970: 218). Such practice is reminiscent of the Audio Lingual Method, but some believe that its limited use may still have a place within a broader communicative approach (Willis 1990: 73). Pattern practice alone is not enough to acquire a language and using the students' L1 would likely be seen as an even less favorable technique by most English teachers.

Using L1 to focus on language in use Explaining grammar usage and meaning in the students' L1 goes far beyond the single

word or short phrase translation into an extended explanation by the teacher. This is indicative of the grammar translation method and still a technique that many students, especially at the early levels, want and many teachers, especially non-native speakers, provide. This deductive approach to teaching grammar flies in the face of contemporary SLA research extolling inductive learning techniques.

Green (1970: 218) also described the translation of sentences as a way to exemplify specific grammar points and vocabulary. This technique, which is characteristic of the grammar translation method, is often criticized for ignoring context and meaning and encouraging word-for-word translations.

Titford (1983: 53) used a technique which he called "spoof translation" with his advanced students. He provided students with a glaringly erroneous translation in hopes that they would shift their focus away from the individual lexical items and look at the "clearly un-English" syntax. This type of activity can be seen as a consciousness raising experience, allowing students to discover what can and cannot work in English and warning students to be weary of word-for-word translations.

Going beyond the sentence-level translation, Atkinson (1987: 244) refers to the translation of longer passages as "presentation and reinforcement of language". He claims that when students translate from their mother tongue into English, they can focus on accuracy and notice the key structural differences between the two texts. Atkinson (1987: 244) suggests that this kind of activity is best suited for early levels and asserts that, although it is not communicative on its own, it can be used to complement fluency activities.

Titford (1983), Baynham (1983), Edge (1986), Tudor (1987), Heltai (1989) and Eadie (1999), all propose the use of "back translation". Back translation goes beyond grammatical analysis and typically involves pairs of students translating two different authentic English texts into their mother tongue, switching texts and translating 'back' to English, then comparing the originals. The comparisons and analyses lead to further discussion about what "works" in English. These specific studies will be reviewed in

depth in the section entitled 'translation as a communicative technique'.

Using L1 for classroom interaction Atkinson (1987: 243) suggests that "at very low levels" communicative activities can be quite troublesome to set up, so using the students' mother tongue to give instructions is warranted. However, utilizing the mother tongue in this way effectively removes a chance for real communication between the teacher and students, albeit using classroom specific communication. Harbord (1992: 353) also takes exception with Atkinson's point, calling it "counter-productive". Most teachers would agree that if the task is too complicated to explain then it's not worth doing, or at least an alternative introduction to the task is needed. Harbord (1992: 353) recommends that teachers could possibly make an activity out of the instructions themselves!

Another use of the mother tongue involves learners communicating with one another about a task. This can take the form of comparing answers, explaining grammatical structures within the task (Atkinson 1987: 243) or as Eldridge (1996: 306) observed in his 10 classroom, using the mother tongue to comment, evaluate and discuss the task at hand. According to SLA research, this use of the L1 would eliminate the negotiation of meaning between classmates and would therefore offer very little to the learning process. Eldridge (1996: 305) noted another interesting use of the mother tongue in regards to "floor-holding". He hypothesizes that the "native code ... may function as a kind of stopgap, while the (target code) is being retrieved." Of course, this may be unavoidable at early levels, but students should be made aware of the available communication strategies involving English "stopgaps", such as "Umm", "Let me see", or "Just a minute". Atkinson (1987: 244) suggests using the students' L1 to "discuss classroom methodology", especially at early levels. He reasons that students have a right to know what they are doing in the classroom and why they are doing it. This can be seen as particularly useful if the teacher wants to introduce some new communicative type activity involving pair or group work that is unfamiliar to the students (Willis 1997: 135). Many students have

only ever been taught in a traditional teacher-fronted English language classroom, so there is a potential risk that they will not accept change easily without an explanation.

Advantages of using the mother tongue

As can be seen from the analysis above of the literature on mother tongue use in the classroom, some instances are helpful to the learning process and may be accepted by most, while other uses are detrimental and should be avoided. The three main advantages often cited (Atkinson 1987) for using the students' L1 in the classroom are presented below.

Atkinson (1987: 242) agrees with Bolitho (1983) that permitting students to use their L1 brings a "valuable 'humanistic' element" into the language classroom, allowing students to express themselves clearly and effectively. The assumption here is that once students have expressed what they want to say in their L1 then the teacher can help them articulate 11 it in English. This may seem acceptable at first but we need to ask ourselves, how much learning is lost when students resort to their mother tongue to express themselves? Atkinson (1987: 245) goes on to seemingly contradict himself when he adds that "students need to be encouraged to develop communication strategies" and "need to be made aware of how much they in fact can do with the limited corpus of language they possess." So, should students struggle to communicate with their limited English or should they resign themselves to using their L1?

Harvard psychologist Roger Brown (1973) (cited in Richards and Rodgers 2001: 13) expressed his annoyance in watching a teacher try to explain new vocabulary through elaborate "verbal gymnastics" when in his opinion, "translation would have been a much more efficient technique." As the anecdote suggests, translation, or mother tongue use, is often encouraged as an efficient, time-saving technique; supported by many ELT professionals (Green 1970, Atkinson 1987, Tudor 1987).

Many instances of L1 use are associated with the need to save time, but as Harbord (1992: 355) points out, saving time is not an effective use of translation or the mother tongue in general. He quotes Duff (1989) in saying that:

The mother tongue should be used to provoke discussion and speculation, to develop clarity and flexibility of thinking, and to help us increase our own and our students' awareness of the inevitable interaction between the mother tongue and the target language that occurs during any type of language acquisition.

Thinking along these lines, the following section details six selected research studies which have attempted to incorporate the mother tongue into a more communicative approach.

Using the students' L1 in the classroom to save time or to make life easier for the students and/ or teachers is not an effective or beneficial technique for SLA. This does not however mean that the mother tongue has no place in the language classroom. The students bring with them a thorough understanding of their L1 which they will inevitably draw upon in the process of acquiring a foreign language. Using the students' L1 to raise students' awareness about the similarities and differences between the two languages and helping them to discover different ways to express themselves in the TL can be a powerful technique in the learning process; a technique that should not be discarded so quickly.

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LESSON 9. ERROR CORRECTION

Plan:

1. **Error and mistake**
2. **Sours of errors**
3. **Views on errors/mistakes**
4. **Error correction types**

A mistake can either be a slip of tongue or a temporary deficiency in producing language. Mistakes can occur when learners are tired or when they unwillingly fail to apply grammar while speaking. Generally, mistakes are self-corrected, since learners promptly notice them. If they don't, a simple hint from the teacher or other learners would suffice to make learners aware of their mistakes and accordingly correct them. On the other hand, an error is a repeated mistake that is suggestive of the learner's failure to grasp a structure or apply it properly. For instance, if a student says repeatedly," she musts", instead of must, it implies that he has not fully grasped the rules governing modals or is not acquainted with them all together.

In concise terms, a mistake is a lapse made at the surface, while an error is a lapse that indicates a deficiency in the deep surface (competence; linguistic knowledge, as Chomsky refers to it).

Now many would wonder; why do learners make errors? What are the sources of errors?

Sources of errors

Significant body research has been conducted to trace the sources of errors in L2 learning. This substantial body of literature points to three major sources; interlingual interference (interference of the mother tongue), intralingual (overgeneralizations), and context of learning. Interlingual interference or the interference of L1 in the learning of L2 is a major source of errors. Students, especially beginners, draw from the system of their L1 in order to use and understand L2. This reliance may lead students to utter wrong statements. For instance, many Moroccan students say, "I have 17 years old", as an alternative to "I'm 17 years old". This shows evidently that the source of error is the interference of L1 (Moroccan Standard Arabic) in L2 (English).

Intralingual interference or overgeneralization is one of the most prominent sources of errors. Students gradually learn the grammatical rules of the language. As they do, they form hypotheses about the language on the basis of their prior linguistic language. It often results in them falling in the trap of overgeneralization. A student may say "Information", believing that forming plural is done by adding s to nouns.

The context of learning refers to the materials, atmosphere where the learning takes place, and it also includes the teacher. The atter can also be a source of errors. Teachers' failure to explain a lesson adequately or clarify it but wrongly, may lead students to make errors.

Views on errors/mistakes

We have now looked at the sources of errors. Now let us see how some teaching approaches/methods consider mistakes or errors.

Audiolingualism	**Communicative Language Learning**
Errors or mistakes are bad habits that should be avoided by students. Students, who make mistakes/errors, must be penalized.	Errors are tolerated Mistakes/errors are part and partial of the learning process. They should be used as the basis to constructing knowledge.

Error correction types

● **Self-correction:** the teacher may help the student recognize his mistake/error and may also help him correct it.

● **Peer-correction:** A student may be aided by his peer in identifying and correcting his mistake/error.

● **Class-correction:** The entire class may pay attention to the utterances of students, identify the mistakes in them, and correct them accordingly.

● **Teacher-Correction:** When spotting a mistake made by a student, a teacher may intervene in order to correct it.

It is preferable that the teacher makes students aware of their mistakes. If they fail to know their mistakes, a teacher can resort to the entire class group for correction. If other students fail to see the mistake as well, the teacher can then correct him/herself.

Practical strategies to error/mistake correction

Repetition:

This is typically used to correct pronunciation mistakes. A teacher may verbally repeat the utterance of a student in order to correct the mistake in it. For example, a beginning-level student may say "I know him", pronouncing the word "know" as it's written; a teacher can repeat the word again and correct the students' pronunciation.

Reformulation:

a teacher may reformulate a mistaken sentence in order to correct it. Example; "I like to playing soccer"; student's statement. The teacher's statement would be;"oh, you like to play soccer".

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LESSON 10. MOTIVATION

Plan:

How to Motivate ESL Students: 3 Strategies.

1. Trigger Their Interests

2. Integrate Fun Activities and Technology.

3. Encourage Language Experiences Outside of the Classroom.

Inspiring your classroom doesn't have to be intimidating. With a few small steps, you can make increase engagement and curiosity. Here are three strategies for motivating ESL students.

Trigger Their Interests

Make English learning personal. By connecting language to something personal in your students' lives, they'll tap into something emotional that will help with engagement.

Rost offers a couple of ways to trigger students' interests. One way is to integrate current topics, music, movies, and fads to create a relevant class culture. Another option is to investigate the theme of self-expression. By using personalized tasks, idea journals, and speaking circles, learners will be motivated by the fact that the class focuses on their personal lives.

You can also consider project-based learning. One teacher, Amanda Nehring, engaged ELL students by choosing

a topic that appealed to her general education classroom: birds of prey.

- Students started on the project by brainstorming what they knew and what they wanted to learn.
- Then they performed research at libraries on pre-selected websites and by meeting experts in their classroom.
- The next step, which the teacher deemed most valuable and rewarding, was integrating examples and experiences into the learning process. In this case, students met live raptors from local conservation and rehabilitation organizations.
- The project concluded with a final presentation, which took place at a local children's museum. Students created posters as well clay models of talons and nests. This step incorporated listening, speaking, reading, and writing in English.

"I cannot emphasize enough how rewarding this project was for my class and my ELL students," Nehring said at Scholastic. "This is a favorite memory of all of my kids, and the growth I saw in their interests and abilities was staggering."

Integrate Fun Activities and Technology

Games and fun activities offer several benefits to students. Marina Dodigovic wrote in *The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching* that "games promote learner centeredness, create the space for genuine communication within a meaningful context, and are often team-oriented." She went on to say, "They have been found to stimulate motivation, reduce anxiety, and allow for the integration of all language skills.

"You can consider a cognition-oriented game like the website SpellingCity's pedagogical version of a crossword puzzle, and effective socially oriented games include Simon Says, Hangman, and Scrabble. A monologue activity used for short stories can match students' levels and interests. Select a story and have students read it, choose vocabulary they want to learn, journal the vocabulary, and then create a monologue that could have been delivered by a character in the story. Students read the monologue without describing which character they're impersonating, and the rest of the class guesses who it is.

Technology can help locate effective games and activities, but don't overlook how it can become a central motivation. In a separate chapter of *The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching*, Sara Smith described how ESL learners can view English as necessary for accessing the digital world. In other words, they're motivated to learn English because they want to use technology generally or engage in specific digital environments. Some ESL learners, such as those limited in geography, are focused on joining a digital English community instead of a physical English linguistic community.

Using technology can help students find pleasure and even develop a certain identity in learning English. Smith believes that "increased digital environment contact and engagement will heighten general global affiliation and potentially even give rise to a distinct 'digital affiliation,'" which explains specific environments like online gaming communities.

Examples of motivating ESL students through technology go hand-in-hand with the next strategy.

Encourage language experiences outside of the classroom

By engaging students with English outside of the classroom, you can impact your students' motivation.

Applied Linguistics polled more than 100 high school students in Sweden, where English is prominent, and found that the English language learners exerted less effort in the classroom. They strongly believed that language is best learned "naturally," outside of school. A report from Oxford University Press found that across 30 studies, outside-of-class reading was linked to positive motivation for young language learners.

One way to encourage outside-of-the-classroom language experiences is with technology. Engaging digital environments like social media platforms can help students express themselves and browsing the web can enable them to pursue their interests. Gaming is particularly noteworthy. Research in the book *International Perspectives on Motivation* demonstrated how games have high intrinsic motivation for continued play, given elements like fantasy story lines, challenges, humor,

benchmarks of success, and clear rules. As a result, ESL learners can engage in rich, diverse, and meaningful language experiences.

Another example of technology in outside-of-the-classroom language experiences was featured in an older entry of *The Internet TESL Journal*.

A teacher in Korea asked students to create short movies on topics of their choice using digital cameras and cell phone cameras, and the "results far surpassed my expectations," ESL instructor Dana Hazard said.

"The classroom turned from being a group of clock-watchers waiting for the end of class into a room of dynamic English-speaking butterflies." Nearly 80 percent of students felt more motivated to study English as a result of the project, which arguably used all three strategies listed in this topic.

Learn More

Try motivating ESL students by appealing to their interests, incorporating fun activities and technology, and promoting out-of-the-classroom language learning activities. You can improve your knowledge and skills by earning an online M.Ed. in Language and Literacy. The program helps you teach effectively to all students, including English language learners, in a variety of content areas. A major focus is on using technology in the classroom, integrating reading and writing into lessons plans, and matching readers and text.

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LESSON 11. TEACHING MATERIALS IN THE CLASSROOM

Plan:

1. General view.

2. What is alternative teaching material?

3. The production of alternative material

4. The communicative approach and the importance of authenticity

However appealing a particular method might be to you as you first encounter it, however sensible and practical it might seem, the best method is one which you have derived through your very own careful process of formulation, tryout, revision, and refinement [...] There are no instant recipes. No quick and easy method is guaranteed to provide success.

Every learner is unique. Every teacher is unique *(Brown 2000:15).*

Why do some teachers choose to create and use their own teaching material whereas others prefer to mainly use coursebooks? What do their pupils think about this and do they have any influence on the chosen material?

My own experience from school when I was a pupil myself is that the combination of textbook and workbook ruled. It was not until my first practical teacher training period that I came across alternative teaching material in the English classroom. My tutor did not use coursebooks; she put together her own themes for the pupils and only chose material from authentic texts such as magazines, newspapers, the Internet etc. I was so inspired by this that I decided to make my own teaching material for my last practical training period. The whole procedure was very time-consuming, but it was definitely worth it. I enjoyed it and the evaluation I received gave mainly positive feedback from my pupils.

What is alternative teaching material?

Alternative teaching material can be any material used in the English classroom excluding coursebooks. Usually the concept of coursebook includes not only textbook and workbook but also recordings and other material offered in a package from a

publisher (Woodward 2001: 145). Coursebooks can also be placed in a category called ready-made material. Alternative material is mainly referred to as 'authentic' or 'real-life material'. Mitchell (1995:39) describes authentic material as material that was originally produced for native speakers. According to this criterion authentic teaching material can for example consist of magazines, newspapers or recordings of real-life conversations. Little et al (ibid 1995:45) define authentic texts as follows:

An authentic text is a text that was created to fulfil some social purpose in the language community in which it was produced. Thus novels, poems, newspaper and magazine articles, handbooks and manuals, recipes and telephone directories are all examples of authentic texts; and so too are radio and television broadcasts and computer programmes.

Obviously there is a wide range of texts to choose from when searching for alternative teaching material. In Kramsch's (2000:177) view "the term 'authentic' has been used as a reaction against the prefabricated artificial language of textbooks and instructional dialogues; it refers to the way language is used in non-pedagogic, natural communication". Moreover, Harmer (2001: 151) contributes with an additional term for alternative teaching material: 'homegrown materials'. Primarily this is material made by teachers themselves, for example overhead transparencies, pictures, worksheets with exercises (grammar, vocabulary etc). This 'homemade' material is often designed with the help of authentic texts such as articles from newspapers or magazines, books or the Internet. Furthermore there is even an expression for teachers who prefer to create their own material to using coursebooks: "do-it-yourself" teachers, who of course have their own "do-it-yourself" approach (ibid 2001: 304f). In conclusion, alternative teaching material is authentic, often self-made by teachers, originally created for native speakers and mainly does not include the kind of artificial language that often occurs in coursebooks.

The production of alternative material

Harmer (2001:151) suggests a five-stage procedure when teachers make their own teaching material. Focus is put on the

making of the material rather than the actual use of it. The first stage is planning and to begin with all the material obviously needs to be comprehensible and attractive to the students. In order for the material to achieve these criteria one can have Krashen's Input Hypothesis (in Brown 2000:278) in mind when deciding how challenging the material should be for the students. This hypothesis argues that:

[an] important condition for language acquisition to occur is that the acquirer understand (via hearing or reading) input language that contains structure 'a bit beyond' his or her current level of competence... If an acquirer is at stage or level i, the input he or she understands should contain i + 1.

It is therefore important for the teacher who creates the material that he or she makes sure to present a language that the students can understand and that simultaneously challenges the students to make progress (ibid). Furthermore, topics must be chosen and also what activities are required from the students (reading, speaking, writing, etc). Aims ought to be considered as well and are very important. Trialling is the next stage and refers to trying out the material before it is used in the classroom. In order to do this, colleagues, a friend or a student can be asked for their opinions about the newly produced material. In this way spelling mistakes or vague instructions can be discovered in time. The third stage is evaluating which contributes to improving the material for future use and also provides ideas about the production of other materials. The following stage is classifying, (e.g. to categorize the material alphabetically) a useful process in order to access the material easily for future use. There could be as many ways of classifying as there are teachers. Lastly, there is record-keeping which reminds of classifying. It is very useful for long-term planning to have documentation of material and evaluations, especially if it is to be used in different classes (Harmer 2001:151).

The communicative approach and the importance of authenticity

According to Kramsch (2000:185) communicative approaches to language teaching emphasize exposing second

language learners to spoken or written texts that are authentic, that is to say containing no artificial language that is produced for pedagogic purposes. The intention of authentic communication is to make learners better understand both "speaking customs and 4 ways of life of the target country" in order to behave more native-like. This approach is especially useful for teaching immigrants in English-speaking countries (ibid).

Mitchell (1995:39) also emphasizes the importance of authenticity in the communicative approach and claims that it is a 'key concern' for this approach. Authentic material help language learners to appreciate it as a link to the real world outside the English classroom. This accustoms learners to becoming familiar with the target language and prepares them for real situations. Lightbown and Spada (1999:168) too observe students' need to deal with authentic material so they can prepare themselves for language situations outside the classroom.

Tornberg (2000:17) further points to the significance of meaningful and authentic teaching material and observes a problem in schools where students are expected to acquire knowledge that has been established outside the classroom. This knowledge is then supposed to be mediated in a way that makes students capable of seeing a connection between the classroom and the real world. If this connection is absent and school reality consists of a worn down classroom and coursebooks that are out of date, there exists a risk that pupils only associate language with what happens in the English classroom and what is tested in exams. Their language acquisition then ends up in a 'no-man's-land' where there is a great distance to native-speakers and their world (ibid). Nevertheless, if authentic material is used, this distance can be reduced.

However, Mitchell (1995:40) points out that there is a problem with the communicative approach: the question of grammar. When students are encouraged to speak as much as possible and focus is on meaning rather than on form, they often make grammatical mistakes. Many teachers solve this problem by teaching grammar in traditional ways and simultaneously use authentic material as their main resource. Mitchell (ibid) quotes

Brumfit who points out that "teachers should plan systematically for a balance between meaning-oriented 'fluency' work and form-oriented 'accuracy' work".

Kramsch (2000:178) claims that there has been an increased need to develop both communicative and cultural competence in language teaching. In order to fill these needs the use of authentic texts becomes salient. However, to merely use authentic texts is not enough to make it authentic according to Kramsch. The ultimate situation is to use a text as it was intended to be used originally. If for example a German menu is utilized for grammatical practise, it is not used in the way native customers make use of it at a restaurant (ibid). However, whether this is relevant or not when using authentic texts in the English classroom, could be discussed.

Moreover, in the same way as in natural situations we read texts for different purposes, the choice of text and reading practise should also result in students learning how to deal with different sorts of text in a realistic way, preferably taken directly as authentic texts from newspapers or magazines. Every text does not have to be used for learning grammar or extending one's vocabulary. Sometimes it is sufficient merely to read a text and understand its main points (Tornberg 2000:79).

Coursebooks versus alternative material Many teachers choose to use coursebooks as their main resource in the classroom whereas some teachers use them only to complement alternative material. Lundahl (1998:11) believes that there is a reason to react if an entire course revolves around coursebooks and suggests a combination of coursebooks and alternative material. Furthermore, he remarks that there are many advantages with authentic texts; "above all they give students a chance of meeting contents that interest them, stories that fascinate and linguistic challenges that cannot be offered by coursebooks" (ibid, my translation). However, he also points out that several coursebooks today provide texts of good quality. What are the advantages and disadvantages of using coursebooks and alternative material respectively? Unfortunately there is not

enough time and space for mentioning all possible aspects in this study and therefore only some will be brought up.

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LESSON 12. EFFECTIVE USE OF TEACHING AIDS

Plan:

1. **Meaning of teaching aids**
2. **Using teaching aids in Language Teaching**

Teaching aids are used to enable the learners to achieve the learning objectives effectively and interestingly. There are audio-visual aids such as blackboard, maps, charts, globes, and pictures etc., which are traditional in nature. Now-a-days electronic media have come in a big way and are apt to influence not only communication and education, but also the manner and behaviour, lifestyle, attitudes, and interests of the clientele. These media and materials provide direct as well as vicarious or improvised learning experiences to the students at all levels of education. These include traditional aids as well as electronic media evolved from time to time in large variety and great novelty.

A teacher has an inherent desire that his teaching should be as effective as possible. What he teaches should be carefully attended, clearly understood, grasped and fixed in the minds of his students. In other words, a good teaching always aims at the

effective communication and appropriate learning outcomes. For realizing both these objectives, a teacher has to make use of different types of aid material just as charts, maps, models, concrete objects, films, tapes, projectors, radio, television and similar other resources. All such materials, instruments and resources that aid to the effective realization of his teaching objectives may be termed as teaching aids in the field of teaching learning.

Definitions – According to Good's dictionary of Education, "a teaching aid is anything by means of which the learning process may be encouraged or carried out on through the sense of hearing or sense of sight." **Classification of teaching aids**–Teaching aids and material can be classified in a number of ways. However, here we may mention two different approaches for their classification.

A. Traditional approach: This is an age-old approach, and according to this, here we can classify teaching aids into four categories: *1. Audio aids:* This category includes audio aids the aids, which call upon the auditory senses and thus help the individuals, learn through listening. The examples are phonograph records, radio broadcasts and magnetic tape recordings. *2. Visual aids:* In this category we have visual aids the aids which call upon the visual senses and then help the learners learn through viewing. These aids may be further broken into subcategories: projective and non- projective aids. Under the projective aids, we may have visual aids like silent motion picture and filmstrips, epidiascope, magic lanterns, micro-projections, and projection with the opaque and overhead projector. The non-projective aids appeals to the sense of sight. It may include chalkboard, felt board, bulletin broad, photographs, posters, maps, charts, globes, models, specimens, textbook illustrations, etc. *3. Audio-visual aids:* In This category, we may place audio-visual aids the aids which call upon the auditory and visual senses and thus help the learners learn through listening as well as viewing. Examples are television, sound motion pictures, synchronized audio-slide projection, radio vision and computer-assisted instructions. *4. Activity aids:* We may place the aids that facilitate learning through sight and sound as well as through doing in this category. The examples of such aids

are dramatization and role –playing, experimentation in a laboratory or workshop, etc.

B. Technological approach: According to this approach, the teaching aids may be classified into the following categories: *1. Simple hardware:* Magic lantern, epidiascope, slide projectors, filmstrip projectors, opaque projectors and overhead projector, etc. *2. Hardware:* Radio, television, radio-vision, telelecture, records player, tape recorder, motion pictures, teaching machines, and computer. *3. Software:* Slides and filmstrips, pictures and other printed material, graphic aids such as graphs, charts, maps, diagrams, cartoons and posters and three-dimensional objects like models and specimens.

Using teaching aids in Language Teaching

Unsuccessful language learning is always due to failure of imagination than lack of intelligence. One major cause of this failure is the failure on the part of the teacher realizes that words alone need not be enough to carry the student over in to the situation that he is trying to present. A common failure on the part of the students is their inability to create imaginatively in their mind, the picture of the situation that the words are supposed to build-up. Audiovisual aids in one form or another help the students to imagine an experience beyond the reach of the classroom. Thus they serve as a link between the learner and the language.

Non- projective aids--- Blackboard

Blackboard represents the oldest and most commonly used teaching aid. Although not a visual aid itself, it can be used for the display of visual material in the classroom teaching. Blackboard, in fact, is synonymous to a classroom. A class can function without chair, desks or even rooms to sit in but not without the aid of a blackboard. That is why, in the new educational policy tremendous emphasis has been given to the necessity and use of the blackboard as an instructional aid by the name "operation blackboard" In language teaching the blackboard can be used for introducing new material. After the students have mastered the pronunciation of a new word the teacher can introduce then to the written from by writing it on the board at what he judges to be the

right moment. The Structure teaching substitution tables can be built up step by step and in collaboration with the class. Short compositions and dialogues, which are the joint effort of the whole class, may also be built up sentence by sentence on the board. The imaginative teacher will be able to think of many other ways of making the blackboard the focus of the class effort of this kind. It will be mistake to think that the blackboard is meant only for writing. Bulletin Board: **The bulletin board** is a sheet of wood, masonry cork, celesta similar material set within a frame. The used for displaying pictures, charts, posters, clippings, photographs, or other learning materials, it serves as a perpetual magazine. It gives information of direct concern to the pupils and taps their curiosity and desire for knowledge. It provides a practical outlet for artistic talent and creative ability. It helps to unify class sprit by creating a sense of responsibility, appreciation and accomplishment. It stimulates student's interest and enthusiasm to a particular lesson. It must be simple and must telegraph its message quickly, easily and efficiently. The material must be changed frequently. Display must be done neatly and well. **Flannel Board:** The flannel board is somewhat like a Blackboard. But it has added advantages of colour, movement and quick removal, leading to more interest and more learning. Its extreme flexibility permits various arrangements to be tried experimentally. It is a very useful teaching aid, which must be tried and used effectively by language teachers. It is especially helpful in presenting events or ideas in sequence as story unfolds, a report is given, demonstration is performed, steps in process are given or basic concepts are presented in a definite order.

Charts:

Charts are combination of graphics and pictorial media designed for the orderly and logical visualizing of relationship between key facts and ideas. Their main function is to show relationship such as comparisons, relative amounts developments, process, classification and organization.

Types of charts:

1. Classification chart
2. Genealogy charts

3. Flow charts
4. Relationship chart
5. Tabulation chart
6. Chronology chart

Projective Aids:

Film strips:

This is one of the easiest methods. The projector can be loaded in advanced and 30 to 40 clear pictures can be projected on a white wall or screen. The images are sharp and clear and will be visible to a small group even in a class room that is not darkened. One great advantage of this projector is that the picture can be stopped at any point or as long as one likes. Thus the dimension of time is under the teachers control as the pictures can be projected at appropriate moments according to the progress of the lesson.

Colour slides:

They are cheaper than filmstrips and are cheaper to make. Any color picture can be taken with a good camera and the resulting transparency mounted in a special cardboard or metal mounts for showing in the class. They can be projected in the screen using a filmstrip projector with an attachment for showing such mounted transparencies. Up to 36 slides can be loaded in advance, so that they can be shown one after the other without any trouble or waste of time during the lesson. It is useful to have a rear-projection screen which enables the teacher to show the transparencies without having a darkened room. This will make it convenient for students to take down notes as the teacher is explaining the pictures to them. A further advantage of this type of screen is that the projector and the screen are close together so that the teacher can operate the former and point to the latter quite easily at the same time. They can also provide material for testing the four skills.

The opaque projector or epidiascope:

This can project any paper from a book a photograph, a chart or even small objects on to a screen is a darkened room. The chief advantage of this projector over the slide projector is that any material can be shown without any advance technical preparation.

But the main shortcoming is the need for complete darkness in the room which is often difficult to achieve and which interferes with other classroom activities like writing more over the machine is very bulky. Hence, its use is usually restricted to the display of illustrated materials during public lectures.

The overhead projector (OHP):

This helps to overcome the problem of howling to him ones back to the class to write on the blackboard. The overhead projector projects what the teacher writes with the special pencil on a transparent plastic film in front of him on to a screen behind him as the faces the class. Since the drawings and writing can be prepared in advance to be projected at the desired time considerable flexibility can be achieved. For e.g. the teacher can first project an exercise and after the class has completed it he can project the answer for self – assessment by the students.

The television:

The television is often used as a substitute for the class room. Being a visual as well as an oral medium it has a for greater impact on the student and can claim their whole attention. Other oral and visual aids can be employed by the teacher on television and thus the effectiveness of many other aids can be combined in one medium. For all its potential, television as a teaching medium cannot succeed on its own. The cooperation of the class teacher is essential.

The linguaphone:

The linguaphone is a kind of gramophone. It is specially designed for helping the children in learning pronunciation or the other sound peculiarities of the language. In a linguaphone, a sound amplifier is always fitted. It can also reproduce the speech of the teacher instantly. Many linguaphones have recording devices fitted in them. In that case the speech of the child can be recorded at any time after that. Pronunciation mistakes can then be out and explained to the class.

► Teaching aids are now available in a wide variety and novelty ranging from traditional graphics to electronic materials and media. With a view to making the teaching-learning process

more interesting and effective, it is necessary to select suitable teaching aids suitable to the instructional objectives and students' needs as well as their background. It is, however, desirable that besides commercially prepared readymade materials, students and teachers should join hands in preparing suitable aids according to their interests, expertise and resources available. Learner's participation and involvement enhance their knowledge, understanding and skills, and make education more efficient and pleasurable.

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LESSON 13. INTERACTION PATTERNS IN THE LESSON

Plan:

1. **Individual work**
2. **Group work or pair work**
3. **Close-ended teacher questioning**
4. **Open-ended teacher questioning**

The interaction between the teacher and students as well as students and their peers is an important part of the language learning experience. There are various patterns of communication that many ESL teachers observe to change the dynamics of their classes. Varying these different patterns helps change and improve the language learning process. It is also important to recognize that some of these patterns are teacher-centered while others are student-centered. When patterns are teacher centered, they are easily controlled by the teacher. Conversely, when the

patterns are student-centered, it gives students freer practice with the language. Depending on the class, teachers vary the usage of these interaction patterns, not only to teach the materials effectively but also to create a suitable learning environment for acquiring the target language. Teachers who recognize the effects of these interaction patterns understand that each respective pattern plays a pivotal role in classroom dynamics and their student's engagement with the material or activities. In this article, we will explore the classroom interaction patterns that are normally found in the ESL classroom and highlight when each one is best suited, as well as their pedagogical advantages.

Individual work

Individual work is when the teacher assigns a task that learners work on by themselves. It is an opportunity for students to explore the language on their own. Some examples of activities that are best conducted individually are reading and writing tasks, or comprehension exercises. Many studies have shown that independent learning affects the development of learner autonomy, which is the goal of many teachers for their learners. During an independent work session, students are given the opportunity to rely on their own resources, and it is also during this time that teachers can gauge the level and progress of their students. Individual work periods also serve as a useful classroom management tool to calm down a noisy class or even to control a challenging group. Implementing individual work is also a useful transition activity between a lecture and group or pair work. As an example, after a lesson on grammar, students can complete a short comprehension exercise before diving into an activity where they have to produce or apply what they have learned.

Group work or pair work

Activities that require collaboration and two-way communication are best implemented through group work and pair work. This interaction pattern is student-centered as the students get to play with the language. Pair work and group work give the teacher an ample amount of time to monitor the students understanding of the lesson content. This type of student-to-student interaction provides students with more speaking time

and is a great way of getting the student to use and actively produce the target language. Group work or pair work is especially helpful in creating engaging classrooms and can help to change the pace of a lesson. Activities that lend themselves to this type of interaction include role-plays or dialogues, reading circles, matching games, etc.

Due to possible factors such as the flexibility of the seating arrangements, the tasks given, the clarity of your instructions, or even the class size, improper execution of this interaction pattern can lead to a situation where students veer off task and result in an unsuccessful completion of the activity. To prevent this situation, consider implementing the following three strategies:

- Actively monitor your students by moving around the class to make observations of the language being produced.
- Set up the activity so that students take it in turns speaking or assign each group member a specific role such as leader or secretary.
- Set a time limit to keep students focused on the assigned task.

More importantly, pay close attention to the dynamics of your classroom as this is also a significant feature to consider before grouping students together. Be observant or aware of how your students interact with one another. If there are situations where students do not get along, or if you notice a student who is uncomfortable consider switching up the groups to avoid any confrontational issues during activities. Despite some potential shortcomings, facilitating these kinds of activities is rewarding for both students and teachers alike.

Close-ended teacher questioning

Many teachers gravitate toward close-ended questioning especially in contexts where classrooms are more traditional or teacher-centered. Close-ended questions are questions in which the answer can only come from a limited number of options. For example, questions that require an answer to who, what, where, or when. As a result, teachers can control the language that students use. Some examples of close-ended questions are yes/no questions or questions used for concept checking such as after

giving instructions or explaining a key language point. This type of questioning is helpful when it comes to checking if students are paying attention. It is also useful for classroom management, especially when it comes to reorienting students' attention or having to deal with challenging students.

With this type of question, the interaction pattern is mostly top down between the teacher and the students. Studies have also shown that with this type of questioning, students take a more passive role. Thus, it is the teacher's responsibility to be wary of how often this type of questioning is implemented. Consider, for example, noting which students are always answering the questions, encouraging shyer students to participate, and increasing the wait time after each question to ensure all students have an opportunity to answer.

Open-ended teacher questioning This type of questioning occurs when the teacher asks a series of questions that have a variety of answers, depending on the students' own views and knowledge of the topic. Open-ended questions are a useful tool for concept checking. For instance, in evaluating how much their students know about a particular topic or in checking their level of comprehension concerning a lesson or text they have read. Compared to close-ended questions, open-ended questions encourage critical thinking since there is a wider range of acceptable answers. It is a great way to explore a topic more freely as the answers expected require more thought and the broadness of the question can allow for some creative freedom. In addition, these questions can be expanded to discuss the 'why' and 'how' and as a result, create more opportunities to produce the target language. Look at the difference between these two questions.

Close-ended: "Do you like summer?" (Answer: Yes/No)

Open-ended: "What do you enjoy about summer? Why?" (Answer: I enjoy X, Y, and Z... because...)

In general, open-ended questions are best suited for activities where students have to brainstorm such as creating mind maps or word maps, for exploring broad topics such as

culture, or for learning how to develop ideas and express opinions.

Full-class interaction

Activities such as class debates, discussions, or review games, are examples of full class interactions. These activities are a great way to end a lesson or unit, and also serve as an alternative formative assessment method. Full-class interaction allows for different communication patterns, not only between the teacher and student, but also between students and their teacher, and among students and their peers. Similar to group work or pair work, this type of interaction pattern promotes the production of the target language. It is also a way of drawing students' attention to useful language items or for doing error correction. Some teachers do this by doing mini-lessons on a particular mistake or by reviewing a specific language concept. Implementing activities that involve the entire class helps to build teacher and student rapport. Creating a points system to encourage healthy competition is also another means of sustaining motivation in the classroom when it comes to getting students to participate in activities.

Choral response

Choral response is a common practice, especially in drills or pronunciation lessons. This is another teacher-centered interaction pattern in which the students simply repeat what the teacher says. In most ESL classrooms, teachers use it as a way to introduce new concepts such as verb conjugation or to introduce the pronunciation of a sound. While this method is common, it is more suitable for the beginning of a lesson or as a review to quickly check comprehension. However, various studies have concluded that it is not a reliable way to assess student understanding. While choral responses may give some teachers a sense of assurance, it is not safe to assume that all your students understand solely through repetition.

Monologues

Every teacher is familiar with giving monologues as it is a widely used teacher-centered technique. Monologues are often used to give instructions when setting up an activity or to explain

a more complex language point or concept. When teachers implement monologues in the classroom, the students do not need to interact, and the focus is on listening. Similar to choral responses, monologues are also best suited at the beginning of a lesson to introduce a topic or grammar concept. Monologues are a great tool in this regard, but it is easy for students to lose interest or become distracted. Try using visuals like realia or pictures to keep students' attention. Asking a variety of questions, open-ended and close-ended, also helps to check in on students' attentiveness and understanding. To encourage active listening, try to incorporate a cloze-activity, where students need to follow along to fill in the missing information.

Homework

Students' progress in the target language also depends on what they do to practice at home. Assigning homework allows students to work alone outside of the classroom and this is particularly helpful in contexts where English is not the main language. These days, teachers assign worksheets in person or over the Internet to supplement or reinforce what their students learn in class. Like individual learning, homework assignments fall under the category of asynchronous learning where students can learn at a more convenient time of their own choosing. Homework encourages students to be aware of their own abilities as they become aware of what they can or cannot do. It also gives students the opportunity to ask their teachers specific language-related questions for the following day, which the teachers can then use to determine their students' language learning needs.

As we have discussed, certain activities lend themselves to particular interaction patterns. Teacher-centered interaction patterns such as lectures, close-ended questioning, and choral responses may seem outdated. However, they still have a place in the classroom, especially in maintaining order and structure. Student-centered interaction patterns such as group work and pair work, open-ended questioning, and full-class interactions, provide opportune moments for meaningful production. While individual work periods and homework assignments create opportunities for students to develop learner autonomy. The

interaction patterns that we have discussed should complement one another. As a result, there is no best interaction pattern as their success in the classroom is determined by a variety of factors. Every class is different and has its own set of needs and challenges. Take time to evaluate and reflect on the interaction patterns you observe and implement them accordingly to create the most suitable learning environment for your particular classroom.

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LESSON 14. GROUP WORK, PAIR WORK AND INDIVIDUAL WORK

Plan:

1. **Group work in the classroom: Types of small groups**
2. **The Role of the teacher in organizing individual work**

One way to change the pace in your classroom is to do a small group activity. But what type of small group should you use? It depends on the size of your class, the length of time you have available, the physical features of the classroom, and the nature of the group task. Here are several options you could try. Consult the Centre for Teaching Excellence teaching tip "Group Work in the Classroom: Small-Group Tasks" for task ideas.

Buzz groups

- *Class size*: any
- *Time frame*: 3-10 minutes
- *Setting:* no limitations
- *Purpose*: generate ideas/answers, re-stimulate student interest, gauge student understanding

Description: These groups involve students engaging in short, informal discussions, often in response to a particular sentence starter or question. At a transitional moment in the class, have students turn to 1-3 neighbours to discuss any difficulties in understanding, answer a prepared question, define or give examples of key concepts, or speculate on what will happen next in the class. The best discussions are those in which students make judgments regarding the relative merits, relevance, or usefulness of an aspect of the lecture (Brookfield & Preskill, 1999). Sample questions include, "What's the most contentious statement you've heard so far in the lecture today?" or "What's the most unsupported assertion you've heard in the lecture today?" Reconvene as a class and have a general discussion in which students share ideas or questions that arose within their subgroups.

Comments: This method is very flexible: it is easy to implement in any size of class and in most classrooms, even the most formally arranged lecture hall. Consider how to regain the attention of a large group: turning the lights off and on is one simple yet effective method.

Think-pair-share

- *Class size*: any
- *Time frame:* 5-10 minutes
- *Setting:* no limitations
- *Purpose*: generate ideas, increase students' confidence in their answers, encourage broad participation in plenary session

Description: This strategy has three steps. First, students think individually about a particular question or scenario. Then they pair up to discuss and compare their ideas. Finally, they are given the chance to share their ideas in a large class discussion.

Comments: Think-pair-sharing forces all students to attempt an initial response to the question, which they can then clarify and expand as they collaborate. It also gives them a chance to validate their ideas in a small group before mentioning them to the large group, which may help shy students feel more confident participating.

Circle of Voices

- *Class size*: any
- *Time frame:* 10-20 minutes
- *Setting:* moveable chairs preferable
- *Purpose:* generate ideas, develop listening skills, have all students participate, equalize learning environment

Description: This method involves students taking turns to speak. Students form circles of four or five. Give students a topic, and allow them a few minutes to organize their thoughts about it. Then the discussion begins, with each student having up to three minutes (or choose a different length) of uninterrupted time to speak. During this time, no one else is allowed to say anything. After everyone has spoken once, open the floor within the subgroup for general discussion. Specify that students should only build on what someone else has said, not on their own ideas; also, at this point, they should not introduce new ideas (Brookfield & Preskill, 1999).

Comments: Some shy students might feel uncomfortable having to speak. Lessen their fear by making the topic specific and relevant or by giving each person a relevant quote to speak about. A variation to this method, which encourages students to listen more carefully to each other, involves requiring each person to begin by paraphrasing the comments of the previous student or by showing how his or her remarks relate to those of the previous student. For this variation, students will need less preparation time before the "circle" begins, but they may need more time between speakers.

Rotating trios

- *Class size:* 15-30
- *Time frame:* 10 or more minutes

- *Setting:* a fair bit of space, moveable seating helpful (they could stand) Purpose: introduce students to many of their peers, generate ideas

Description: This strategy involves students discussing issues with many of their fellow classmates in turn. Beforehand, prepare discussion questions. In class, students form trios, with the groups arranged in a large circle or square formation. Give the students a question and suggest that each person take a turn answering. After a suitable time period, ask the trios to assign a 0, 1, or 2 to each of its members. Then direct the #1s to rotate one trio clockwise, the #2s to rotate two trios clockwise, and the #0s to remain in the same place; the result will be completely new trios. Now introduce a new, slightly more difficult question. Rotate trios and introduce new questions as many times as you would like (Silberman, 1996).

Comments: This type of group can be arranged with pairs or foursomes and works well with most subject matter, including computational questions. It would be difficult to implement in a large class, however.

Snowball groups/pyramids

- *Class size:* 12-50
- *Time frame:* 15-20 minutes, depending on how many times the groups "snowball"
- Setting: moveable seating required
- *Purpose:* generate well-vetted ideas, narrow a topic, develop decision-making skills

Description: This method involves progressive doubling: students first work alone, then in pairs, then in fours, and so on. In most cases, after working in fours, students come together for a plenary session in which their conclusions or solutions are pooled. Provide a sequence of increasingly complex tasks so that students do not become bored with repeated discussion at multiple stages. For example, have students record a few questions that relate to the class topic. In pairs, students try to answer one another's questions. Pairs join together to make fours and identify, depending on the topic, either unanswered questions or areas of controversy or relevant principles based on their previous

discussions. Back in the large class group, one representative from each group reports the group's conclusions (Habeshaw et al, 1984; Jaques, 2000).

Comments: This method takes time to unfold, so should be used only when the concepts under discussion warrant the time. Also, depending on the amount of time allotted, students may feel that certain nuances of their discussions are lost.

Jigsaw

- *Class size:* 10-50
- *Time frame:* 20 or more minutes
- *Setting:* moveable seating required, a lot of space preferable
- *Purpose*: learn concepts in-depth, develop teamwork, have students teaching students

Description: This strategy involves students becoming "experts" on one aspect of a topic, then sharing their expertise with others. Divide a topic into a few constitutive parts ("puzzle pieces"). Form subgroups of 3-5 and assign each subgroup a different "piece" of the topic (or, if the class is large, assign two or more subgroups to each subtopic). Each group's task is to develop expertise on its particular subtopic by brainstorming, developing ideas, and if time permits, researching. Once students have become experts on a particular subtopic, shuffle the groups so that the members of each new group have a different area of expertise. Students then take turns sharing their expertise with the other group members, thereby creating a completed "puzzle" of knowledge about the main topic (see Silberman, 1996). A convenient way to assign different areas of expertise is to distribute handouts of different colours. For the first stage of the group work, groups are composed of students with the same colour of handout; for the second stage, each member of the newly formed groups must have a different colour of handout.

Comments: The jigsaw helps to avoid tiresome plenary sessions, because most of the information is shared in small groups. This method can be expanded by having students develop expertise about their subtopics first through independent research outside of class. Then, when they meet with those who have the same subtopic, they can clarify and expand on their

expertise before moving to a new group. One potential drawback is that students hear only one group's expertise on a particular topic and don't benefit as much from the insight of the whole class; to address this issue, you could collect a written record of each group's work and create a master document—a truly complete puzzle—on the topic.

Fishbowl

- *Class size:* 10-50
- *Time frame:* 15 or more minutes
- *Setting:* moveable seating and a lot of space preferable; if necessary, have inner group stand/sit at front of lecture hall and the outer group sit in regular lecture hall seats
- *Purpose*: observe group interaction, provide real illustrations for concepts, provide opportunity for analysis

Description: This method involves one group observing another group. The first group forms a circle and either discusses an issue or topic, does a role play, or performs a brief drama. The second group forms a circle around the inner group. Depending on the inner group's task and the context of your course, the outer group can look for themes, patterns, soundness of argument, etc., in the inner group's discussion, analyze the inner group's functioning as a group, or simply watch and comment on the role play. Debrief with both groups at the end in a plenary to capture their experiences. See Jaques (2000) for several variations on this technique.

Comments: Be aware that the outer group members can become bored if their task is not challenging enough. You could have groups switch places and roles to help with this. Also note that the inner group could feel inhibited by the observers; mitigate this concern by asking for volunteers to participate in the inner circle or by specifying that each student will have a chance to be both inner and outer group members. Although this method is easiest to implement in small classes, you could also expand it so that multiple "fishbowls" are occurring at once.

Learning teams

- *Class size*: any
- *Time frame*: any

• *Setting:* no limitations

• *Purpose:* foster relationships among students, increase confidence in participating

Description: For this type of group, students are divided into groups at the beginning of the term. When you want to incorporate small group discussion or teamwork into your class, you direct the students to get into these term-long learning groups. Groups of four work well, because each foursome can be subdivided into pairs, depending on the activity.

Comments: Students get to know a small number of their classmates well over the course of the term, and may come to see their team mates as study partners even outside the classroom. Using learning teams eliminates the time it takes to organize students into groups each time you wish to use group work. However, because students will be working with each other over an extended time period, be very careful about how you assign them to groups. Have students submit data cards about themselves at the beginning of term, possibly even completing a short personality inventory. You might want to ask them also to suggest the names of two or three classmates with whom they would and would not like to work.

The Role of the teacher in organizing individual work

Effectiveness of individual work of the students depends on leading of the teacher. The teacher finds out a goal of individual work and teach students to grasp thought work , observes the process of class's individual work and help students not to make mistakes. To choose effective ways of goals' decisions, to make considering conversion of teaching, to select how to organize equipment and suitable methods of studying and system individual work in accordance with peculiarity of subjects depends of teacher's skills.

It is necessary to develop knowledge activity of individual students' work in the hole lesson process. During making works from book, solving problems, writing essays, doing laboratory and manual tasks consider with individual work. In didactic way individual work divides in preparation of new knowledge, making tasks, repetition and observation. The aim of using preparation is

to master new theme, develop new skills, repeat past material. Solving problems, doing tasks and choosing study equipments concerns with this.

To master new knowledge often used for elder students. With the help of individual works we develop knowledge and skills, fix causes. All these need to contain individual repeating of the lesson's theme and program unit. It distinguishes with writing works varieties and test works.

The main goal of individual students work is to do task without teacher's help. For getting good results doing tasks is to observe students' knowledge, thoughts, skills and ways of solving problems themselves. If we do one or more mistakes dong tasks, we will get wrong results. Must the teacher stop students and correct mistakes if they have wrong results of task? Must direct right way of students' thinking to destroy difficulties? Or teacher must give a chance to understand that it's wrong answer and let students to find out and correct mistakes themselves? Such questions faced with every teacher who organizes the methods of individual working.

We have to take into special consideration all ways of learning of individual work. But we must to order questions for students to find out the main rules and observing ways themselves. For students is very important to make conclusions themselves. That's way if we minus one of additions we will get second addition. As the result we can check plus through minus. It needs to make evidences, open the main functions of last lesson, making conclusion for examples for right ordering. Individual works used for common math's operations and orders. But such way of individual work is realized with the teacher's writing at the board. In this situation we can't say that material was treated fully. Only students' individual work can have such conclusion. Every lesson has the same individual works' skills.

Finding out the theme and the goals of the lesson comes to completing new material with new tasks. When we plan the lesson we also must find out exercises' tasks. There we have to reveal types of tasks in explanation-demonstration aim, types of board writing and individual working. The skill goal of individual work is

after giving the program knowledge to treat that knowledge in full. During making tasks it's very needed teacher's help for students which can't do it at once. It's right to check lesson's tasks at the end of individual work. Because it gives a chance to students to correct mistakes themselves. There are two types of checking works. Control and self checking works. Control works helps to make conclusion about last units' assimilation. According to this conclusion we can observe students' knowledge quality, masters and skills. Control works carry out with work plan. In control works last materials have variants or tables and are given for every student individual. This work needs 20-25 minutes. The sum mark is written into class journal. Self checking works are given to conclude program's themes or to concrete knowledge about program questions. The goal of such teaching is to observe results of one or more lessons. If we have little time for checking individual work, we can do it in the next lesson. Checking works contents must support only repeated, last and concluded material. The conclusion shows new knowledge and pedagogic master results. Organizing individual work we must take into consideration students' peculiarities and we can have such results:

- Every student makes future work pan with the help of the teacher.
- Setting aims comes true with teacher help, but student makes work plan himself.
- According to teacher's tasks student plans future work's goals.
- Work is done by student's wish and he finds out the content, plan and do it without teacher's help.

So, it's right to connect learning, mastering and checking with individual work. Students' individual work influence to their forming knowledge and skills, ordering, the lesson's quality and usefulness are changed.

According to lesson's content and giving individual work for students we must take into consideration every student's skills, sometimes only one, sometimes group, sometimes the hole class to give individual work. In addition, we must connect students'

individual works with each-other. Working individual students master their knowledge, skills and it's increased lesson quality. Organizing games and asking interesting questions influence to student's research work. For giving right answers student must read mush and improve, enlarge his knowledge. Because it's competition. In organizing individual work the main is teacher's role.

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LESSON 15. CLASSROOM DISCIPLINE

Plan:

1. **Classroom discipline: Theory and Practice**
2. **Classroom Discipline in the Context of Teaching**
3. **Promoting Good Methods of Classroom Discipline**

Classroom disruption is a major challenge faced by teachers (Simón & AlonsoTapia, 2016). Teachers direct a great deal of energy toward classroom disruption while trying to reach their instructional goals (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Espelage & Lopes, 2013; Grayson & Alvarez, 2008). Classroom disruption is indeed often indicated as one of the main causes of wasted classroom time (Tsouloupas, Carson, & Matthews, 2014) and as a foremost reason for teachers' emotional exhaustion (Carson, Plemmons, Templin, & Weiss, 2011). This issue is also responsible for teacher turnover (Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber, 2010), primarily in situations in which teachers perceive high levels of disciplinary problems and poor administrative support (Kersaint, Lewis, Potter, & Meisels, 2007). Rinke (2008), for instance, cites the following four studies suggesting that student discipline (the opposite of student indiscipline) is an "important predictor of teacher retention, commitment, and satisfaction" (p. 5): (1) Haberman and Richards' study (1990) suggests that teachers initially predicted that underachievers would be their main classroom problem before teaching but later considered student disruption as their main concern after teaching; (2) Ingersoll (2001) found that 18% of *teacher movers* and 30% of *teacher leavers* report indiscipline as the main cause of their resignation; (3) Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) showed that the school-wide management of student behavior was significantly correlated with teachers' commitment to the profession; (4) Smith and Smith (2006) found that school violence was the main cause of attrition in the first five years of teaching. Notably, because teachers may be exhausted from addressing classroom disruption and because teaching time may be significantly affected by classroom disruption, students' opportunities to learn are likely

decreased (Cothran, 2003; Sun, 2015). Classroom discipline clearly is a complex issue that cannot be reduced to a technical and/or scientific problem. Classroom discipline encompasses complex interactions among teacher variables, student variables, school variables and societal variables (e.g., general attitudes and values towards schooling). In fact, because classroom discipline is structured around the parceling of power in a specific public space, the issue becomes important politically and educationally (Buzzelli & Johnston, 2001; Pane, Rocco, Miller, & Salmon, 2014). Thus, the specific link between school goals and students' compliance is subject to political and ideological interpretations. These different interpretations are very clearly expressed in the classical division between a format of classroom management (or schools) in which the power is teacher-centered versus a classroom management format in which power is shared with the students (studentcentered perspectives) (Ding, Li, Li, & Kulm, 2010; Evrim, Gökçe, & Enisa, 2009; Lau et al., 2006; Lewis, Romi, Qui, & Katz, 2005; Mullarkey, Recchia, Lee, Shin, & Lee, 2005; Psunder, 2005). In general, classroom indiscipline (or misbehavior) can be thought of as the behavior or behaviors that conflict with teaching (the primary vector of the class) and that the teacher attempts to correct through his actions (Doyle, 1985, 1986). Classroom discipline is therefore a breach of the management actions undertaken by the teacher to enable student learning. Basically, classroom discipline refers to a set of teacher actions that constitute organizational and management processes aimed at establishing classroom order (routines, norms, procedures, etc.). Discipline, in turn, refers to the actions that the teacher undertakes to end indiscipline and to restore order. It must be stressed, however, that although students are by far the most frequent source of indiscipline (Kulinna, Cothran, & Regualos, 2006), they are not the only source. The teacher or school staff may also be a source of disruption (Doyle, 1980; Good & Brophy, 2000). Thus, the issue of classroom discipline can be studied under a number of close designations such as "classroom order", "classroom misbehavior", "classroom disruption", "classroom indiscipline", or "classroom disorder", just to name a

3. Flow charts
4. Relationship chart
5. Tabulation chart
6. Chronology chart

Projective Aids:

Film strips:

This is one of the easiest methods. The projector can be loaded in advanced and 30 to 40 clear pictures can be projected on a white wall or screen. The images are sharp and clear and will be visible to a small group even in a class room that is not darkened. One great advantage of this projector is that the picture can be stopped at any point or as long as one likes. Thus the dimension of time is under the teachers control as the pictures can be projected at appropriate moments according to the progress of the lesson.

Colour slides:

They are cheaper than filmstrips and are cheaper to make. Any color picture can be taken with a good camera and the resulting transparency mounted in a special cardboard or metal mounts for showing in the class. They can be projected in the screen using a filmstrip projector with an attachment for showing such mounted transparencies. Up to 36 slides can be loaded in advance, so that they can be shown one after the other without any trouble or waste of time during the lesson. It is useful to have a rear-projection screen which enables the teacher to show the transparencies without having a darkened room. This will make it convenient for students to take down notes as the teacher is explaining the pictures to them. A further advantage of this type of screen is that the projector and the screen are close together so that the teacher can operate the former and point to the latter quite easily at the same time. They can also provide material for testing the four skills.

The opaque projector or epidiascope:

This can project any paper from a book a photograph, a chart or even small objects on to a screen is a darkened room. The chief advantage of this projector over the slide projector is that any material can be shown without any advance technical preparation.

But the main shortcoming is the need for complete darkness in the room which is often difficult to achieve and which interferes with other classroom activities like writing more over the machine is very bulky. Hence, its use is usually restricted to the display of illustrated materials during public lectures.

The overhead projector (OHP):

This helps to overcome the problem of howling to him ones back to the class to write on the blackboard. The overhead projector projects what the teacher writes with the special pencil on a transparent plastic film in front of him on to a screen behind him as the faces the class. Since the drawings and writing can be prepared in advance to be projected at the desired time considerable flexibility can be achieved. For e.g. the teacher can first project an exercise and after the class has completed it he can project the answer for self – assessment by the students.

The television:

The television is often used as a substitute for the class room. Being a visual as well as an oral medium it has a for greater impact on the student and can claim their whole attention. Other oral and visual aids can be employed by the teacher on television and thus the effectiveness of many other aids can be combined in one medium. For all its potential, television as a teaching medium cannot succeed on its own. The cooperation of the class teacher is essential.

The linguaphone:

The linguaphone is a kind of gramophone. It is specially designed for helping the children in learning pronunciation or the other sound peculiarities of the language. In a linguaphone, a sound amplifier is always fitted. It can also reproduce the speech of the teacher instantly. Many linguaphones have recording devices fitted in them. In that case the speech of the child can be recorded at any time after that. Pronunciation mistakes can then be out and explained to the class.

► Teaching aids are now available in a wide variety and novelty ranging from traditional graphics to electronic materials and media. With a view to making the teaching-learning process

more interesting and effective, it is necessary to select suitable teaching aids suitable to the instructional objectives and students' needs as well as their background. It is, however, desirable that besides commercially prepared readymade materials, students and teachers should join hands in preparing suitable aids according to their interests, expertise and resources available. Learner's participation and involvement enhance their knowledge, understanding and skills, and make education more efficient and pleasurable.

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LESSON 13. INTERACTION PATTERNS IN THE LESSON

Plan:

1. Individual work
2. Group work or pair work
3. Close-ended teacher questioning
4. Open-ended teacher questioning

The interaction between the teacher and students as well as students and their peers is an important part of the language learning experience. There are various patterns of communication that many ESL teachers observe to change the dynamics of their classes. Varying these different patterns helps change and improve the language learning process. It is also important to recognize that some of these patterns are teacher-centered while others are student-centered. When patterns are teacher centered, they are easily controlled by the teacher. Conversely, when the

patterns are student-centered, it gives students freer practice with the language. Depending on the class, teachers vary the usage of these interaction patterns, not only to teach the materials effectively but also to create a suitable learning environment for acquiring the target language. Teachers who recognize the effects of these interaction patterns understand that each respective pattern plays a pivotal role in classroom dynamics and their student's engagement with the material or activities. In this article, we will explore the classroom interaction patterns that are normally found in the ESL classroom and highlight when each one is best suited, as well as their pedagogical advantages.

Individual work

Individual work is when the teacher assigns a task that learners work on by themselves. It is an opportunity for students to explore the language on their own. Some examples of activities that are best conducted individually are reading and writing tasks, or comprehension exercises. Many studies have shown that independent learning affects the development of learner autonomy, which is the goal of many teachers for their learners. During an independent work session, students are given the opportunity to rely on their own resources, and it is also during this time that teachers can gauge the level and progress of their students. Individual work periods also serve as a useful classroom management tool to calm down a noisy class or even to control a challenging group. Implementing individual work is also a useful transition activity between a lecture and group or pair work. As an example, after a lesson on grammar, students can complete a short comprehension exercise before diving into an activity where they have to produce or apply what they have learned.

Group work or pair work

Activities that require collaboration and two-way communication are best implemented through group work and pair work. This interaction pattern is student-centered as the students get to play with the language. Pair work and group work give the teacher an ample amount of time to monitor the students understanding of the lesson content. This type of student-to-student interaction provides students with more speaking time

and is a great way of getting the student to use and actively produce the target language. Group work or pair work is especially helpful in creating engaging classrooms and can help to change the pace of a lesson. Activities that lend themselves to this type of interaction include role-plays or dialogues, reading circles, matching games, etc.

Due to possible factors such as the flexibility of the seating arrangements, the tasks given, the clarity of your instructions, or even the class size, improper execution of this interaction pattern can lead to a situation where students veer off task and result in an unsuccessful completion of the activity. To prevent this situation, consider implementing the following three strategies:

- Actively monitor your students by moving around the class to make observations of the language being produced.
- Set up the activity so that students take it in turns speaking or assign each group member a specific role such as leader or secretary.
- Set a time limit to keep students focused on the assigned task.

More importantly, pay close attention to the dynamics of your classroom as this is also a significant feature to consider before grouping students together. Be observant or aware of how your students interact with one another. If there are situations where students do not get along, or if you notice a student who is uncomfortable consider switching up the groups to avoid any confrontational issues during activities. Despite some potential shortcomings, facilitating these kinds of activities is rewarding for both students and teachers alike.

Close-ended teacher questioning

Many teachers gravitate toward close-ended questioning especially in contexts where classrooms are more traditional or teacher-centered. Close-ended questions are questions in which the answer can only come from a limited number of options. For example, questions that require an answer to who, what, where, or when. As a result, teachers can control the language that students use. Some examples of close-ended questions are yes/no questions or questions used for concept checking such as after

giving instructions or explaining a key language point. This type of questioning is helpful when it comes to checking if students are paying attention. It is also useful for classroom management, especially when it comes to reorienting students' attention or having to deal with challenging students.

With this type of question, the interaction pattern is mostly top down between the teacher and the students. Studies have also shown that with this type of questioning, students take a more passive role. Thus, it is the teacher's responsibility to be wary of how often this type of questioning is implemented. Consider, for example, noting which students are always answering the questions, encouraging shyer students to participate, and increasing the wait time after each question to ensure all students have an opportunity to answer.

Open-ended teacher questioning This type of questioning occurs when the teacher asks a series of questions that have a variety of answers, depending on the students' own views and knowledge of the topic. Open-ended questions are a useful tool for concept checking. For instance, in evaluating how much their students know about a particular topic or in checking their level of comprehension concerning a lesson or text they have read. Compared to close-ended questions, open-ended questions encourage critical thinking since there is a wider range of acceptable answers. It is a great way to explore a topic more freely as the answers expected require more thought and the broadness of the question can allow for some creative freedom. In addition, these questions can be expanded to discuss the 'why' and 'how' and as a result, create more opportunities to produce the target language. Look at the difference between these two questions.

Close-ended: "Do you like summer?" (Answer: Yes/No)

Open-ended: "What do you enjoy about summer? Why?" (Answer: I enjoy X, Y, and Z... because...)

In general, open-ended questions are best suited for activities where students have to brainstorm such as creating mind maps or word maps, for exploring broad topics such as

culture, or for learning how to develop ideas and express opinions.

Full-class interaction

Activities such as class debates, discussions, or review games, are examples of full class interactions. These activities are a great way to end a lesson or unit, and also serve as an alternative formative assessment method. Full-class interaction allows for different communication patterns, not only between the teacher and student, but also between students and their teacher, and among students and their peers. Similar to group work or pair work, this type of interaction pattern promotes the production of the target language. It is also a way of drawing students' attention to useful language items or for doing error correction. Some teachers do this by doing mini-lessons on a particular mistake or by reviewing a specific language concept. Implementing activities that involve the entire class helps to build teacher and student rapport. Creating a points system to encourage healthy competition is also another means of sustaining motivation in the classroom when it comes to getting students to participate in activities.

Choral response

Choral response is a common practice, especially in drills or pronunciation lessons. This is another teacher-centered interaction pattern in which the students simply repeat what the teacher says. In most ESL classrooms, teachers use it as a way to introduce new concepts such as verb conjugation or to introduce the pronunciation of a sound. While this method is common, it is more suitable for the beginning of a lesson or as a review to quickly check comprehension. However, various studies have concluded that it is not a reliable way to assess student understanding. While choral responses may give some teachers a sense of assurance, it is not safe to assume that all your students understand solely through repetition.

Monologues

Every teacher is familiar with giving monologues as it is a widely used teacher-centered technique. Monologues are often used to give instructions when setting up an activity or to explain

a more complex language point or concept. When teachers implement monologues in the classroom, the students do not need to interact, and the focus is on listening. Similar to choral responses, monologues are also best suited at the beginning of a lesson to introduce a topic or grammar concept. Monologues are a great tool in this regard, but it is easy for students to lose interest or become distracted. Try using visuals like realia or pictures to keep students' attention. Asking a variety of questions, open-ended and close-ended, also helps to check in on students' attentiveness and understanding. To encourage active listening, try to incorporate a cloze-activity, where students need to follow along to fill in the missing information.

Homework

Students' progress in the target language also depends on what they do to practice at home. Assigning homework allows students to work alone outside of the classroom and this is particularly helpful in contexts where English is not the main language. These days, teachers assign worksheets in person or over the Internet to supplement or reinforce what their students learn in class. Like individual learning, homework assignments fall under the category of asynchronous learning where students can learn at a more convenient time of their own choosing. Homework encourages students to be aware of their own abilities as they become aware of what they can or cannot do. It also gives students the opportunity to ask their teachers specific language-related questions for the following day, which the teachers can then use to determine their students' language learning needs.

As we have discussed, certain activities lend themselves to particular interaction patterns. Teacher-centered interaction patterns such as lectures, close-ended questioning, and choral responses may seem outdated. However, they still have a place in the classroom, especially in maintaining order and structure. Student-centered interaction patterns such as group work and pair work, open-ended questioning, and full-class interactions, provide opportune moments for meaningful production. While individual work periods and homework assignments create opportunities for students to develop learner autonomy. The

interaction patterns that we have discussed should complement one another. As a result, there is no best interaction pattern as their success in the classroom is determined by a variety of factors. Every class is different and has its own set of needs and challenges. Take time to evaluate and reflect on the interaction patterns you observe and implement them accordingly to create the most suitable learning environment for your particular classroom.

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LESSON 14. GROUP WORK, PAIR WORK AND INDIVIDUAL WORK

Plan:

1. **Group work in the classroom: Types of small groups**
2. **The Role of the teacher in organizing individual work**

One way to change the pace in your classroom is to do a small group activity. But what type of small group should you use? It depends on the size of your class, the length of time you have available, the physical features of the classroom, and the nature of the group task. Here are several options you could try. Consult the Centre for Teaching Excellence teaching tip "Group Work in the Classroom: Small-Group Tasks" for task ideas.

Buzz groups

- *Class size*: any
- *Time frame*: 3-10 minutes
- *Setting:* no limitations
- *Purpose*: generate ideas/answers, re-stimulate student interest, gauge student understanding

Description: These groups involve students engaging in short, informal discussions, often in response to a particular sentence starter or question. At a transitional moment in the class, have students turn to 1-3 neighbours to discuss any difficulties in understanding, answer a prepared question, define or give examples of key concepts, or speculate on what will happen next in the class. The best discussions are those in which students make judgments regarding the relative merits, relevance, or usefulness of an aspect of the lecture (Brookfield & Preskill, 1999). Sample questions include, "What's the most contentious statement you've heard so far in the lecture today?" or "What's the most unsupported assertion you've heard in the lecture today?" Reconvene as a class and have a general discussion in which students share ideas or questions that arose within their subgroups.

Comments: This method is very flexible: it is easy to implement in any size of class and in most classrooms, even the most formally arranged lecture hall. Consider how to regain the attention of a large group: turning the lights off and on is one simple yet effective method.

Think-pair-share

- *Class size*: any
- *Time frame:* 5-10 minutes
- *Setting:* no limitations
- *Purpose*: generate ideas, increase students' confidence in their answers, encourage broad participation in plenary session

Description: This strategy has three steps. First, students think individually about a particular question or scenario. Then they pair up to discuss and compare their ideas. Finally, they are given the chance to share their ideas in a large class discussion.

Comments: Think-pair-sharing forces all students to attempt an initial response to the question, which they can then clarify and expand as they collaborate. It also gives them a chance to validate their ideas in a small group before mentioning them to the large group, which may help shy students feel more confident participating.

Circle of Voices

- *Class size*: any
- *Time frame:* 10-20 minutes
- *Setting:* moveable chairs preferable
- *Purpose:* generate ideas, develop listening skills, have all students participate, equalize learning environment

Description: This method involves students taking turns to speak. Students form circles of four or five. Give students a topic, and allow them a few minutes to organize their thoughts about it. Then the discussion begins, with each student having up to three minutes (or choose a different length) of uninterrupted time to speak. During this time, no one else is allowed to say anything. After everyone has spoken once, open the floor within the subgroup for general discussion. Specify that students should only build on what someone else has said, not on their own ideas; also, at this point, they should not introduce new ideas (Brookfield & Preskill, 1999).

Comments: Some shy students might feel uncomfortable having to speak. Lessen their fear by making the topic specific and relevant or by giving each person a relevant quote to speak about. A variation to this method, which encourages students to listen more carefully to each other, involves requiring each person to begin by paraphrasing the comments of the previous student or by showing how his or her remarks relate to those of the previous student. For this variation, students will need less preparation time before the "circle" begins, but they may need more time between speakers.

Rotating trios

- *Class size:* 15-30
- *Time frame:* 10 or more minutes

- *Setting:* a fair bit of space, moveable seating helpful (they could stand) Purpose: introduce students to many of their peers, generate ideas

Description: This strategy involves students discussing issues with many of their fellow classmates in turn. Beforehand, prepare discussion questions. In class, students form trios, with the groups arranged in a large circle or square formation. Give the students a question and suggest that each person take a turn answering. After a suitable time period, ask the trios to assign a 0, 1, or 2 to each of its members. Then direct the #1s to rotate one trio clockwise, the #2s to rotate two trios clockwise, and the #0s to remain in the same place; the result will be completely new trios. Now introduce a new, slightly more difficult question. Rotate trios and introduce new questions as many times as you would like (Silberman, 1996).

Comments: This type of group can be arranged with pairs or foursomes and works well with most subject matter, including computational questions. It would be difficult to implement in a large class, however.

Snowball groups/pyramids

- *Class size:* 12-50
- *Time frame:* 15-20 minutes, depending on how many times the groups "snowball"
- Setting: moveable seating required
- *Purpose:* generate well-vetted ideas, narrow a topic, develop decision-making skills

Description: This method involves progressive doubling: students first work alone, then in pairs, then in fours, and so on. In most cases, after working in fours, students come together for a plenary session in which their conclusions or solutions are pooled. Provide a sequence of increasingly complex tasks so that students do not become bored with repeated discussion at multiple stages. For example, have students record a few questions that relate to the class topic. In pairs, students try to answer one another's questions. Pairs join together to make fours and identify, depending on the topic, either unanswered questions or areas of controversy or relevant principles based on their previous

discussions. Back in the large class group, one representative from each group reports the group's conclusions (Habeshaw et al, 1984; Jaques, 2000).

Comments: This method takes time to unfold, so should be used only when the concepts under discussion warrant the time. Also, depending on the amount of time allotted, students may feel that certain nuances of their discussions are lost.

Jigsaw

- *Class size:* 10-50
- *Time frame:* 20 or more minutes
- *Setting:* moveable seating required, a lot of space preferable
- *Purpose*: learn concepts in-depth, develop teamwork, have students teaching students

Description: This strategy involves students becoming "experts" on one aspect of a topic, then sharing their expertise with others. Divide a topic into a few constitutive parts ("puzzle pieces"). Form subgroups of 3-5 and assign each subgroup a different "piece" of the topic (or, if the class is large, assign two or more subgroups to each subtopic). Each group's task is to develop expertise on its particular subtopic by brainstorming, developing ideas, and if time permits, researching. Once students have become experts on a particular subtopic, shuffle the groups so that the members of each new group have a different area of expertise. Students then take turns sharing their expertise with the other group members, thereby creating a completed "puzzle" of knowledge about the main topic (see Silberman, 1996). A convenient way to assign different areas of expertise is to distribute handouts of different colours. For the first stage of the group work, groups are composed of students with the same colour of handout; for the second stage, each member of the newly formed groups must have a different colour of handout.

Comments: The jigsaw helps to avoid tiresome plenary sessions, because most of the information is shared in small groups. This method can be expanded by having students develop expertise about their subtopics first through independent research outside of class. Then, when they meet with those who have the same subtopic, they can clarify and expand on their

expertise before moving to a new group. One potential drawback is that students hear only one group's expertise on a particular topic and don't benefit as much from the insight of the whole class; to address this issue, you could collect a written record of each group's work and create a master document—a truly complete puzzle—on the topic.

Fishbowl

- *Class size:* 10-50
- *Time frame:* 15 or more minutes
- *Setting:* moveable seating and a lot of space preferable; if necessary, have inner group stand/sit at front of lecture hall and the outer group sit in regular lecture hall seats
- *Purpose*: observe group interaction, provide real illustrations for concepts, provide opportunity for analysis

Description: This method involves one group observing another group. The first group forms a circle and either discusses an issue or topic, does a role play, or performs a brief drama. The second group forms a circle around the inner group. Depending on the inner group's task and the context of your course, the outer group can look for themes, patterns, soundness of argument, etc., in the inner group's discussion, analyze the inner group's functioning as a group, or simply watch and comment on the role play. Debrief with both groups at the end in a plenary to capture their experiences. See Jaques (2000) for several variations on this technique.

Comments: Be aware that the outer group members can become bored if their task is not challenging enough. You could have groups switch places and roles to help with this. Also note that the inner group could feel inhibited by the observers; mitigate this concern by asking for volunteers to participate in the inner circle or by specifying that each student will have a chance to be both inner and outer group members. Although this method is easiest to implement in small classes, you could also expand it so that multiple "fishbowls" are occurring at once.

Learning teams

- *Class size*: any
- *Time frame*: any

• *Setting:* no limitations

• *Purpose:* foster relationships among students, increase confidence in participating

Description: For this type of group, students are divided into groups at the beginning of the term. When you want to incorporate small group discussion or teamwork into your class, you direct the students to get into these term-long learning groups. Groups of four work well, because each foursome can be subdivided into pairs, depending on the activity.

Comments: Students get to know a small number of their classmates well over the course of the term, and may come to see their team mates as study partners even outside the classroom. Using learning teams eliminates the time it takes to organize students into groups each time you wish to use group work. However, because students will be working with each other over an extended time period, be very careful about how you assign them to groups. Have students submit data cards about themselves at the beginning of term, possibly even completing a short personality inventory. You might want to ask them also to suggest the names of two or three classmates with whom they would and would not like to work.

The Role of the teacher in organizing individual work

Effectiveness of individual work of the students depends on leading of the teacher. The teacher finds out a goal of individual work and teach students to grasp thought work , observes the process of class's individual work and help students not to make mistakes. To choose effective ways of goals' decisions, to make considering conversion of teaching, to select how to organize equipment and suitable methods of studying and system individual work in accordance with peculiarity of subjects depends of teacher's skills.

It is necessary to develop knowledge activity of individual students' work in the hole lesson process. During making works from book, solving problems, writing essays, doing laboratory and manual tasks consider with individual work. In didactic way individual work divides in preparation of new knowledge, making tasks, repetition and observation. The aim of using preparation is

to master new theme, develop new skills, repeat past material. Solving problems, doing tasks and choosing study equipments concerns with this.

To master new knowledge often used for elder students. With the help of individual works we develop knowledge and skills, fix causes. All these need to contain individual repeating of the lesson's theme and program unit. It distinguishes with writing works varieties and test works.

The main goal of individual students work is to do task without teacher's help. For getting good results doing tasks is to observe students' knowledge, thoughts, skills and ways of solving problems themselves. If we do one or more mistakes dong tasks, we will get wrong results. Must the teacher stop students and correct mistakes if they have wrong results of task? Must direct right way of students' thinking to destroy difficulties? Or teacher must give a chance to understand that it's wrong answer and let students to find out and correct mistakes themselves? Such questions faced with every teacher who organizes the methods of individual working.

We have to take into special consideration all ways of learning of individual work. But we must to order questions for students to find out the main rules and observing ways themselves. For students is very important to make conclusions themselves. That's way if we minus one of additions we will get second addition. As the result we can check plus through minus. It needs to make evidences, open the main functions of last lesson, making conclusion for examples for right ordering. Individual works used for common math's operations and orders. But such way of individual work is realized with the teacher's writing at the board. In this situation we can't say that material was treated fully. Only students' individual work can have such conclusion. Every lesson has the same individual works' skills.

Finding out the theme and the goals of the lesson comes to completing new material with new tasks. When we plan the lesson we also must find out exercises' tasks. There we have to reveal types of tasks in explanation-demonstration aim, types of board writing and individual working. The skill goal of individual work is

after giving the program knowledge to treat that knowledge in full. During making tasks it's very needed teacher's help for students which can't do it at once. It's right to check lesson's tasks at the end of individual work. Because it gives a chance to students to correct mistakes themselves. There are two types of checking works. Control and self checking works. Control works helps to make conclusion about last units' assimilation. According to this conclusion we can observe students' knowledge quality, masters and skills. Control works carry out with work plan. In control works last materials have variants or tables and are given for every student individual. This work needs 20-25 minutes. The sum mark is written into class journal. Self checking works are given to conclude program's themes or to concrete knowledge about program questions. The goal of such teaching is to observe results of one or more lessons. If we have little time for checking individual work, we can do it in the next lesson. Checking works contents must support only repeated, last and concluded material. The conclusion shows new knowledge and pedagogic master results. Organizing individual work we must take into consideration students' peculiarities and we can have such results:

- Every student makes future work pan with the help of the teacher.
- Setting aims comes true with teacher help, but student makes work plan himself.
- According to teacher's tasks student plans future work's goals.
- Work is done by student's wish and he finds out the content, plan and do it without teacher's help.

So, it's right to connect learning, mastering and checking with individual work. Students' individual work influence to their forming knowledge and skills, ordering, the lesson's quality and usefulness are changed.

According to lesson's content and giving individual work for students we must take into consideration every student's skills, sometimes only one, sometimes group, sometimes the hole class to give individual work. In addition, we must connect students' individual works with each-other. Working individual students master their knowledge, skills and it's increased lesson quality. Organizing games and asking interesting questions influence to student's research work. For giving right answers student must read mush and improve, enlarge his knowledge. Because it's competition. In organizing individual work the main is teacher's role.

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LESSON 15. CLASSROOM DISCIPLINE

Plan:

1. **Classroom discipline: Theory and Practice**
2. **Classroom Discipline in the Context of Teaching**
3. **Promoting Good Methods of Classroom Discipline**

Classroom disruption is a major challenge faced by teachers (Simón & AlonsoTapia, 2016). Teachers direct a great deal of energy toward classroom disruption while trying to reach their instructional goals (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Espelage & Lopes, 2013; Grayson & Alvarez, 2008). Classroom disruption is indeed often indicated as one of the main causes of wasted classroom time (Tsouloupas, Carson, & Matthews, 2014) and as a foremost reason for teachers' emotional exhaustion (Carson, Plemmons, Templin, & Weiss, 2011). This issue is also responsible for teacher turnover (Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber, 2010), primarily in situations in which teachers perceive high levels of disciplinary problems and poor administrative support (Kersaint, Lewis, Potter, & Meisels, 2007). Rinke (2008), for instance, cites the following four studies suggesting that student discipline (the opposite of student indiscipline) is an "important predictor of teacher retention, commitment, and satisfaction" (p. 5): (1) Haberman and Richards' study (1990) suggests that teachers initially predicted that underachievers would be their main classroom problem before teaching but later considered student disruption as their main concern after teaching; (2) Ingersoll (2001) found that 18% of *teacher movers* and 30% of *teacher leavers* report indiscipline as the main cause of their resignation; (3) Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) showed that the school-wide management of student behavior was significantly correlated with teachers' commitment to the profession; (4) Smith and Smith (2006) found that school violence was the main cause of attrition in the first five years of teaching. Notably, because teachers may be exhausted from addressing classroom disruption and because teaching time may be significantly affected by classroom disruption, students' opportunities to learn are likely

decreased (Cothran, 2003; Sun, 2015). Classroom discipline clearly is a complex issue that cannot be reduced to a technical and/or scientific problem. Classroom discipline encompasses complex interactions among teacher variables, student variables, school variables and societal variables (e.g., general attitudes and values towards schooling). In fact, because classroom discipline is structured around the parceling of power in a specific public space, the issue becomes important politically and educationally (Buzzelli & Johnston, 2001; Pane, Rocco, Miller, & Salmon, 2014). Thus, the specific link between school goals and students' compliance is subject to political and ideological interpretations. These different interpretations are very clearly expressed in the classical division between a format of classroom management (or schools) in which the power is teacher-centered versus a classroom management format in which power is shared with the students (studentcentered perspectives) (Ding, Li, Li, & Kulm, 2010; Evrim, Gökçe, & Enisa, 2009; Lau et al., 2006; Lewis, Romi, Qui, & Katz, 2005; Mullarkey, Recchia, Lee, Shin, & Lee, 2005; Psunder, 2005). In general, classroom indiscipline (or misbehavior) can be thought of as the behavior or behaviors that conflict with teaching (the primary vector of the class) and that the teacher attempts to correct through his actions (Doyle, 1985, 1986). Classroom discipline is therefore a breach of the management actions undertaken by the teacher to enable student learning. Basically, classroom discipline refers to a set of teacher actions that constitute organizational and management processes aimed at establishing classroom order (routines, norms, procedures, etc.). Discipline, in turn, refers to the actions that the teacher undertakes to end indiscipline and to restore order. It must be stressed, however, that although students are by far the most frequent source of indiscipline (Kulinna, Cothran, & Regualos, 2006), they are not the only source. The teacher or school staff may also be a source of disruption (Doyle, 1980; Good & Brophy, 2000). Thus, the issue of classroom discipline can be studied under a number of close designations such as "classroom order", "classroom misbehavior", "classroom disruption", "classroom indiscipline", or "classroom disorder", just to name a

few. To discuss the myriad features involved in classroom discipline is beyond the scope of any book chapter. Therefore, this lesson will review only certain relevant but often overlooked issues related to classroom discipline.

Classroom discipline in the context of teaching

Classroom discipline is not a straightforward concept. The concept is even ill-defined because it is prone to multiple and subjective interpretations (Espelage & Lopes, 2013). The concept of classroom indiscipline (the opposite of classroom discipline) seems more easily definable but is seldom used in the international literature. Whether we discuss discipline or indiscipline, it is useful to approach these concepts in the framework of the general task of classroom teaching.

Classroom teaching involves at least two different but intertwined features of a teacher's classroom action: the first feature has to do with the teacher's behaviors to promote cognitive changes (i.e., learning) in students; the second feature creates the organizational conditions that allow learning to occur. Learning promotion is closely related to: (1) the knowledge of subject matter and (2) how the teacher transmits the subject matter to the students. This feature of teaching, as a whole, is usually known as "instruction". However, the way in which a teacher organizes the transmission of content is usually labeled "didactics" (the part of pedagogy that addresses teaching methods). Notably, students learn as individuals, not as a group, even if most classroom teaching assumes a whole-group format. The second feature of classroom teaching has long been known in the literature as classroom order (Doyle, 1986). According to Doyle (2006), "From an ecological perspective, classroom management is about how order is established and maintained in classroom environments" (p. 99). Ecological models view classrooms as behavioral settings that can be divided into segments. Each segment is characterized by a specific activity, by a specific arrangement of participants, by a specific format of participation, etc., and has a specific vector or program of action (Doyle, 2006; Osher, Bear, Sprague, & Doyle, 2010). From this perspective, the main management goal of the teacher is to

involve students in the specific programs of action during a class session and/or to create in the students a sense of belonging to that particular class. To fully understand the importance of classroom order with regard to student learning, it is useful to conceptualize classrooms as micro-organizations in which countless interactions occur during a class session. Classrooms are crowded places that demand clear rules, procedures and routines so that instruction can take place (Hochweber, Hosenfeld, & Klieme, 2014; Rogers & Mirra, 2014). Classroom order therefore refers to the set of procedures that the teacher develops to maximize the time devoted to instruction (Doyle, 1986). Classroom order, unlike what one might think, is only indirectly linked to and is conceptually independent of classroom disruption. The ultimate goal of classroom order is to enable instruction. Classroom order is not a goal in itself, nor is it a way to correct classroom disruption. Effective teachers have fewer classroom disciplinary problems not because they are good at restoring discipline, but because they are good at establishing classroom procedures that maximize time available for instruction. These teachers tend, for instance, to keep up the lesson pace and to use the curriculum effectively to establish order and to maximize students' on-task behaviors. More effective teachers realize that a lesson that is too fast or a two slow pace may negatively affect students' focus on classroom tasks. Thus, they adapt the lesson pace to a specific curriculum, to the students' perceived knowledge, to the difficulty level of the subject being taught, etc.

In addition to mastering disciplinary contents, instruction/didactics and classroom order, teachers must also accomplish another vital task in the classroom: to restore classroom order when students' misbehaviors threat the lesson flow (Emmer & Stough, 2001; Evertson & Emmer, 1982; Evertson et al., 2000; Freiberg, Templeton, & Helton, 2013; Kounin, 1977). Even the most effective teachers must occasionally address student misbehavior. However, research has also long shown (e.g., Bagley, 1907; Doyle, 1980; Kounin, 1977, 1983) that although there is not a significant difference in the way effective and

ineffective teachers address classroom indiscipline, there is a notable difference in the way that effective and ineffective teachers manage the classroom. Specifically, effective teachers focus on teaching/instruction, whereas less effective teachers easily lose the lesson flow. Thus, the former maximize instructional time while the latter must address interruptions and off-task behaviors, thereby losing instructional time and energy.

As Gore and Parkes (2007) eloquently state, "The literature has shown that a focus on relevant, engaging and stimulating curriculum coupled with challenging, engaging and supportive pedagogy...renders 'management issues' a far less troubling second place consideration" (p. 3). Unsurprisingly, teacher stress and burnout are far more likely to strike ineffective teachers (Curry & O'Brien, 2012; Košir, Tement, Licardo, & Habe, 2015; Ullrich, Lambert, & McCarthy, 2012).

In sum, it is useful to conceptualize classroom (in)discipline in the framework of the overall task of classroom teaching or classroom management. Classroom (in)discipline can be conceptualized as a failure or a breakdown in classroom order and instruction. Theoretically, this means that when teachers focus on instruction (i.e., maintaining the lesson flow), they will have to address fewer disciplinary issues.

Promoting Good Methods of Classroom Discipline

Helping students to govern their own behavior in ways that help them learn is a longstanding goal of all teachers. There are a number of ways that a teacher can promote good discipline in the classroom.

Know school guidelines for discipline procedures.

Be fair, positive and consistent. Be the kind of person young people can like and trust—firm, fair, friendly, courteous, enthusiastic and confident. Keep your sense of humor.

Provide a list of standards and consequences to parents and students. Make sure they are consistent with district and building policy. When in doubt, ask a colleague or your principal.

Keep your classroom orderly. Maintain a cheerful and attractive classroom rather than a disorderly one, which might encourage disruptive behavior.

Get to know your students. Learn their names quickly and use them in and out of class. You will soon develop almost a sixth sense for anticipating trouble before it begins, but don't act as though you expect trouble or you will almost certainly encounter some.

Let the students know you care. Determine jointly with the class what is acceptable in terms of behavior and achievement and what is not. Show interest in what students say, whether or not it pertains directly to the lesson.

Treat students with the same respect you expect from them; keep confidences.

Learn the meaning of terms, especially slang, used by students.

Begin class on time and in a professional manner.

Make learning fun. Make education interesting and relevant to the students' lives. Poor planning and a full curriculum can provoke disruptions.

Praise good work, good responses and good behavior.

Don't threaten or use sarcasm. Never use threats to enforce discipline. Never humiliate a child.

Avoid arguing with students. Discussions about class work are invaluable, but arguments can become emotional encounters.

Be mobile, moving around the room as students work or respond to instruction.

Keep your voice at a normal level. If "disaster" strikes and you trip over the wastebasket, don't be afraid to laugh.

Grade assignments and return them as soon as possible.

Give reasonable assignments. Don't use schoolwork as punishment. Give clear directions.

Keep rules simple. Establish as few classroom rules as possible, and keep them simple.

Handling Classroom Conflicts

Here are a few practical suggestions for dealing with an angry student in the classroom who is defying your authority and is out of control:

- Do not raise your voice.
- Try to remain calm and rational.

• Do not touch an agitated or angry student.

• Try to keep the student seated. In many instances, this is impossible. You can only suggest the student remain seated so that he might explain to you what is wrong.

• Be reassuring to the student as well as the rest of the class. Explain the importance of protecting every student's right to learn. Talk about options for resolving the conflict.

• Send another student for help. The student should be told to go to the nearest office to summon assistance from the administration.

• After the incident is over, immediately document everything that happened. This documentation should include time, name(s) of student(s) involved, a brief description of the events that occurred, and any information that pertains to the student(s) or the incident. This report should be submitted to the administration. You also should keep a copy in case of a future conference with parents or school administrators regarding the incident.

What if I "blow" the first week?

If you "blow" the first week, don't worry. Just re-evaluate your rules and policies, tell the class you're making some changes, and be consistent from then on.

Expect the unexpected.

Schedules will be changed without warning and unanticipated events will occur. Be flexible in responding to the unexpected; ask your colleagues for suggestions on how to deal with situations like the following.

What will you do if:

• it rains at recess time?
• your class arrives too early at the cafeteria?
• a student tells you her pet died?
• a student tells you she is pregnant?
• a child wets his pants?
• a student is verbally abusive?
• a parent is angry and unreasonable?
• a student refuses to do what you ask?
• you have no textbooks?

• a student falls asleep?
• a student cuts her head falling out of her desk?
• you are called to the office in the middle of class?
• non-English speaking students are assigned to your class?
• a student has a seizure or goes into a coma?

Be fair to your students

Here are some ways to help you win the respect of your students:

• Be consisent in application of discipline and just in your requirements and assignments.

• Don't refuse to let a student tell you his or her side of the situation. Be willing to consider mitigating circumstances.

• Don't talk about the misdeeds of students except to those who have a right to know. Don't openly compare one student to another.

• Apologize if you've treated a student unjustly.

• Make sure punishments are appropriate for the misbehavior, and explain to the student why he or she is being punished.

Discipline – The LEAST Approach.

There are several good methods of classroom discipline. One of the best is the **LEAST** Approach, developed by NEA, which helps you determine the appropriate level of involvement. If discipline problems can be handled at Step 1, there is no need to progress to Step 2, etc.

Briefly, the **LEAST** Approach includes these steps:

• **Leave it alone.** If the event is a brief and minor disturbance that is unlikely to occur again, leave it be.

• **End the action indirectly.** When learning is disrupted or someone may get hurt, let the student(s) involved know you are aware of the inappropriate activity with a facial expression, a body gesture, or a quiet action such as walking toward the student(s) or calling the student(s)' name(s).

• **Attend more fully.** Secure more information from the student on who, what, when, where and why. Be objective rather than emotional.

• **Spell out directions.** When a situation threatens to get out of hand, making learning impossible or risking harm to someone,

clearly explain to the student(s) involved the consequences of his/her actions and your intent to follow through.

- **Treat student progress.** Record what happened, when, where, who was involved, what you did, and who witnessed the incident.

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PRACTICAL PART

Activity 1

15 classroom language games

Using English and avoiding L1 for instruction language and common questions in the classroom is absolutely vital if you want students to use English every day and realise that what you are teaching them is relevant to their lives. Below are 15 games to practise this kind of useful language. NB: if you want to [...]

Using English and avoiding L1 for instruction language and common questions in the classroom is absolutely vital if you want students to use English every day and realise that what you are teaching them is relevant to their lives. Below are 15 games to practise this kind of useful language. NB: if you want to add spoken production of the classroom language to any of the action games below, you can have the students chant the actions they are doing as they do them and/ or allow students to take turns giving each other instructions

1. Simon says

In this well known TEFL game, students only do the action they are told to when the sentence starts with "Simon says...", e.g. "Simon says open your books on page 27". If they hear any other command, e.g. "Knock on the door", they should remain totally still and not even start doing the action. To add some more useful language, you can replace "Simon says..." with "You have to..." or "The teacher wants you to...".

2. Only when it matches

Students only copy if the action and what the teacher says is the same, e.g. if the teacher both says "Stand up and face the window" and does that action. If the action and words don't match, e.g. if the teacher faces the window while saying "face the door", the students should just stay still. You can give points to individuals or teams who do the correct actions the quickest, and take points away or make them sit down out of the game if people do things when they shouldn't.

3. Tell me off

Students should only copy if the action and what the teachers says is the same, and shout something negative like "No", "That's wrong", "They are different", "One more time, please" or "You've made a mistake" if they don't match (unlike just staying still like the variation above)

4. Do as I say, not as I do

When the actions and what the teacher says don't match, students don't copy the action, but do what the teacher says instead

5. Do what's right, not what I say

Students don't copy if you ask them to do something that they shouldn't do in the classroom, e.g. "Shout", "Bang on the table" or "Kick a boy", but race to follow instructions that are okay, e.g. "Bow to your neighbour" or "Shake hands"

6. Tell me off too

If the teacher tells them to do something that isn't allowed in the classroom, the students shout out "That's naughty", "That isn't allowed", "That's bad", "Don't (whatever the action was)" or similar useful classroom language for discipline, but rush to do the action if it is something good or okay

7. Instructions protests

Tell the students to do some typical classroom actions, then throw in some things that are impossible, e.g. "Clean the whiteboard" then "Clean the ceiling". With the impossible ones, they shout back "I/ we can't (clean the ceiling)", "That's too difficult" or other useful classroom language for telling the teacher they have problems in class.

8. Teacher robot

Elicit useful classroom language you want the students to say by doing things that make life impossible for them, e.g. writing in tiny letters on the board, speaking very quietly, speaking very fast etc, and only doing it properly when they ask you with the correct language. To add some fun, you can sometimes go too far the other way when they ask you, e.g. writing in huge letters, speaking very very slowly etc.

9. Pedantic robot

The students follow each other's instructions, but only if they are so unambiguous that they can't be misunderstood, e.g. they should open their comics rather than their textbooks if their partner says "Open your book" rather than "Open your red English textbook" or rattle the door if their partner says "Open the door" before they say "Turn the door knob"

10. Classroom language brainstorm

After the teacher says or does something, the students try to use as much classroom language as they can to ask the teacher to do it again or another way, e.g. if the teacher says "This is a whiteboard", the students can say "How do you spell whiteboard?", "Can you speak more slowly please?" (several times until it isn't possible to speak any more slowly), "Can you speak more loudly please?" (ditto, until the teacher is shouting) etc.

11. Classroom instructions collocations brainstorms

Give the students a verb and see how many possible things they can tell the teacher or another student to do using that verb, e.g. for open "Open the cupboard", "Open your pencil case", "Open your mouth" etc.

12. Classroom instructions collocations pellmanism (= memory game/ pairs)

Give each group of 2 to 4 students a pack of cards that has common classroom language verbs (pick up, draw, listen to, look at, face, copy etc) on half of the cards and common classroom nouns (the window, the air conditioning, your eraser, your partner etc) on the rest. Students spread the pack of cards face down across the table and try to find a verb and an object that match up. If they think two cards match up, they should do that action in order to prove it. If the group agree that the two cards don't match (or if they pick up two nouns or two verbs), they should put them back face down exactly where they took them from.

13. Classroom English ranking debate

Give students a list of 20 to 25 sentences that are useful for them to use in the classroom, including some more unusual ones like "Can I blow my nose, please?" and "Can you lend me some money, please?" In pairs or threes, students debate which are the

top ten most useful sentences. These can then be turned into a poster or worksheet, and should be the ones the teacher is strict about not allowing L1 for from then on.

14. Classroom language Pictionary

Students try to draw a typical thing that students or teachers say in the classroom, and the rest of the class or their team try to guess what the sentence is e.g. a drawing of a confused face and a question mark for "Sorry, I don't understand" or a drawing of arrows going from a book, pen, eraser etc to a bag for "Put everything away in your bag". Drawing of symbols and numbers is okay, but no writing (even of single letters) is allowed. This can lead onto students making posters of useful classroom language with accompanying pictures to leave up in the classroom for reference, e.g. the 10 most useful ones they decided in the ranking debate (see above).

15. Instructions action chains

Students race to do the typical classroom action written on the board, e.g. "Open your book", then the teacher adds one more to the bottom of the list, e.g. "Close your book", and the students race to do both as quickly as possible when the teacher shouts "(Start) now" or "(Let's) go". The teacher adds one more to the bottom of the list and repeat over and over until they are doing at least 10 actions in a row.

Activity 2.

Advanced Classroom Language

eslflow.com

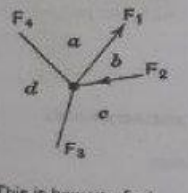
Complete the sentences with the correct form of the words in brackets and use another form of each word to complete the second sentences

reminder correction thoughtful fluently interruptions agreement accuracy repeat solution

1. You should try to speak _____when you give a presentation.
or
_____is important for good speakers.

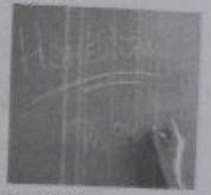
2. _____ is important if you want good results.
or
If you do statistics you need to be_____

3._____ after me.
or
_____exercises are good for reinforcing lessons.



4 This is how you find the_____
or
This is one way to _____ the problem.

5. I need to make some _____ to this essay.
or
I have to _____ these mistakes immediately.



6.I want to _____ you about the homework.
or
Here is a _____ about the homework.

7. We will skip class tomorrow. Do we have an _____
or
My friends are very _____

8. Some people are very _____
or
I just had an amazing _____!

9. Today, I don't want any _____
or
Please don't _____ me when I'm speaking.

Activity 3.

Common classroom expressions

Match the words in the three columns below.

Please	give	independently
Please don't	give out	the microphone
	try	the tests
	finish off	this exercise tonight
	put away	your homework
	hand in	on the floor
	hand out	your mobile phones
	speak	too loudly
	throw things	your bags near the door
	collect	not to be late
	unplug	some examples
	touch	to your partner
	leave	with your partner
	plug in	
	work	
	compare	

Write sentences using the words above and feel free to add more words.

Example: ***Please hand in your homework*** *before the end of class.*

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____

Activity 4

Classroom language

Complete the sentences

2 students need to work together

1. I'd like you to work 1 .....
2 .....
3.....

2. .....hand when .....

3. .....paper towels.

4. Can you.....

5.....into English
or
.....in English

6 Stop .....

Activity 5

In the classroom 1

eslflow.com

14_____

13_____

12_____

11_____

10_____

clock
flash drive
scissors
eraser
calendar
pencil holder
highlighter
paper clip
ruler
sticky tape
hole punch
sharpener
glue
the bin

1 *I mark important dates on the calendar.*

2_____

3_____

4_____

5_____

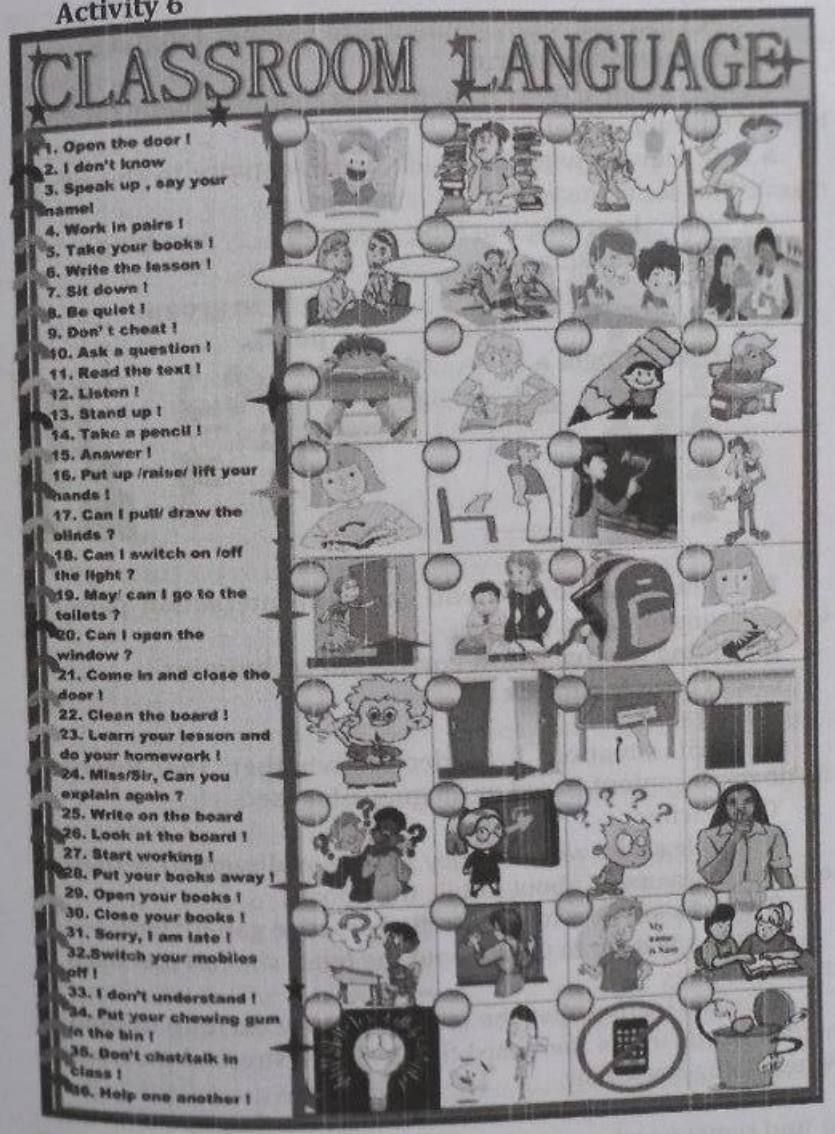
8_____

9_____

7_____

6_____

Activity 6



Activity 7

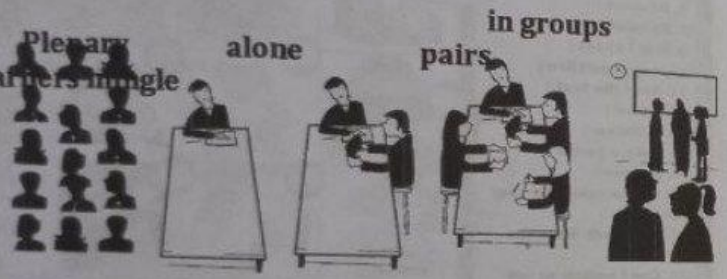
Classroom management and teacher language

1 Interaction patterns

1a Choose an activity from the box that is suitable for each type of interaction pattern.

a role play **b** giving feedback on an activity to the whole class **c** find someone who ...

Learning working Learners working Learners working



1b. How often do/will you use each interaction pattern? Give reasons for your answers.

Providing feedback and correction techniques

Classroom feedback

Task 1a.

In each situation **1–8**, decide whether the teacher's feedback is content-based or language-focused.

The teacher ...

1 asks learners whether they agreed or disagreed with each other in a discussion about public transport.

2 checks answers to a controlled practice gap-fill task.

3 tells a learner to think about the tense she has just used in an utterance.

4 tells a learner that she found his story exciting to read. **5** writes words up on the board that learners stressed incorrectly when doing a role play.

6 asks learners how many other learners they spoke to after a 'find someone who ...' task.

7 repeats a correct version of a structure that a learner has said incorrectly when practising a dialogue in pairs.

8 praises a learner for using wide-ranging intonation when practising suggestions.

Task 1b. Look at this example of feedback. What's the problem?

Teacher: So what did you and Luca talk about, Paola?
Learner: We talk about classic film we like.
Teacher: Oh, so which film?
Learner: We talk about *Casablanca*.
Teacher: Talked. What happens?
Learner: Talked?
Teacher: Yes so what's the story?
Learner: We talked about Casablanca.
Teacher: That's right – you told us. But who are the main characters?
Learner: (silence)

2. Good practice?

2a Decide if the following suggestions are good practice or not.

1 A teacher should always do open-class feedback after a detailed listening task without allowing learners to check in pairs.

2 It is not necessary to give content-based feedback to every learner after a role play task.

3 Language-focused feedback is optional after a task intended to improve fluency.

4 Teachers should avoid commenting on learners' ideas after a discussion task and only ever give language-focused feedback.

5 When monitoring, if a teacher can see all learners have correct answers to a task, they do not need to do open-class feedback. They can just confirm that learners' answers are correct.

6 There's no need to give content-based feedback on a piece of learner's writing – learners only want to know what mistakes they've made.

2b Now match the suggestions in Task 2a to the following rationales.

a. It is clear the learners had no problems with the task and this saves valuable time in the classroom.

b. It is not always necessary, but if a teacher hears a consistent language problem and it can be dealt with quickly, learners usually appreciate it. If not, it is a missed learning opportunity.

c. Learners often find this kind of task challenging and like to check answers with one or two other learners before saying what their answers are in front of the whole class.

d. Learners also want to know what the teacher thinks of their ideas and, if the piece of writing is the answer to an exam question, they want to know if they have answered the question well or not.

e. It is often too time-consuming to give feedback to everyone.

f. It is usually more motivating for learners if a teacher shows interest in what they are saying, rather than only focusing on language accuracy.

CONTENTS

N.Yu. ZAIROVA

CLASSROOM LANGUAGE

(manual)

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