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“XORIJIY TILLAR FANINI
O‘QITISHNING ZAMONAVIY
METODLARI”
MODULI BO‘YICHA
O‘QUV –USLUBIY MAJMUA

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Modulning ishchi dasturi Oliy ta'lim, fan va innovatsiyalar vazirligining 2023-yil 25 avgustdagi 391-sonli buyrug'i bilan tasdiqlangan oliy ta'lim muassasalari rahbar kadrlarini qayta tayyorlash va malaka oshirish yo'nalishlari o'quv reja va dasturlariga muvofiq ishlab chiqilgan

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I. ISHCHI DASTUR

Kirish

Dastur O'zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2017 yil 7 fevraldagi "O'zbekiston Respublikasini yanada rivojlantirish bo'yicha Harakatlar strategiyasi to'g'risida"gi PF-4947-son, 2019 yil 27 avgustdagi "Oliy tahlim muassasalari rahbar va pedagog kadrlarining uzluksiz malakasini oshirish tizimini joriy etish to'g'risida"gi PF-5789-son, 2019 yil 8 oktyabrdagi "O'zbekiston Respublikasi oliy tahlim tizimini 2030 yilgacha rivojlantirish kontseptsiyasini tasdiqlash to'g'risida"gi PF-5847-son va 2020 yil 29 oktyabrdagi "Ilm-fanni 2030 yilgacha rivojlantirish kontseptsiyasini tasdiqlash to'g'risida"gi PF-6097-sonli Farmonlari hamda O'zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2012 yil 10 dekabrda "Chet tillarni o'rganish tizimini yanada takomillashtirish chora-tadbirlari to'g'risida"gi PQ-1875-son hamda O'zbekiston Respublikasi Vazirlar Mahkamasining 2019 yil 23 sentyabrdagi "Oliy tahlim muassasalari rahbar va pedagog kadrlarining malakasini oshirish tizimini yanada takomillashtirish bo'yicha qo'shimcha chora-tadbirlar to'g'risida"gi 797-sonli qarorlarida belgilangan ustuvor vazifalar mazmunidan kelib chiqqan holda tuzilgan bo'lib, u oliy tahlim muassasalari pedagog kadrlarining kasb mahorati hamda innovatsion kompetentligini rivojlantirish, sohaga oid ilg'or xorijiy tajribalar, yangi bilim va malakalarni o'zlashtirish, shuningdek amaliyotga joriy etish ko'nikmalarini takomillashtirishni maqsad qiladi.

Dastur mazmuni til o'qitish tamoyillari, Post-metod davri, Kommunikativ yondashuvda til o'qitish, vazifaga asoslangan yondashuv orqali til o'qitish, mustaqil ta'lim ko'nikmalarini shakllantirish, darsni tashkil etishda milliy standartning roli, darsni shakllantirishda dars maqsadlarini o'rgatish, zamonaviy metodlarni o'rganib chiqish va o'quv materiallarining qiyinchilik darajasini aniqlash va taxlil qilish bo'yicha bilim, ko'nikma va malakalarini shakllantirishni nazarda tutadi.

Qayta tayyorlash va malaka oshirish yo'nalishining o'ziga xos xususiyatlari hamda dolzarb masalalaridan kelib chiqqan holda dasturda tinglovchilarning maxsus

fanlar doirasidagi bilim, ko'nikma, malaka hamda kompetensiyalariga qo'yiladigan talablar o'zgartirilishi mumkin.

Modulning maqsadi va vazifalari

Modulning maqsadi – tinglovchilarda nazariy bilimlarga, amaliy ko'nikma va malakalarga asoslangan chet tili o'qituvchisiga xos professional salohiyatni, chet tili o'qituvchisi pedagogik faoliyatining mazmun mohiyatini davom ettirishda asqotadigan kasbiy mahorat ko'nikmalarini shakllantirish.

Vazifalari - tinglovchilarga chet tillarini o'qitishning yangi innovatsion metodlari bilan tanishtirish; kommunikativ til o'qitishning afzalliklari, xorijiy tillar fanini o'qitishning zamonaviy metodlarini o'qitishda nimalarga e'tibor qaratish va inobatga olish, ulardan dars ishlanmalarini yaratishda va tuzishda, talabalar auditoriyasida unumli foydalanish usullarini o'rgatadi.

Modul bo'yicha talabalarning tasavvur, bilim, ko'nikma va malakalariga qo'yiladigan talablar

Modul bo'yicha tinglovchilar quyidagi bilim, ko'nikma, malaka hamda kompetensiyalarga ega bo'lishlari talab etiladi:

Tinglovchi:

- til o'qitish tamoyillarini;
- kommunikativ yondashuvda til o'qitish haqida bilimlarni;
- vazifaga asoslangan yondashuv orqali til o'qitish qoidalarini;
- darsni tashkil etishda milliy standartning rolini
- zamonaviy metodlarni o'rganib chiqish va o'quv materiallarining qiyinchilik darajasini aniqlash va taxlil qilishni;
- o'quv materiallarini tanlashdagi strategiyalarni;
- audio va video materiallardan samarali foydalanish haqida **bilimlarga** ega bo'lishi lozim.

Tinglovchi:

- Kommunikativ yondashuvda til o'qiti;
- Mustaqil ta'lim ko'nikmalarini shakllantirish;
- Darsni shakllantirishda dars maqsadlarini o'rgatish;
- darsliklarni tahlil qilib, o'z auditoriyasiga moslash;
- darsni tashkil etishda milliy standartlarni inobatga olish;
- darsni shakllantirishda dars maqsadlarini to'g'ri qo'yish;
- o'quv materiallarining qiyinchilik darajasini aniqlash va tahlil qilish;
- o'quv materiallarini tanlash strategiyalarini bilish;
- o'quv materiallarini yaratishda asosiy tamoyillarni bilish;
- o'quv materiallarini ehtiyojga moslay olish;
- autentik manbalardan foydalangan holda dars ishlanmalarini yaratish;
- interfaol texnologiyalar va ulardan samarali foydalanish **ko'nikma** ega bo'lishi lozim.

Tinglovchi:

- chet tilini o'qitishning horij tajribasini tahliliy o'rganish, umumlashtirish, ularning yutuqlaridan ta'lim jarayonida foydalanish;
- CEFR talablaridan kelib chiqqan holda baholash turlari, usullari va metodlarini tanlash va qo'llash;
- kommunikativ kompetensiyani aniqlash xususiyatlariga mos yondashuvlarni tanlash;
- zamonaviy metodlarni o'quv jarayonida faol qo'llay olish malaka va **kompetensiyalarini** egallashi lozim.

Modulni tashkil etish va o'tkazish bo'yicha tavsiyalar

“Xorijiy tillar fanini o'qitishning zamonaviy metodlari” moduli ma'ruza va amaliy mashg'ulotlar shaklida olib boriladi. Modulni o'qitish jarayonida ta'limning

zamonaviy metodlari, axborot-kommunikatsiya texnologiyalari qo'llanilishi nazarda tutilgan:

- darslarda zamonaviy kompyuter texnologiyalari yordamida prezentatsion va elektron-didaktik texnologiyalardan;
- o'tkaziladigan amaliy mashg'ulotlarda texnik vositalardan, ekspress-so'rovlar, test so'rovlari, aqliy hujum, guruhli fikrlash, kichik guruhlar bilan ishlash, kollokvium o'tkazish va boshqa interaktiv ta'lim usullarini qo'llash nazarda tutiladi.

Modulning o'quv rejadagi boshqa modullar bilan bog'liqligi va uzviyligi

“Xorijiy tillar fanini o'qitishning zamonaviy metodlari” moduli mazmuni o'quv rejadagi mutaxassislik o'quv modullarining barcha sohalari bilan uzviy bog'langan holda professor-o'qituvchilarning umumiy kasbiy tayyorgarlik darajasini oshirishga xizmat qiladi.

Modulning oliy ta'limdagi o'rni

Modulni o'zlashtirish orqali tinglovchilar chet tilini o'qitishda zamonaviy metodlardan unumli foydalanib, dars mashg'ulotlarini kommunikativ usullarda olib borish kabi kasbiy kompetentlikka ega bo'ladilar.

Modul bo'yicha soatlar taqsimoti

№	Modul mavzulari	Tinglovchining o'quv yuklamasi, soat				
		Hammasi	Auditoriya o'quv yuklamasi			Ko'chma mashg'ulot
			jami	jumladan		
		Nazariy		Amaliy mashg'ulot		
1.	Amaliy xorijiy tilni o'qitish jarayonini tashkil etish	2	2	2		
2.	Amaliy xorijiy tilni o'qitish jarayonini tashkil etish, uni rejalashtirish va baholash metodlari.	2	2	2		
3.	Lingvistik va madaniyatlararo kompetensiyalarni baholash..	2	2	2		
4.	Ta'lim jarayonida nutq kommunikatsiyasi elementlari, sotsiolingvistik elementlar, pragmatik elementlar, baholashning asosiy turlarini o'zlashtirish.	2	2	2		
5.	Mavzuga oid olimlar tomonidan bildirilgan fikrlarni tahlil qilish.	2	2		2	
6.	Darsni tashkil etishda milliy standartning roli. Portfolio tuzish, CEFR tizimi bo'yicha baholash, testlarni ishlab chiqish prinsiplari.	2	2		2	
7.	O'quv maqsadlari va kutilayotgan natijalarni to'g'ri belgilay olish, baholash, fikr-mulohazaga asoslangan baholash mexanizmini mustaqil holda tashkil etish.	2	2		2	
8.	Xorijiy tillarni umumevropa standartlari talablari asosida o'qitishning lingvistik aspektlari.	2	2		2	
9	An'anaviy va zamonaviy tahlil metodlari asosida lisoniy va madaniy tuzilmalarning o'zaro munosabatini aniqlash va tahlil o'tkazish.	6	6			6
10	Bilimlar tuzilmalari va axborotning aks ettirilishi yo'llarini o'rganishga qaratilgan kognitiv metodlar.	6	6			6
	Jami:	28	28	8	8	12

Amaliy mashg'ulotlarni tashkil etish bo'yicha ko'rsatma va tavsiyalar.

Amaliy mashg'ulotlarda tinglovchilar o'quv modullari doirasidagi ijodiy topshiriqlar, keyslar, o'quv loyihalari, texnologik jarayonlar bilan bog'liq vaziyatli masalalar asosida amaliy ishlarni bajaradilar.

Amaliy mashg'ulotlar zamonaviy ta'lim uslublari va innovatsion texnologiyalarga asoslangan holda o'tkaziladi. Bundan tashqari, mustaqil holda o'quv va ilmiy adabiyotlardan, elektron resurslardan, tarqatma materiallardan foydalanish tavsiya etiladi.

Dasturning axborot-metodik ta'minoti.

Modulni o'qitish jarayonida ishlab chiqilgan o'quv-metodik materiallar, tegishli soha bo'yicha ilmiy jurnallar, Internet resurslari, mulg'timedia mahsulotlari va boshqa elektron va qog'oz variantdagi manbalardan foydalaniladi.

II. MODULNI O'QITISHDA FOYDALANILADIGAN INTREFAOL TA'LIM METODLARI

Case-Based Learning

Teaching Methods for Case Studies

Introduction

Case method is a powerful student-centered teaching strategy that can impart students with critical thinking, communication, and interpersonal skills.

Having students work through complex, ambiguous, real world problems engages students with the course material, encouraging them to “see it from an action perspective, rather than analyze it from a distance” (Angelo & Bohrer). Case studies are, by their nature, multidisciplinary, and “allow the application of



Theoretical concepts...bridging the gap between theory and practice” (Davis & Wilcock). Working on cases requires students to research and evaluate multiple sources of data, fostering information literacy.

Case method is also effective at developing real world, professional skills. Working on case studies requires good organizational and time management skills. Case method increases student proficiency with written and oral communication, as well as collaboration and team-work. “Case studies force students into real-life situations,” training them in managerial skills such as “holding a meeting, negotiating a contract, giving a presentation, etc” (Daly, 2002).

Getting Started

Setting goals/objectives before choosing a case, it’s important to set your goals for the lesson. Have a clear set of objectives and “be sure you know what you want to accomplish in the case, what facts, principles, and viewpoints the students should cover” (Herreid, 1998).

Picking a case “The most powerful and interesting cases are those that allow for several assessments of the same situation, leading to several equally plausible and compelling conclusions, each with different implications for action” (Angelo & Boehrer).

“Cases are narratives, situations, select data samplings, or statements that present unresolved or provocative issues, situations, or questions...The information included must be rich enough to make the situation credible, but not so complete as to close off discussion or exploration. Cases can be short for brief classroom discussions or long and elaborate for semester-long projects” (na University).

“Good case studies focus on one issue or problem, and have a clear problem statement... Choose case studies that match your course objectives, allowing students to apply what they learn in the course to the scenario” (University of Calgary).

Be prepared

Know all the issues involved in the case, prepare questions and prompts in advance, and anticipate where students might run into problems” (Carnegie Mellon). Within the case “where is the debate? You need to frame the fighting issues, because that’s where the action is” (Garvin, 2004). Get some sense of the timing. A big danger is over packing classes and then shortchanging the material. Break the material into segments, get a sense of how long each debate is likely to last, and determine which issues can be removed or made optional. “You have to be able to flatten or shorten the accordion on segments of class” as needed. Set two or three targets marking when you should be at a certain point in the discussion so you know when to compress and when to fill in the material (Garvin, 2004).

Prepare your students Students may be unfamiliar with the case method or may be predisposed to distrust group work. They need to know exactly what is expected of them in order to be successful in class. To avoid causing frustration, consider the following tips:

1. Start with a simple case first
2. Discuss the purpose and suggested methods for doing a case assignment
3. If cases are done in a team, introduce students to resources for team dynamics
4. Allow sufficient class time for students to meet with their teams
5. Establish discussion etiquette guidelines
6. Take sufficient time to introduce the narrative and establish the case facts
7. Reassure students that “messiness” is normal for this type of assignment
8. Make sure you give students an opportunity to provide their reactions and feedback (Pyatt, 2006)

If there are specialized skills or knowledge needed to complete the case analysis, go over this with the class. “Provide background resources for the case study, including supplementary readings and the necessary data to form an opinion”

(University of Calgary). Spend some time at the beginning familiarizing students with specialized terminology or the expected formats for professional documents (Daly, 2002).

Get to know your students For case method to be successful, you must be familiar with your students. “Link the material with the people who are there. Who’s been an entrepreneur? Who’s worked in a large technology company?” Have students fill out cards listing their educational backgrounds, work histories, and interests. Review these cards before each class and make a list of four or five students in each class who are most likely to contribute something to the discussion (Garvin, 2004).

It’s also important for students to get to know and trust one another. If students don’t consider the classroom a safe space, they won’t contribute to the discussion. Help them get acquainted with name tags or cards for their desks (Herreid, 2001). A positive atmosphere can be created by setting out ground rules for participation. “Emphasize that the analysis will be a group project, and that no one will be criticized for raising naïve questions or uncertainties... and that everyone is required to actively work together on the analysis... Without a clear sense that they are free to experiment with hypotheses, students will tend to remain silent until they feel that the ‘right’ answer has been identified” (Stanford University).

Discussions In his analysis of case discussion, C. Roland Christensen argues that student involvement develops on at least three distinct levels:

“At the first level, students explore a problem by sorting out relevant facts, developing logical conclusions, and presenting them to fellow students and the instructor. The students discuss someone else’s problem; their role is that of the commentator-observer in a traditional academic sense. On the second level, students can be assigned roles in the case, and take on perspectives that require them to argue for specific actions from a character’s point of view, given their interests and knowledge. Finally, on the third level, students will take the initiative to become fully involved, so that topics are no longer treated as abstract ideas, but become central to

the student’s sense of self—of what they would choose to do in a specific real world situation.” (Stanford University)

Leading the discussion. A basic framework for a case-based discussion can be broken down into six steps:

1. Give students ample time to read and think about the case. If the case is long, assign it as homework with a set of questions for students to consider.

2. Introduce the case briefly and provide some guidelines for how to approach it. Clarify how you want students to think about the case. Break down the steps you want students to take in analyzing the case. If you would like students to disregard or focus on certain information, specify that as well.

3. Create groups and monitor them to make sure everyone is involved. Small groups can drift off track if you do not provide structure. You may want to designate roles within each group. Alternatively, group members could be assigned broad perspectives to represent, or asked to speak for the various stake-holders in the case study.

4. Have groups present their solutions/reasoning

5. Ask questions for clarification and to move the discussion to another level

6. Synthesize issues raised (Carnegie Mellon)

Classroom setup

If it’s possible to change the seating arrangement in your classroom, “a horseshoe-shaped seating arrangement works best. The open part of the U should face the blackboard... This arrangement permits all of the students to see one another... You don’t always have to be in the center of the horseshoe. You can move out of the U altogether” when the students are talking to each other. Use the blackboard to bring the discussion together. Writing comments on the board is a way to engage students, showing them that they’ve been heard. Drawing circles, arrows, and underlines to connect these comments is a way to link fragments of discussion into a summary of what’s been said (Garvin, 2004).

Asking questions The first question is important for setting the right tone for the rest of the discussion. Start with an open-ended inquiry. “If you start with a question that is too obtuse, too formidable, or looks like a trick question, no one will answer... The best opening questions are open ended, where there are multiple reasonable answers, or where the question is neutral and simple to answer.” Hold back from engaging with controversial or emotional material until all the facts have been established and put into context. If you start off on a fighting issue, “there is a good change that the facts will get lost in the barrage of attacks and counterattacks that ensue” (Herreid, 2001). As the discussion gets going, it’s important to listen and plan follow up questions carefully. Professor David Garvin suggests listening at four levels: “I listen for content. I listen for what is said, and how it tracks with the analysis we need to get done. The second thing I listen for is how things are said. There are always emotional undercurrents. Sometimes the voice is tentative. Sometimes the voice is very strong. Sometimes there's a lack of energy in the comments. Sometimes there's tremendous dynamism in the debate. So I'm listening for that particularly so that, when we hit an emotional current, we can ride it. That's where the class tends to take off. The third thing I'm listening for is almost a contradiction in terms. I'm listening for what is left unsaid. Take, for instance, a case which has ethical implications. Students are often very uncomfortable raising the ethical issues. If I go for ten, fifteen, twenty minutes in the heart of a discussion, and people are avoiding that point, I'll raise it. And then the fourth thing you listen for, and this one is tricky, is you listen for disconnects. When somebody says X, and somebody comes back with a response that doesn't quite meet them, there is a lack of correspondence somehow. They either didn't get it or they didn't quite take it in and fully understand it. In order to engage the debate they have to be on the same wavelength” (Garvin, 2004).

The kinds of questions you ask will control the kind of debate that follows. Potential techniques include:

1. Delay the problem-solving part until the rest of the discussion has had time to develop. Start with expository questions to clarify the facts, then move to analysis, and finally to evaluation, judgment, and recommendations.

2. Shift points of view: “Now that we’ve seen it from W’s standpoint, what’s happening here from Y’s standpoint? What evidence would support Y’s position? What are the dynamics between the two positions?”

3. Shift levels of abstraction: if the answer to the question above is “It’s just a bad situation for her,” quotations help: When Y says “_____,” what are her assumptions? Or seek more concrete explanations: Why does she hold this point of view?”

4. Ask for benefits/disadvantages of a position; for all sides.

5. Shift time frame—not just to “What’s next?” but also to “How could this situation have been different?”

What could have been done earlier to head off this conflict and turn it into a productive conversation? Is it too late to fix this?

What are possible leverage points for a more productive discussion?

What good can come of the existing situation?

6. **Shift to another context:** We see how a person who thinks X would see the situation. How would a person who thinks Y see it? We see what happened in the Johannesburg news, how could this be handled in [your town/province]? How might [insert person, organization] address this problem?

7. Follow-up questions:

“What do you mean by ___?” Or, “Could you clarify what you said about ___?” (even if it was a pretty clear statement—this gives students time for thinking, developing different views, and exploration in more depth). Or “How would you square that observation with what [name of person] pointed out?”

8. Point out and acknowledge differences in discussion—“that’s an interesting difference from what Sam just said, Sarah. Let’s look at where the differences lie.” (let sides clarify their points before moving on). (University)

Transitions

Moving the class seamlessly from one section of the discussion to the next can be a challenge. By developing a system of clear signals and using them consistently, the students will learn to follow your lead. One way of signaling a transition is to change blackboards when you want to move to a new topic. Use the physical space of the classroom, standing to the side when leading a discussion between students and then coming to the center of the room when it’s time to bring the attention back to you. Finally, summarize the important points at the end of each segment, this will both help change the topic to the next section as well as help make it easier to bring everything together at the end of class.

Classroom Activities Beyond discussion and small group work, there are a number of techniques that can be used to enhance case method.

1. Role-play

When picking students for role-play, try to consider their backgrounds and pick students who either fully identify with the role or are on the exact opposite end of the spectrum. Pick students who have participated before, as they will be likely to enliven the discussion. Finally, pick students across the room from each other so that their dialogue will bring the students sitting in between into it, rather than shutting them out.

2. Take a vote

A vote requires students to publically commit to their positions, engaging them with the discussion and making them more likely to argue for their side. It will also give you a sense of where the class stands on the debate. If the vast majority of the class stands on one side, you’ll know to back up the minority so they don’t feel overwhelmed and stop participating, shutting down the debate.

3. Have students write their own case studies

“In order to construct a plausible case study, they will research facts, consider various angles of an issue, and have greater engagement in the course” (University of Calgary).

4. Divide the case into parts

Break the students into groups and assign each group a different aspect of the study. Have them present their findings to the other groups. “Remind students that they do not have all the information they need to solve the case but based on the information available, they can make recommendations and come to preliminary decisions,” something they will have to be able to do in real life business situations (Daly, 2002).

5. Message boards

Have the students continue the discussion on a message board within Blackboard, on a class blog, or using Twitter. This will give them room to reflect on their positions, and allow you to track their discussions over time (Pyatt, 2006).

Evaluation Each time you include a new case in a course, it’s important to assess what the students have learned, and if there are ways to make it better. If you’re new to teaching case studies or if you want to switch up your method, only try one or two new techniques at a time, then evaluate again (Garvin, 2004).

It can be difficult to see the success or failures of case method right away, but there are some ways to track if a particular case is having positive outcomes. During the course, judge if the students are making substantive headway into the material without having to be led by the hand.

Are they engaged with the issues and enthusiastic about the discussion? In subsequent classes, assignments, and exams, are they applying what they learned in the original discussion?

Having students complete assignments based on the case study will not only engage them with the material, but will help you determine their progress. Potential

assignments include a summary of the issues, a position paper, a concept map, a reflection paper, or a research paper exploring further aspects of the case (University of Calgary).

Based on student responses, you can judge if the case needs to be “developed further, or whether more background information can or should be provided” in the future (Stanford University).

III. NAZARIY MATERIALLAR

1. LECTURE.

THEME 1: Organization of practical foreign language teaching process.

Keywords: Concepts, teaching statement, theory, cognitive, affective, linguistic principles, meaningful learning.

Learning Outcomes:

By the end of the session participants will be able to:

- A) reflect on the importance of understanding the connection between theory and practice;
- B) know Freeman's (1989) KASA model and Brown's (2000) twelve principles; and,
- C) write teaching statement;

Materials: Handout 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

NB: Handout 1 (Uzbek Vignette) and 5 (Teaching statement) can be given as a homework before the class.

Procedure

1. Lead-in: Introduction and overview

Objectives: to introduce the topic; to prepare for the session

Time: 10 min

Materials: none

Interaction: plenary

- Ask the teachers to answer the questions. Give them 5 minutes to discuss.
 - 1) Do you think teaching is complicated? If so, why; if not, why not?
 - 2) Have you ever written a teaching statement?

3) Do you think that relating theory to practice can help you to teach better?

If so, how?

- Elicit some answers.

Establish that each teacher has their own personal theory of teaching, whether they can articulate it or not, and it is based on previous schooling, professional coursework, contextual factors, and classroom practices.

2. Activity: Reading Uzbek Vignette

Objective:

Time: 10 min

Interaction: pair work

Material: Handout 1

- Ask the teachers to work in pairs and read a teacher trainer's story. (Handout 1)

Ask them to answer the questions:

- What is the disconnect between the teacher trainer and the language teacher?
- Do you share the teacher's opinion? If so, why; if not, why not?

- Elicit some ideas.

NB: if participants have read the Vignette as a homework, start by discussing the questions.

Handout 1

- What is the disconnect between the teacher trainer and the language teacher?
- Do you share the teacher's opinion? If so, why; if not, why not?

Teacher trainer

I was invited to the private language center to work with teachers. My duties comprised of lesson observations and running teacher training seminars. I observed all teachers to understand what kind of problems they faced and find possible solutions. The majority of teachers were young, with good English, and very ambitious. The lesson observations revealed that although they had different experiences and teaching styles, many of them lacked understanding of principles of language teaching.

I wanted to start the first teacher training seminar with an exploration of teachers' attitudes towards language teaching. I decided to start with participants reading and discussing statements related to teaching like, whether our learners should know grammar; what is the role of reading aloud and translation; the role of the mother tongue in learning foreign languages; and the role of encouragement and reward ... in the middle of the discussion one young teacher stood up and said: 'I don't think this discussion will help me. You must give me something tangible, ready-made recipes, which I can take to my class on Monday!'

3. Activity: Knowledge, Attitude, Skills, and Awareness

Objective: to raise awareness in KASA model and its importance for teachers

Time: 10 min

Interaction: pair work

Material: Handout 1

- Ask the teachers what they know about KASA model. Accept all answers.
- Ask the teachers to work in pairs and look at Handout 1 and answer the questions:

- How are Knowledge, Attitude, Skills, and Awareness linked to each other?
- Do they affect each other? If so, in what way?

Establish that this model can be used for language teachers to identify their strengths and weaknesses in teaching and learning. Additionally, the model shows that when one aspect of KASA changes, then all other aspects shift as well. Thus, our attitude towards language teaching is tied directly to the skills that we use and the knowledge of the subject matter. Thus, the specific techniques, methods, activities and materials that you use in the classroom have an underlying *reason* – which is often tied to your attitude. Therefore, for learning to happen for teachers, there has to be awareness raising, which results in a change in attitude, knowledge, and skills of teaching.

Additionally, many researchers in L2 teacher cognition studies and in teacher development look towards the KASA model as a way to understand teacher learning and teacher dynamics.

technique, with whom it will work, how to adapt it for your audience, or how to judge its effectiveness (Brown, 2000). The twelve principles are grouped in three strands: cognitive, affective and linguistic, although some with no clear boundaries.

- Ask the participants to match five Cognitive Principles: 1) Automaticity, 2) Meaningful Learning, 3) Anticipation of reward, 4) Intrinsic Motivation, and 5) Strategic Investment with their explanations.
- Allocate Handout 2 to each pair. After 5 minutes check the answers.
 - *Answer key:* 1d, 2c, 3e, 4a, 5b
- Invite some participants to say why considering cognitive principles are important for teachers.

Establish that in order to teach more effectively teachers must understand how learners learn and what cognitive processes they go through. We cannot teach effectively if we do not know how people create knowledge, how they retain and extract it from the memory. Exploratory learning (Allwright, 2001) can help create a positive learning climate and ensure the learner movement from unconscious incompetence towards unconscious competence (Underhill, 1992).

Handout 3

Cognitive Principles

Principle	Name	Explanation
Principle 1	Automaticity	a) The most powerful rewards are those that are intrinsically motivated within the learner. Because the behavior stems from needs, wants, or desires within oneself, the behavior itself is self-rewarding;

		therefore, no externally administered reward is necessary
Principle 2	Meaningful Learning	b) Second language mastery will be due to a large extent to a learner's own personal investment of time, effort, and attention to the L2 in the form of an individualized battery of strategies for comprehending and producing the language.
Principle 3	Anticipation of Reward	c) Meaningful as opposed to rote learning. (Meaningful learning will lead toward better long term retention than rote learning)
Principle 4	Intrinsic Motivation	d) ...involves a timely movement of the control of a few language forms into the automatic processing of a relatively unlimited number of language forms
Principle 5	Strategic Investment	e) Human beings are universally driven to act, or "behave," by the anticipation of some sort of reward – tangible or intangible, short term or long term – that will ensue because of the behavior.

Slide

Table X

Cognitive Principles

Principle	Name	Explanation
Principle 1	Automaticity	...involves a timely movement of the control of a few language forms into the automatic processing of a relatively unlimited number of language forms
Principle 2	Meaningful Learning	Meaningful as opposed to rote learning. (Meaningful learning will lead toward better long term retention than rote learning)
Principle 3	Anticipation	Human beings are universally driven to act, or "behave,"

	of Reward	by the anticipation of some sort of reward – tangible or intangible, short term or long term – that will ensue because of the behavior.
Principle 4	Intrinsic Motivation	The most powerful rewards are those that are intrinsically motivated within the learner. Because the behavior stems from needs, wants, or desires within oneself, the behavior itself is self-rewarding; therefore, no externally administered reward is necessary
Principle 5	Strategic Investment	Second language mastery will be due to a large extent to a learner’s own personal investment of time, effort, and attention to the L2 in the form of an individualized battery of strategies for comprehending and producing the language.

ACTION

Based on the five cognitive principles discussed, answer the following questions:

- 1) Please rank order what you think is the most to least important cognitive principle above. Then, provide a rationale for your rank order.
- 2) Provide a classroom example from your life about how you have incorporated your most important cognitive principle?

Step 2 Exploring Affective Principles

- Ask the participants to work in pairs and rank order what they think is the most to least important affective principle. Then they should provide a rationale for their rank order. Slide Table X Affective Principles Or Handout 4
- Ask them to provide a classroom example from their life about how they have incorporated most important affective principle.

Establish that the importance of addressing Affective principles in teaching languages is vital. We cannot teach effectively if we do not understand the process by which people create knowledge, which Senge et al (2000) call a living system “made up of often-invisible networks and relationships.” Rogers (1986) stresses that learners possess a set of “values, established prejudices and attitudes in which they have a great deal of emotional investment” and warns that when this experience is devalued or ignored, this implies rejection of the person not just the experience.

Handout 4

SlideTable X

Affective Principles

Principle	Name	Explanation
Principle 6	Language Ego	As human beings learn to use a second language, they also develop a new mode of thinking, feeling, and acting – a second identity. The new “language ego,” intertwined with the second language, can easily create within the learner a sense of fragility, a defensiveness, and a raising of inhibitions.
Principle 7	Self-Confidence	Learners’ belief that they indeed are fully capable of accomplishing a task is at least partially a factor in their eventual success in attaining the task.
Principle 8	Risk-Taking	Successful language learners, in their realistic appraisal of themselves as vulnerable beings yet capable of accomplishing tasks, must be willing to be “gamblers” in the game of language, to attempt to produce and to interpret language that is a bit beyond their absolute certainty.
Principle 9	Language-Culture Connection	Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a complex system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling, and acting.

Step 3 Exploring Linguistic Principle

- Ask the participants to write 2 or 3 sentences for the three linguistic principles:
1) Native language, 2) Interlanguage, and 3) Communicative competence.
- Ask them to compare in pairs. Elicit some ideas.
- Show a slide and ask the participants to compare their ideas with the given ones.
- Hold a plenary to discuss the differences or and similarities.
- Ask the participants to provide a classroom example from their life about how they have incorporated the linguistic principles.

Table X

Linguistic Principles

Principle	Name	Explanation
Principle 10	Native Language	The native language of learners exerts a strong influence on the acquisition of the target language system. While that native system will exercise both facilitating and interfering effects on the production and comprehension of the new language, the interfering effects are likely to be the most salient.
Principle 11	Interlanguage	Second language learners tend to go through a systematic or quasi-systematic development process as they progress to full competence in the target language. Successful interlanguage development is partially a result of utilizing feedback from others.
Principle 12	Communicative Competence	Since it is the goal of a language classroom, instruction needs to point toward all its

components: organizational, pragmatic, strategic, and psychomotor. Communicative goals are best achieved by giving due attention to language use and not just usage, to fluency, and not just accuracy, to authentic language and contexts, and to students' eventual need to apply classroom learning to previously unrehearsed contexts in the real world

5. Activity: Teaching Statement

Objective: to raise awareness in the importance of teaching statement for understanding own teaching philosophy

Time: 15 min

Interaction: pair work

Material: Handout 1

1) Ask the teachers whether they have read Teaching statement by D. Chiesa.

Ask:

- Can you formulate your personal theory of teaching?
- How can knowing how to relate theory to practice can help you teach better?

2) Accept all answers. Say: Looking back at the three questions in the Introduction and Overview part, think about the following: Will you answer those questions differently now?

3) Homework: Ask the participants to write own teaching statement for the next class.

Handout 5

Teaching Statement Example:

Teaching Statement

David L. Chiesa

My teaching philosophy has evolved over the past fifteen years with my experiences throughout the world (e.g., United States, Japan, China, Mongolia and Uzbekistan), teaching in a variety of diverse instructional contexts, adhering to certain theoretical positions (e.g., sociocultural), and with my own empirical and classroom-based research. My philosophy consists of three core values: (1) I believe in helping learners grow into abilities they do not yet possess; (2) I provide opportunities to enable inquiry, critical thinking, and problem solving; and, (3) I believe in forming the necessary social conditions for mediated cognition to occur. The three values will be expounded upon and then explained with an example from my own teaching.

Growing into Abilities

Bakhurst (1991) explains that "... the mind projects its mature psychological capacities onto the earlier stages of its development: We see the higher mental functions in the infant's behaviour even when they are not yet present" (p. 67). Bakhurst's explanation is what he called prolepsis, and, to me, this is the essence of all pedagogy. It is the essence of empowerment and autonomy-supporting actions in the classroom. I treat the learners as if they had knowledge and skills that they do not yet have, so that they may grow into those skills.

Showing how learners can "grow into abilities" can be exemplified in my research writing class. Modern conceptions of learning to write in a second language (L2) see writing as a social practice that is embedded in the cultural and institutional contexts in which it is produced. Writing is not only exclusive to the author, but it is interactional and collective, which expresses a culturally agreed upon purpose, reflecting a kind of relationship and acknowledging an engagement in each community. Thus, in my research writing class, I moved away from the cognitive-rhetorical process of L2 writing grounded in formal linguistic-textual emphases to a stance that pursued the specification of the *functional*-textual-rhetorical resources

needed. I viewed learners as emerging scholars and provided them feedback as if they were already socialized into the research writing community; and included them in ethical discussions in class about the standards upheld by the broader applied linguistics profession - particularly in the design, data collection and analysis, and dissemination phases of research. The learners were treated *as if* they had abilities they did not yet possess, which is a necessary condition of the development of those abilities.

Enable Inquiry, Critical Thinking, and Problem Solving

The second value I hold to is enabling inquiry, critical thinking, and problem solving. I understand this as a process about conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, and evaluating information gathered through the lens of past experiences. Vygotsky (1994) explained that “learners perceive experiences in a new environment through ... a cognitive and emotional reciprocal processing of previous and new experience” (as cited in, Golombek and Duran, 2014, p. 104). This discussion views the learning process not as a static moment, but one of continual evolution and progression. Enabling inquiry, connects one’s past to the present, while also looking toward the future.

While teaching Introduction to Linguistics, I focused on providing my students both structural (e.g., phonetics, morphology, syntax, etc.) and functional conceptualizations of language (e.g., Gee’s seven building blocks of language). To enable inquiry and critical thinking, I used *dialogue journals* – written interactions between a learner and teacher over a consistent course of time. In the dialogue journals, students discussed their past experiences of language learning, the current classes they are taking, and how they would teach language based on their own beliefs about the conceptualizations of language, because the view one takes on language has profound implications for language teaching. One’s view on the nature of language will affect what will be taught, how it will be taught, how one assesses learning, the types of materials used, and the types of exercises and activities used in the

classroom. Although dialogue journals are time consuming for teachers, they provide a unique pedagogical space for inquiry, critical thinking and problem solving with the assistance of a teacher.

Creating Social Conditions for Mediated Cognition

The third value I have is creating the necessary social conditions for mediated cognition to occur. *Mediated cognition* refers to the idea that the human mind is inherently social which emerges out of participation in external forms of social interaction that become internalized psychological tools for thinking. It is through dialogic interaction and co-construction of meaning, where learners have potential growth in knowledge, skills, and awareness that can lead to development. However, interaction can be fruitful when learners feel comfortable in their learning contexts with their interlocutors.

When I work with language teachers, I use collaborative group work to promote the social environment that can support mediated cognition. Over the course of a seminar, I provide teacher-learners with access to a group for the entire course of study, and explain (and show) them why I believe in collaborative work: first, to improve the quantity and quality of my student's learning; second, to foster their ability to interact effectively with others in both professional and personal terms; and third, to model and demonstrate co-operative activities and techniques which they can later use in life. I hope to create a sense of belonging for each learner and promote positive human interaction/community building, so that interaction can ensue for mediated cognition to take place.

Conclusion

My teaching philosophy is grounded in providing a cooperative atmosphere between me and learners and amongst learners. I treat them as if they already have the skills and knowledge that they do not yet have, so they may grow into those abilities. At the same time, I choose and design tasks that promote inquiry, critical thinking, and problem solving; I further frame them in terms of growth, challenge, and

enjoyment. Finally, I believe that dialogic interaction and co-construction of meaning are needed for learning to take place. I enjoy teaching. I believe that teaching is not only about helping learners with specific knowledge and skills, but to help them grow and evolve to meet the demands of society, and thus, become more humane people.

References

Bakhurst, D. (1991). *Consciousness and revolution in Soviet psychology*. Cambridge: Cambridge U.P.

Golombek, P. R., & Doran, M. (2014). Unifying cognition, emotion, and activity in language

teacher professional development. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 39, 102-111. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2014.01.002>

Theme 2: Methods of organizing, planning and evaluating the practical foreign language teaching process. From National Standards to Your Classroom
Lesson plan:

Materials: Handout 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

NB: Handout 1 (Uzbek Vignette) and 5 (National standards) can be given as a homework before the class.

GOALS

This section focuses on raising teacher's awareness on HOW their class fits into the larger picture, even though their classes are microcosms of the larger picture: National Standards, curriculum, syllabus.

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- 1) Articulate the difference between curriculum and syllabus;
- 2) Identify rationale behind different types of syllabi and relate them to own institutional syllabus;

- 3) Reflect on the connection of the standards, curriculum and your institutional syllabus;
- 4) Articulate how your lesson plans fit into the larger picture.

NB: Check participants know the difference between National Standards, Curriculum and syllabus.

Procedure

Lead-in: Introduction and overview

Objectives: to introduce the topic; to prepare for the session

Time:20 min

Materials: none

Interaction: plenary

Procedure: Ask the teachers to answer the questions.

- 4) Are you involved in syllabus design at your institution? If so, what principles do you use while designing? If no, what principles do you think were used while designing?
- 5) How often do you read your institutional syllabus? What does the syllabus consist of? How are the parts of the syllabus connected/interrelated with each other?

- Elicit some answers.

Ask whether they have done homework. (Pre-task 1)

TASK

Look at the syllabus template and compare with your syllabus. Are they different or similar?

Name of course:

Brief description of course:

Course goals and objectives: Assessment scheme: Materials: Outline or timetable of course content and sequence:
--

Table XX. Syllabus template (Graves, 2014, p.55)

Establish that although majority of teachers do not take part in the creation of their language curriculum and institutional syllabi all must have a clear vision of how their classes build the whole picture. Thus, the goal of this section is to help teachers learn the necessary tools they will need to understand how their class fits into the larger picture of the national standards, curriculum, syllabi, and their lesson plan.

Activity: Reading Uzbek Vignette

Objective: To raise awareness in problematic areas in their institutional syllabus; to enable participants to identify weaknesses in their institutional syllabus

Time: 15 min

Interaction: pair work

Material: Handout 1 (Pre-task 2)

Procedure: Ask the teachers to work in pairs and read a researcher's story.

(Handout Ask them to answer the questions:

- Look at the syllabus you or your colleagues developed for your students. Can you see similar problems as the researcher stated above? To what extent are they similar? What changes could you suggest?
 - Elicit some ideas.

NB: if participants have read the Vignette as a homework, start by discussing the questions.

Handout 1

UZBEK VIGNETTE

Researcher

English language teaching specialists have been conducting a baseline study to research the teaching of English for English for Specific Purposes (ESP) within higher educational institutions throughout Uzbekistan. One striking finding was the confusion that university teachers have towards curriculum and syllabus. First, most have trouble discussing the differences between curriculum and syllabi. Second, a syllabi analysis conducted using content analysis methodology, revealed a lot of mismatches.

- i) Syllabus developers use different terms, such as a “Curriculum”, “Schedule”, “Calendar plan” for the same type of a document (a syllabus).
- ii) Majority of syllabi were derived from the prescribed books (syllabus developers take the book prescribed by the ministry and copy topics, grammar area, etc from the book and convert the book into syllabus – so the syllabus is a reflection of the book).
- iii) The aims and objectives claimed in the introductory part are different from language in focus, laid out in the documents afterwards. For example, in the syllabi, development of all language skills, stated in the introductory part, cannot be found in the tables of contents. Further, the headings given in those syllabi: “Grammar material”, “Lexical material”, show that students are expected to practice mostly grammar and vocabulary building. Many syllabi contain goals like “To develop oral speech, to fix lexical and grammatical material”, while major skills such listening, reading and writing are not mentioned at all.
- iv) The description of grammar and phonetic materials (e.g. *There is/there are constructions/Imperative mood/sounds [i] [e]... etc.*) illustrate the gap between the aim of “developing communicative competence” and the actual structural approach employed in most institutions, as well as between the desired level of students (B1 according to the state curriculum) and the reality teachers report.

More than that, the greatest concern arises while comparing the content of syllabuses with exit exam which in most cases consists of: 1) Read and translate the text, 2) Make up a story using the words below.

Activity: Learning Key Concepts

Objective: To enable participants to articulate differences between Implementation and Enactment views

Time:30 min.

Prepare poster paper, markers enough for working in groups of 4/5

Step 1

- Ask participants in groups to read and draw visual images to represent two views of curriculum. (Handout 2, Graves, 2014, 15).

Handout 2

Read and draw visual images to represent two views of curriculum. Explain your image.

Implementation View

“Policy makers set curriculum policy; a curriculum committee analyses needs, decides on methodology, and produces a curriculum plan; materials writers produce materials according to the plan; teacher trainers train the teachers to use the materials; and the teachers and learners use the materials in the classroom.” (p. 51)

Enactment View

In contrast, recursive process, consisting of planning, enacting and evaluating places learning and teaching in the classroom in the center of the dynamic system of enactment. Planning and evaluation are in close relationship, influencing each other. Planning is used as guidance to support enactment and provision of evaluation. Evaluation aiming at evaluation effectiveness learning and teaching affects planning.

- Ask the groups to show and explain their images.

- Sum up.

Establish that Graves (2014, p. 51) contrasts two views of curriculum: an enactment view in which curriculum is viewed as experiences created by learners and teachers in the classroom and an implementation view where curriculum is designed by assigned specialists and implemented by the teachers and learners. The implementation view puts curriculum designers at the top and learners and teachers at the end of the chain. According to Graves the chain goes like this:

If implementation of the curriculum is not successful those who are at the top of the hierarchical chain blame teachers for their incompetence or resistance to new curriculum. Schwarts (2006, p. 450 as quoted in Graves, 2014) notes that implementation view is problematic as “What happens in the learning experience is an outcome of the original, creative, thinking-on-your-feet efforts of the teacher – which often lead the class in directions far, far away from anticipated goals of the curriculum writers.”

Activity Syllabus design: classroom applications

Step 2

Slide

Graves (2014, p. 50) notes that the term syllabus has practical and theoretical meanings. She identifies practical meaning as “an actual plan for a course”, and theoretical as “a specific way to conceptualize what language is and how language is learned so that materials can be selected or prepared for the classroom” (Graves, 2008, p. 161). In contrast to other subjects like history or biology, language is “a tool that humans use to express themselves” (Graves, 2014, p. 50) complexity of which resulted in emerging various syllabus types.

Step 3

- Ask participants to read and underline key words in the syllabi descriptions.

- Ask them to identify which type of syllabus their institutional syllabus belongs to.

Does it belong to one type of the syllabus or is it a combination of various syllabi?

Handout (Pre-task 3)

1. Read and underline key words in the syllabi descriptions.
2. Identify which type of syllabus your institutional syllabus belongs to.

Does it belong to one type of the syllabus or is it a combination of various

Time: 10 min

Interaction: pair work

Material: A statement on a poster or on the board

Step 1

- Ask participants to read and complete the statement. (Graves, 2014, 61).
- Ask them to answer the questions:
 - How can we identify learners' needs?
 - What factors in context can influence the enactment of the program?

“Effective curriculum and syllabus design are based on understanding _____ and purposes for _____ and the factors in the _____ that influence the _____ of the program or course” Graves (2014, 61)

Answer Key

“Effective curriculum and syllabus design are based on understanding learner's needs and purposes for learning and the factors in the context that influence the enactment of the program or course” Graves (2014, 61)

While designing a syllabus developers must think of two important things: “a starting point of *what is* and an ending point of *what is desired*” (Graves, 2014, p. 56) Identification of the starting point is connected with context analysis and needs assessment. Assessment and defining goals and objectives help formulating the ending point (*what is desired*). The journey from the starting point towards the desired finish demand making decisions on the content and activities. The process is not linear: all sections are connected, affect and complement each other.

Building a bridge between the two points carefully is extremely important because each course has very specific learning context, learners’ needs, goals and objectives. Both curriculum and syllabus design must be based on needs assessment which involves gathering information via different means and from different sources, including teachers, students, parents, employers and other stakeholders.

Homework

Write a lesson plan for your microteaching. Identify how your lesson plan is connected with the standards, curriculum and your institutional syllabus. Identify principles and features of CLT in the lesson.

Reference:

Graves, K., (2014) Syllabus and curriculum design for second language teaching. In Celce-Murcia M., Brinton D. M. & Snow M. A. (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (4th ed. pp. 46-62) National Geographic Learning.

Schwartz, M., (2006) For whom do we write the curriculum? *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 38(4), 449-457

Action/Homework Task –

Now, the teachers are going to be expected to do more hands-on work because in the end... they will present one section of a lesson plan for their microteaching. Thus,

we need to scaffold very well the top down approach. Thus, by the end of this chapter, the teachers will make a wonderful lesson plan that is connected to their course syllabus, which is connected to their school's curriculum, which is connected to the national standards.

Handout 1

CONTENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING FOREIGN

LANGUAGE FOR LEVEL B2

Higher Education

Non-Linguistic Undergraduate Programmes

Competences	CONTENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING
TOPIC BASED CONTENT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Topics related to the Internet and ICT • Sociocultural topics on the specialism (specific comparisons and contrasts between Uzbekistan and target language countries, e.g. UK & USA, France, Germany). • Topics of specific/ professional purposes (background specialisation, trends in the specialisation) • Topics related to social life (social contact with the surrounding world).

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Linguistic competence 	<p style="text-align: center;">Competence in language skills</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Listening</p> <p>Learners should be exposed to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> lectures, presentations, debates radio and TV reports, news bulletins, interviews, documentaries etc. announcements recorded native speaker voices (films, documentaries, public speeches, etc) social talk between target language speakers <p>Skills to be developed: listening for gist; listening for detailed understanding; listening for specific points or information</p>
		<p style="text-align: center;">Speaking</p> <p>Spoken Interaction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> transactions social talk and informal conversations formal and informal discussions within and beyond the learner's specialism chairing or leading a discussion interviews negotiations telephone calls <p>Spoken Production (monologue).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> making reports developing an argument, e.g. in discussion of a specialist topic stating and supporting an opinion making announcements making a presentation on a specific topic summarising an article, a discussion etc

		<p style="text-align: center;">Reading</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • correspondence, including emails, notes and messages as well as letters • authentic texts containing specific material • texts containing specific lexis and terminology, e.g. abstracts, reports, extracts from textbooks • scientific and specialist literature (periodicals, E-literature) <p>Skills to be developed: reading for gist; reading for specific information; reading for detailed understanding; reading for orientation (signs, labels etc)</p>
		<p style="text-align: center;">Writing</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • correspondence (letters, messages, etc) • specific reports (memos, CVs, etc.) • essays, summaries, abstracts, etc. • research papers (articles, final qualification works, etc.)
		<p style="text-align: center;">Lexical competence</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • development of specialist vocabulary and terminology, including common abbreviations • word fields at an intermediate/ upper-intermediate level • ways of word formation (compounds and affixation), international words and cognates/false cognates • antonyms, synonyms and other common lexical relationships
		<p style="text-align: center;">Grammatical competence</p>	<p>largely accurate application of grammatical material covered at previous levels (verb tenses, modals, comparative degrees of adjectives and adverbs, determiners, prepositions etc) in general and academic contexts</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Sociolinguistic competence</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • intercultural awareness raising between Uzbek and other cultures (in both academic and social settings), and the way some of the issues are related to language, e.g. greetings, modes of address in academic and professional settings, basic politeness conventions in lectures, seminars etc. 		

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • further work on non-verbal elements of communication in different cultures: body language; non-verbal signals etc • email and messaging conventions in the foreign language as compared with L1
Pragmatic competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • further development of presentation skills • linking ideas appropriately in spoken and written discourse • awareness of some of the degrees of formality of language needed in different social, academic and professional settings • strategies for interrupting, clarifying, paraphrasing, ‘repairing’ and compensating etc.

REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE LEVEL OF GRADUATES ON FL B2 LEVEL
Higher Education
Non-Linguistic Undergraduate Programmes

Competences		Knowing/can do
LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE	Listening	<p><i>By the end of their undergraduate studies, learners can:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>understand and follow an extended talk or complex lines of arguments</i> • <i>can understand the essentials of lectures, talks and reports, detailed instructions and other forms of academic and professional presentations, questions and statements</i> • <i>understand announcements and messages</i> • <i>understand complex authentic speech in familiar and unfamiliar contexts</i> • <i>catch most of a conversation or discussion between target language speakers taking place around them</i> • <i>understand most radio. Internet and TV documentaries, interviews etc</i>
	COMPETENCE IN LANGUAGE SKILLS	

	<p>Speaking</p>	<p>Spoken Interaction</p> <p><i>By the end of their undergraduate studies, learners can:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>negotiate with professional partners</i> ● <i>make a request on specific area</i> ● <i>engage in extended conversation with native speakers and sustain the interaction, taking the lead if necessary</i> ● <i>take part in unprepared and natural discussions and debates</i> ● <i>take part in an interview about their specialism</i> ● <i>express their ideas and opinions clearly within the framework of a formal discussion</i> ● <i>clarify, paraphrase and repair their own contributions to discussions</i> ● <i>negotiate over a transaction or the resolution of a problem using appropriate levels of politeness and formality</i> ● <i>ask and answer questions appropriately in formal settings, e.g. seminars</i> <p>Spoken Production</p> <p><i>By the end of their undergraduate studies, learners can:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>give a well-structured presentation on a specific topic</i> ● <i>give clear, detailed descriptions on a range of subjects related to their specialism</i> ● <i>make an oral report on a specific topic</i> ● <i>give a clear summary of an article, lecture or discussion</i> ● <i>develop and sustain an argument on a familiar topic, supporting it with reasons, examples and evidence</i>
	<p>Reading</p>	<p><i>By the end of their undergraduate studies, learners can:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>understand the main / specific points in information texts on familiar and unfamiliar topics</i>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>understand correspondence related to their interests or specialism</i> • <i>understand short descriptions of charts, graphs, tables</i> • <i>understand complex messages</i> • <i>understand and follow specific and complex written instructions or directions</i> • <i>locate specific information in longer articles and reports in their specialist field</i> • <i>read abstracts, conference programmes, contents pages etc, in order to decide whether to read certain sections or chapters for detail</i> <p>Skills to be developed: reading for gist; reading for specific information; reading for detailed understanding; reading for orientation (signs, labels etc)</p>
	Writing	<p><i>By the end of their undergraduate studies, learners can:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>write specific messages (business letters, notes, e-mails)</i> • <i>write well-structured professional essays and reports,</i> • <i>write coherent scientific and research articles with a reasonable degree of accuracy and in an appropriate style (C1)</i> • <i>write proposals, summaries and abstracts</i> • <i>(if required) write final qualification works in their specialism (C1)</i>
	Lexical Competence	<p><i>By the end of their undergraduate studies, learners can:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>use specific lexis and terminology in context</i> • <i>use topic-related vocabulary in communicative settings;</i> • <i>recognise and use a wide range of international words</i>
	Grammatical Competence	<p><i>By the end of their undergraduate studies, learners can:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>use complex grammar and syntactical constructions in communicative settings</i>

		ce	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • use appropriate linking words • analyse a piece of discourse in their own specialism to understand how it is structured in terms of cohesion and coherence
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**CONTENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGE
FOR LEVEL C1
Higher Education
Specialist Language Undergraduate Programmes**

Competences	CONTENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING
TOPIC BASED CONTENT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Topics related to everyday life (e.g. diet, bringing up children etc). • Topics related to wider society (e.g. ethical issues in medicine, science and technology, social issues, youth crime, community responsibilities etc.). • Topics of professional interest (e.g. Linguistic and Sociolinguistic issues, language teaching, language learning, etc.) • Sociocultural topics (acculturation, culture shock and social distance, preserving cultural identity, behaving in intercultural settings, being sensitive about culture while designing materials etc.)

Linguistic competence	Listening	<p>Learners should be exposed to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • extended speech on abstract and complex topics; • a wide range of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms and recorded and broadcast audio (e.g. in a station, sports stadium etc.); • complex interactions between third parties in group discussion; • television programmes and films • samples of authentic spoken language by both native speakers and non-native speakers, in formal, informal and academic settings • lectures, discussions and debates in their specialist field • classroom interaction in the target language
	Speaking	<p>Spoken Interaction (dialogue).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • inter-personal dialogues and conversations; • public debates and formal discussion; • lectures and talks on abstract and complex topics of a specialist nature beyond his/her own field; • job interview either as an interviewer or interviewee; • language in classroom settings <p>Spoken Production (monologue).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • instructions • presentations • developing and supporting an argument on concrete or abstract topics • expressing an opinion giving reasons • summarising an opinion, a discussion, a professional article etc

		Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> lengthy, complex texts likely to be encountered in social, professional or academic life; books, fiction and non-fiction, including literary journals; periodicals (magazines, newspapers); instruction manuals (textbooks, cookbooks, etc.); advertising material; data including forms, teacher diary, questionnaires; formal letters, emails etc memoranda, reports, critical reviews and papers;
		Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> report articles instructions for learning and teaching materials; forms and questionnaires; business and professional letters; essays, reports, reviews; qualification paper; statement of intent; CVs; covering letter.
		Lexical competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> broad lexical repertoire, idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms contrasting and comparing specialist terminology (language teaching and applied linguistics) in Uzbek, Russian and the target language
		Grammatical competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> complex sentences to convey meaning which is a central aspect of communicative competence; grammatical semantics including grammatical elements, categories, structures and processes; grammar at discourse level
	Sociolinguistic Competence		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> intercultural awareness raising between Uzbek and other cultures, and the way some of the issues are related to language, e.g. greetings, modes of address, basic politeness conventions etc. further work on non-verbal elements of communication in different cultures: body language; non-verbal signals etc

Pragmatic Competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● further development of presentation skills ● linking ideas appropriately in spoken and written discourse ● awareness of some of the degrees of formality of language needed in different social, academic and professional settings ● strategies for interrupting, clarifying, paraphrasing, ‘repairing’ and compensating etc.
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English language teaching specialists have been conducting a baseline study to research the teaching of English for English for Specific Purposes (ESP) within higher educational institutions throughout Uzbekistan. One striking finding was the confusion that university teachers have towards curriculum and syllabus. First, most have trouble discussing the differences between curriculum and syllabi. Second, a syllabi analysis conducted using content analysis methodology, revealed a lot of mismatches.

I) Syllabus developers use different terms, such as a “Curriculum”, “Schedule”, “Calendar plan” for the same type of a document (a syllabus).

II) Majority of syllabi were derived from the prescribed books (syllabus developers take the book prescribed by the ministry and copy topics, grammar area, etc from the book and convert the book into syllabus – so the syllabus is a reflection of the book).

III) The aims and objectives claimed in the introductory part are different from language in focus, laid out in the documents afterwards. For example, in the syllabi, development of all language skills, stated in the introductory part, cannot be found in the tables of contents. Further, the headings given in those syllabi: “Grammar material”, “Lexical material”, show that students are expected to practice mostly grammar and vocabulary building. Many syllabi contain goals like “To develop oral speech, to fix lexical and grammatical material”, while major skills such listening, reading and writing are not mentioned at all.

IV) The description of grammar and phonetic materials (e.g. *There is/there are constructions/Imperative mood/sounds [i] [e]... etc.*) illustrate the gap between the aim of “developing communicative competence” and the actual structural approach employed in most institutions, as well as between the desired level of students (B1 according to the state curriculum) and the reality teachers report.

More than that, the greatest concern arises while comparing the content of syllabuses with exit exam which in most cases consists of: 1) Read and translate the text, 2) Make up a story using the words below.

RESOURCES

Larsen-Freeman, D., & M. Anderson (2016). *Techniques & Principles in Language Teaching*.

Oxford University Press.

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Duff, P. (2014). Communicative Language Teaching, in M. Celce-Murcia, D. Brinton, M. Snow (Eds.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (4th ed.), National Geographic Learning.

Ellis, N. (2007). Dynamic systems and SLA: The wood and the trees. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 10(1), 23-25.

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- Richards, J. C. (2006). *Communicative Language Teaching Today*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. [Online]. Available: http://www.cambridge.org/other_files/downloads/esl/booklets/Richards-Communicative-Language.pdf (Retrieved on February 26th, 2018).

LECTURE 3 :

Assessment of linguistic and intercultural competences.

PLAN:

1. PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCES OF THE FL TEACHERS

2. ASSESSMENT IN TFL

KEYWORDS: professional competence, linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, sociocultural competence, discourse competence, strategic competence

1. PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCES OF THE FL TEACHERS

1. Teachers should be skilled in choosing assessment methods appropriate for instructional decisions.

Skills in choosing appropriate, useful, administratively convenient, technically adequate, and fair assessment methods are prerequisite to good use of information to support instructional decisions. Teachers need to be well-acquainted with the kinds of information provided by a broad range of assessment alternatives and their strengths and weaknesses. In particular, they should be familiar with criteria for evaluating and selecting assessment methods in light of instructional plans.

Teachers who meet this standard will have the conceptual and application skills that follow. They will be able to use the concepts of assessment error and validity when developing or selecting their approaches to classroom assessment of students. They will understand how valid assessment data can support instructional activities such as providing appropriate feedback to students, diagnosing group and individual learning needs, planning for individualized educational programs, motivating students, and evaluating instructional procedures. They will understand how invalid information can affect instructional decisions about students. They will also be able to use and evaluate assessment options available to them, considering among other things, the cultural, social, economic, and language backgrounds of students. They will be aware that different assessment approaches can be incompatible with certain instructional goals and may impact quite differently on their teaching. Teachers will know, for each assessment approach they use, its appropriateness for making decisions about their pupils. Moreover, teachers will know of where to find information about and/or reviews of various assessment methods.

Assessment options are diverse and include text- and curriculum-embedded questions and tests, standardized criterion-referenced and norm-referenced tests, oral questioning, spontaneous and structured performance assessments, portfolios, exhibitions, demonstrations, rating scales, writing samples, paper-and-pencil tests, seatwork and homework, peer- and self-assessments, student records, observations,

questionnaires, interviews, projects, products, and others' opinions.

2. Teachers should be skilled in developing assessment methods appropriate for instructional decisions.

While teachers often use published or other external assessment tools, the bulk of the assessment information they use for decision-making comes from approaches they create and implement. Indeed, the assessment demands of the classroom go well beyond readily available instruments. Teachers who meet this standard will have the conceptual and application skills that follow. Teachers will be skilled in planning the collection of information that facilitates the decisions they will make. They will know and follow appropriate principles for developing and using assessment methods in their teaching, avoiding common pitfalls in student assessment. Such techniques may include several of the options listed at the end of the first standard. The teacher will select the techniques, which are appropriate to the intent of the teacher's instruction.

Teachers meeting this standard will also be skilled in using student data to analyze the quality of each assessment technique they use. Since most teachers do not have access to assessment specialists, they must be prepared to do these analyses themselves.

3. The teacher should be skilled in administering, scoring and interpreting the results of both externally-produced and teacher-produced assessment methods.

It is not enough that teachers are able to select and develop good assessment methods; they must also be able to apply them properly. Teachers should be skilled in administering, scoring, and interpreting results from diverse assessment methods. Teachers who meet this standard will have the conceptual and application skills that

follow. They will be skilled in interpreting informal and formal teacher-produced assessment results, including pupils' performances in class and on homework assignments. Teachers will be able to use guides for scoring essay questions and projects, stencils for scoring response-choice questions, and scales for rating performance assessments. They will be able to use these in ways that produce consistent results. Teachers will be able to administer standardized achievement tests and be able to interpret the commonly reported scores: percentile ranks, percentile band scores, standard scores, and grade equivalents.

They will have a conceptual understanding of the summary indexes commonly reported with assessment results: measures of central tendency, dispersion, relationships, reliability, and errors of measurement. Teachers will be able to apply these concepts of score and summary indices in ways that enhance their use of the assessments that they develop. They will be able to analyze assessment results to identify pupils' strengths and errors. If they get inconsistent results, they will seek other explanations for the discrepancy or other data to attempt to resolve the uncertainty before arriving at a decision. They will be able to use assessment methods in ways that encourage students' educational development and that do not inappropriately increase students' anxiety levels.

4. Teachers should be skilled in using assessment results when making decisions about individual students, planning teaching, developing curriculum, and school improvement.

Assessment results are used to make educational decisions at several levels: in the classroom about students, in the community about a school and a school district, and in society, generally, about the purposes and outcomes of the educational enterprise. Teachers play a vital role when participating in decision-making at each of these levels and must be able to use assessment results effectively. Teachers who meet

this standard will have the conceptual and application skills that follow. They will be able to use accumulated assessment information to organize a sound instructional plan for facilitating students' educational development.

When using assessment results to plan and/or evaluate instruction and curriculum, teachers will interpret the results correctly and avoid common misinterpretations, such as basing decisions on scores that lack curriculum validity. They will be informed about the results of local, regional, state, and national assessments and about their appropriate use for pupil, classroom, school, district, state, and national educational improvement.

5. Teachers should be skilled in developing valid pupil grading procedures which use pupil assessments.

Grading students is an important part of professional practice for teachers. Grading is defined as indicating both a student's level of performance and a teacher's valuing of that performance. The principles for using assessments to obtain valid grades are known and teachers should employ them.

Teachers who meet this standard will have the conceptual and application skills that follow. They will be able to devise, implement, and explain a procedure for developing grades composed of marks from various assignments, projects, inclass activities, quizzes, tests, and/or other assessments that they may use. Teachers will understand and be able to articulate why the grades they assign are rational, justified, and fair, acknowledging that such grades reflect their preferences and judgments. Teachers will be able to recognize and to avoid faulty grading procedures such as using grades as punishment. They will be able to evaluate and to modify their grading procedures in order to improve the validity of the interpretations made from them about students' attainments.

6. Teachers should be skilled in communicating assessment results to students, parents, other lay audiences, and other educators.

Teachers must routinely report assessment results to students and to parents or guardians. In addition, they are frequently asked to report or to discuss assessment results with other educators and with diverse lay audiences. If the results are not communicated effectively, they may be misused or not used. To communicate effectively with others on matters of student assessment, teachers must be able to use assessment terminology appropriately and must be able to articulate the meaning, limitations, and implications of assessment results. Furthermore, teachers will sometimes be in a position that will require them to defend their own assessment procedures and their interpretations of them. At other times, teachers may need to help the public to interpret assessment results appropriately. Teachers who meet this standard will have the conceptual and application skills that follow.

Teachers will understand and be able to give appropriate explanations of how the interpretation of student assessments must be moderated by the student's socio-economic, cultural, language, and other background factors. Teachers will be able to explain that assessment results do not imply that such background factors limit a student's ultimate educational development. They will be able to communicate to students and to their parents or guardians how they may assess the student's educational progress. Teachers will understand and be able to explain the importance of taking measurement errors into account when using assessments to make decisions about individual students.

Teachers will be able to explain the limitations of different informal and formal assessment methods. They will be able to explain printed reports of the results of pupil assessments at the classroom, school district, state, and national levels.

7. Teachers should be skilled in recognizing unethical, illegal, and otherwise

inappropriate assessment methods and uses of assessment information.

Fairness, the rights of all concerned, and professional ethical behavior must undergird all student assessment activities, from the initial planning for and gathering of information to the interpretation, use, and communication of the results. Teachers must be well-versed in their own ethical and legal responsibilities in assessment. In addition, they should also attempt to have the inappropriate assessment practices of others discontinued whenever they are encountered. Teachers should also participate with the wider educational community in defining the limits of appropriate professional behavior in assessment. Teachers who meet this standard will have the conceptual and application skills that follow.

They will know those laws and case decisions which affect their classroom, school district, and state assessment practices. Teachers will be aware that various assessment procedures can be misused or overused resulting in harmful consequences such as embarrassing students, violating a student's right to confidentiality, and inappropriately using students' standardized achievement test scores to measure teaching effectiveness.

2. ASSESSMENT IN TFL

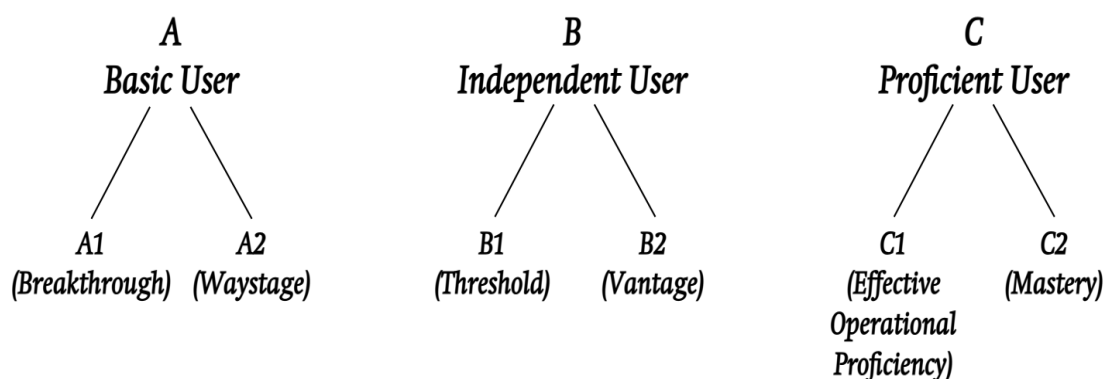
In 1991, the implementation of this framework was raised during an intergovernmental symposium in Switzerland with 3 objectives: establish a system of language levels to clearly and objectively describe proficiency, define a common framework and be able to apply it to any language. The guide, **CEFR: Learning, Teaching, Assessment**, published in 2001, lays out the fundamental principles and gives practical advice for applying the CEFR.

The importance of assessment One of the major areas impacted by the CEFR is assessment. What developed historically before the creation of the European framework was a patchwork system of different scores and levels from one testing

organization and training institute to another. The 1980s saw the proliferation of tests like the TOEIC, TOEFL and IELTS, each with their own scoring system. This made it hard to compare scores from one test to another and one candidate to another. The advantage of a framework like the CEFR is not only its ability to standardize language proficiency but also its objectivity and independence – it takes into consideration the theoretical concepts behind language learning and skill, including the 4 main competency areas: speak, listen, write and read. This means assessing speaking, listening, writing and reading skills.

A common framework in 6 levels

The CEFR consists of three broad divisions that can be divided into 6 levels:



Many European institutes of higher education require students to demonstrate a B2 level before graduating in order to ensure they will be able to find a job in the global talent market. This makes sense as global enterprises view B2 as the minimum level of business proficiency, particularly for jobs where communicating with international customers, colleagues and suppliers is par for the course. However, companies mainly based in one country with little or primarily written communication with other countries can get away with hiring employees with a B1 level. So what level should we expect candidates to be?

The Language(s) of Education (LE) is an overarching concept for language as a subject (LS), language across the curriculum (LAC) and foreign languages (FL). The aims of LE should be broadly described in terms of individual competences and of cultural competences required by society. The core purposes of LE teaching and learning in a social perspective are related to certain general aims of the Council of Europe: social cohesion, participatory democracy and respect for diversity within the member states. In this context language has an important role to play. It is a means of communication and personal development as well as a tool for learning and thinking, for artistic expression and for building identities. Mastering the LE is a prerequisite for being able to participate in society in all the different discourse communities a learner will meet. This includes a variety of skills and competences starting from the most basic reading and writing skills to being able to understand and reflect upon complicated texts and situations that will imply advanced linguistic and cultural competences. A definition of the competences covered by LE will therefore include what the learner knows, what the learner can do and what the learner is able to understand, think about and reflect upon. The aims for LE cover all of these.

The four domains of competences listed in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR): knowledge, skills/ know-how, existential competence, ability to learn (savoir, savoir faire, savoir être and savoir apprendre) might also be useful concepts for LS. The desirable outcome of the learning process is described in terms of competences and exemplified through assessment. The way in which we understand these aims is, however, deeply imbedded in culture and tradition. This again means that to a great extent we can describe and agree upon general competence and criteria for correctness. Criteria for quality, however, may have to be discussed bearing in mind cultural differences.

In general terms, we can specify aims for building up **knowledge** in LS in terms of:

- knowledge of the language: - grammar - sociolinguistics - tools for interpretation and analysis of language and text
- knowledge of texts: - text forms/

genres - text linguistics - composition - media and communication with texts • knowledge of the textual and linguistic tradition - history of language - history of literature - history of textual communication.

The aim for LS is to develop the three categories of **skills**: 8 • oral skills: - presenting knowledge and experiences - participating in discussion - presenting / interpreting literary texts - giving talks on various issues • reading skills: - understanding content of both continuous and discontinuous written texts - interpreting and reflecting upon literature of all genres - understanding and analysing a broad spectrum of textual forms - communicating reading experiences - learning from written texts - writing skills: - mastering linguistic conventions, orthography, grammar etc. - composing texts for presenting thoughts and meaning - composing texts for practical purposes - developing a spectrum of writing strategies for different genres and situations - mastering composition systems for different genres - mastering tools for gathering information, composing and presenting texts - being able to learn from text models and monitoring.

Aims for the development of **existential competence** can be expressed as follows: - consideration of “the other” - critical thinking and sound judgement - flexibility in thinking and argumentation - courage to express personal opinions - expressing understanding and experiences - exploring one’s own thinking and values. A learner might be able to write according to school standards for text construction, spelling and grammar. He/she might even master different genres and produce quite acceptable content. However, we expect more. Written and oral utterances are always made in a social context and will somehow reflect the author’s/speaker’s relationship to other people, other discourses and other texts. An awareness of these circumstances or a lack of such awareness will be imbedded in any utterance.

Aims for the development of **the ability** to learn in LS Traditionally, we assumed that learning to learn has been an ability acquired intuitively over years of schooling. We have, however, discovered that that this is not necessarily the case.

Many learners will have to acquire this as a skill in addition to other skills at school. Not only do learners learn through different approaches and preferences, they often need help in order to identify these approaches. Through reflection they can learn to be aware of what they do when they succeed, not just how they fail. Through self-assessment they can learn to see their own work from new perspectives and participate in their progress. The following abilities may be mentioned here as educational aims: - self-assessment - approaches and strategies for student work

Aims for teaching/learning : - developing subject specific concepts and genres - developing varied strategies for learning through language use - developing meta-perspectives on knowledge - learning to learn - developing mediation skills - developing cognitive academic language proficiency

Competence is a general ability based on knowledge, values, aptitudes, enabling to establish relationship between knowledge and situation, to reveal a procedure (knowledge and action), suitable for a problem.

Communicative competence is a term in linguistics which refers to a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology and the like, as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately. The term was coined by Dell Hymes in 1966, reacting against the perceived inadequacy of Noam Chomsky's (1965) distinction between linguistic competence and performance.

Linguistic Competence refers to the mastery of knowledge of the language code itself. This involves controlling the formal organisation of the language for producing or recognising “correct” sentences and organising them to form texts. Linguistic Competence includes the rules of word formation and vocabulary (lexicon), pronunciation (phonology) and sentence formation (syntax). This knowledge of the language code is framed in terms of understanding the literal meaning of the utterance.

Discourse Fluency refers to the ability to use the rules and conventions of combining grammatical forms and meanings to achieve unified spoken texts in different genres. This unity of text is achieved through cohesion in form and coherence in meaning. Cohesive devices include pronouns, synonyms, conjunctions and parallel structures which help to link individual utterances and show the logical or chronological relations among a series of utterances. Coherence refers to the logical sequencing of the ideas in a text. Discourse fluency is seen as an overall measure of spontaneous speech behaviour in peer-interactive situations. The observational categories pertaining to the appropriateness of language used in a natural way, combined with the functions implementing the communicative goal, can be characterised as a global measure of discourse fluency and include both linguistic and paralinguistic behaviour.

Sociolinguistic Competence refers to the mastery of cultural rules of use of the language and rules of discourse. With respect to cultural rules of use, the emphasis is on appropriateness of communicative acts and the naturalness of speech within given socio-cultural contexts (i.e. kinesics, proxemics and prosodics). With respect to the rules of discourse, the focus is on expressiveness using paralinguistic communication (gestures and mimical effects), and the rules of cohesion (the linking of utterances) and coherence (the logical sequencing of ideas). Illocutionary Force refers to the ability to use socially appropriate illocutionary acts in discourse. These include those acts (i.e. complaining, requesting, inviting, claiming etc) directed at achieving rhetorical effects, mimical effects and feedback.

Strategic Competence refers to the mastery of verbal and non-verbal strategies to compensate for breakdowns in communication and to enhance the effectiveness of communication, by paraphrases, avoiding, gestures, varying intonation, speed or rhythm, repeating, feedback, turn taking and topic switching. Some of these strategies are related to linguistic competence (e.g. paraphrasing, avoiding) and some to sociolinguistic competence (e.g. gesturing, varying intonation, speed or rhythm).

Strategic Competence incorporates two communicative components: planning and execution. The planning component retrieves the necessary items from linguistic competence and formulates a plan for realising the communicative goal. The execution component draws on psychophysiological mechanisms to implement the plan in a modality (receptive/productive) and channel (audio/visual) that is appropriate to the communication goal and context. It is also concerned with such performance factors as coping with the nuisance of background noise or using gap fillers.

State Standards on TFL in the Republic of Uzbekistan (08.05.2013) contain descriptors of the content of teaching and descriptors of the requirements to gradulators of each level. These descriptors must be key points in assessment.

—to track their progress toward meeting goals they have set for themselves in learning English This lecture addresses language assessment and testing and will provide information and resources on how to better support the relationship among teaching, learning, and assessment for EFL teachers in Uzbekistan. The guiding question for this lesson is the following: How can language teachers use information about their student's knowledge and skills of language before, during, and after a lesson to better support their language development? The goal of this lesson is to familiarize teachers with the two main areas of language assessment and testing known as Assessment for Learning and Assessment of Learning.

Assessment and evaluation are essential components of teaching and learning in English language arts. Without an effective evaluation program, it is impossible to know whether students have learned, whether teaching has been effective, or how best to address student learning needs. The quality of the assessment and evaluation in the educational process has a profound and well-established link to student performance. Research consistently shows that regular monitoring and feedback are essential to improving student learning. What is assessed and evaluated, how it is assessed and

evaluated, and how results are communicated results send clear messages to students and others about what is really valued—what is worth learning, how it should be learned, what elements of quality are most important, and how well students are expected to perform. Although the terms assessment and evaluation are often used interchangeably, in actuality they are two parts of the same process. Assessment is the process of gathering evidence of what the learner can do.

Evaluation is the process that follows this collection of data, including analysis and reflection, as well as decisions based on the data. The assessment and evaluation of literacy needs from the learner’s perspective is an important part of an instructional program. Although they may say they just want to “learn English,” they frequently have very specific learning goals and needs; for example, to be able to read to their children, speak with their learner’s teachers, or to get a job. If their needs are not met, they are more likely to drop out than to voice their dissatisfaction. Therefore, using informal, self-assessment tools to gauge learner needs and goals is important. Also important, of course, is using formal assessment tools to gauge learner progress. The needs assessment and evaluation process can be used as the basis for developing curricula and classroom practice that are responsive to learners’ needs. It encompasses both what learners know and can do and what they want to learn and be able to do. Learners also need opportunities to evaluate what they have learned.

Bloom’s taxonomy is a set of three hierarchical models used to classify educational learning objectives into levels of complexity and specificity. The three lists cover the learning objectives in cognitive, affective and sensory domains. The cognitive domain list has been the primary focus of most traditional education and is frequently used to structure curriculum learning objectives, assessments and activities. The models were named after Benjamin Bloom, who chaired the committee of educators that devised the taxonomy. He also edited the first volume of the standard text, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals*.

Knowledge

Knowledge involves recognizing or remembering facts, terms, basic concepts, or answers without necessarily understanding what they mean. Its characteristics may include:

- Knowledge of specifics—terminology, specific facts
- Knowledge of ways and means of dealing with specifics—conventions, trends and sequences, classifications and categories, criteria, methodology
- Knowledge of the universals and abstractions in a field—principles and generalizations, theories and structures

Example: Name three common varieties of apple.

Comprehension

Comprehension involves demonstrating an understanding of facts and ideas by organizing, comparing, translating, interpreting, giving descriptions, and stating the main ideas.

Example: Compare the identifying characteristics of a Golden Delicious apple with a Granny Smith apple.

Application

Application involves using acquired knowledge—solving problems in new situations by applying acquired knowledge, facts, techniques and rules. Learners should be able to use prior knowledge to solve problems, identify connections and relationships and how they apply in new situations.

Example: Would apples prevent scurvy, a disease caused by a deficiency in vitamin C?

Analysis

Analysis involves examining and breaking information into component parts, determining how the parts relate to one another, identifying motives or causes, making inferences, and finding evidence to support generalizations. Its characteristics include:

- Analysis of elements
- Analysis of relationships
- Analysis of organization

Example: List four ways of serving foods made with apples and explain which ones have the highest health benefits. Provide references to support your statements.

Synthesis

Synthesis involves building a structure or pattern from diverse elements; it also refers to the act of putting parts together to form a whole. Its characteristics include:

- Production of a unique communication
- Production of a plan, or proposed set of operations
- Derivation of a set of abstract relations

Example: Convert an "unhealthy" recipe for apple pie to a "healthy" recipe by replacing your choice of ingredients. Explain the health benefits of using the ingredients you chose vs. the original ones.

Evaluation

Evaluation involves presenting and defending opinions by making judgments about information, the validity of ideas, or quality of work based on a set of criteria. Its characteristics include:

- Judgments in terms of internal evidence
- Judgments in terms of external criteria

Example: Which kinds of apples are best for baking a pie, and why?

Functions of assessment

Assessment of language learning serves one of two functions: either to measure learners' proficiency without reference to a language course, or to measure the extent to which they have achieved the goals of a particular repertoire) or recordings in audio or video which demonstrate the learner's oral capacities. It is often presented in a portfolio.

Alternative forms of assessment like portfolios have three advantages over tests: evidence may be collected under non-threatening conditions, which gives it greater validity as evidence of a learner's true ability; evidence may be derived from the performance of real-world tasks that have been identified as particularly important for the learners in question; and there is greater potential to judge learners' performance holistically and thus to focus on their underlying ability to complete tasks successfully. Tests sometimes entail sanctions while alternative forms of assessment are often intended to enhance learners' motivation.

The European Language Portfolio as an assessment ular programme of learning. Within the latter function it is usual to distinguish between formative and summative assessment. Formative assessment takes place during the course of learning in order to provide learners with feedback on their progress and alert the teacher to any aspects of the course that may need adjustment; it is sometimes referred to as 'assessment for learning'. Summative assessment takes place at the end of the course and seeks to measure overall learning achievement; it is sometimes referred to as 'assessment of learning'.

Forms of assessment

Assessment usually takes one of two forms: either a test that generates a score which can be translated into a statement about the learner's proficiency/achievement, or a compilation of evidence that illustrates what the learner can do in his or her target

language. The evidence may take the form of written text (essays, letters or other documents relevant to the learner's target

Instrument

The Council of Europe's European Language Portfolio (ELP) includes checklists of 'I can' descriptors arranged according to the activities and proficiency levels of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The checklists are used by the learner to identify learning targets and assess learning outcomes. When evidence of proficiency is systematically linked to checklist descriptors, the ELP can complement or replace a test that is linked to the CEFR. The use of the ELP as an assessment instrument requires continuous support from the teacher, especially as self-assessment will not have played a role in the previous educational experience of many adult migrants.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSING

1. What are the aims and objective of the module?
2. What requirements to TFL are introduced in CEFR?
3. What is the aim of TFL around the world?
4. What is competence?
5. What is communicative\language competence?
6. What requirements to assessment in TFL are presented in CEFR and State Standards on TFL in the Republic of Uzbekistan?

THEME 4. Learning the elements of speech communication, sociolinguistic elements, pragmatic elements, basic types of assessment in the educational process.

KEY TERMS: communicative competence, forming the communicative competence, communication, foreign languages, teaching the foreign languages, intercultural communication

As the communication on foreign languages comprises the row of key competencies, necessary for each person today for self-realization and developments in rapidly changing world, in given lecture there are considered some methods of shaping the communicative competence of learners in using the communicative technology at the English lessons. When learning a foreign speech, students must proceed from understanding the nature of language as a sign system used in communication. This means that the mastery of formal language side (phonetics, vocabulary and grammar) and language system should be carried out in the course of communication. Thus, communicative and cognitive approach at the study of foreign languages becomes dominant in training. In general communicative approach is an implementation of a method of teaching in which is carried out in orderly, systematic and interrelated teaching English as a means of communication. The communicative approach is complete and optimal ordering of the relationship between the components of the training content. The cognitive approach to learning is a universal accounting process of knowledge and individual psycho-physical properties that characterize the cognitive style of each student.

The main principles of the organization of training content of using the communicative method are: – Speech orientation. It's a teaching foreign language through communication. This means lesson is practically oriented. There is learned the language, not about the language. First of all,

it concerns the exercise: the exercise is more than like a real dialogue, it is the more effective one. The speech exercises are smooth and dosed with the rapid accumulation of a large amount of vocabulary and grammar with immediate implementation; there is not allowed a single sentence that cannot be used in a real dialogue. – Functionality. Speech activity has three aspects: lexical, grammatical, and phonetic. They are inextricably linked in the process of speaking. It follows that the words cannot absorb in isolation from their forms of existence (use). The functionality assumes that the words and grammatical forms are assimilated directly into the activity: the student performs any voice problem — confirms the idea, doubt heard asking about something, encourage the interlocutor to action, during which acquires the necessary words or grammatical form. – Situational. Its fundamental importance is the selection and organization of material based on situations and communication issues that get the interest of every student. – Novelty. It manifests itself in different lesson components. First of all, the novelty of speech situations (change of communication of the subject, discussing the problems of the speech partner, communication conditions, etc.). This novelty of the material used (its information), and the novelty of the organization of the lesson (its species, forms), and a variety of methods of work. In these cases, students do not receive direct instructions to remember — it becomes a byproduct of speech activity with the material (involuntary memorizing). – Personal orientation of communication. Everyone is different and their natural properties (capabilities), and the ability to carry out training and speech activity, and the characteristics as a person: experience (everyone has his own), the

context of the activities (in each student a set of activities, which is engaged and which are the basis of the relationship with other people), a set of specific feelings and emotions (one is proud of the city, and the other — no), their interests, their status (position) in a group (class). Communicative learning involves consideration of all of these personal characteristics, for only in this way can be a way of communication: due to the communicative motivation, provide focused speaking, formed relationships, etc. – The collective interaction. It is a way to organize the process in which students actively communicate with each other and the condition that success of each student is the success of other ones. – Modeling. The volume of regional geographic and linguistic knowledge is very large and cannot be learned in school courses. It is therefore necessary to select the amount of knowledge that will be required to present the country's culture and language system in a concentrated, as a model. [4, p. 67] As can be seen from the above, the communicative English language learning technology is the most effective. At the school level, it is necessary to lay the foundation of English language is a communication tool that allows you to move from consideration of the English language as an object of study to use it in practice as a useful tool.

Learning a foreign language as a practical means of intercultural communication requires a broad introduction of advanced technologies to change the paradigm of foreign language education by involving students in active cognitive activity in the target language. The choice of educational technologies in order to achieve the goals and objectives set out in the framework of discipline «Foreign Language» is due to the need

to generate in students a set of general cultural competences needed for the implementation of interpersonal interaction and collaboration in terms of intercultural communication, as well as to ensure the required quality of education at all its stages. Forms and techniques used to teach English, competence and implement student-activity approach, which, in turn, contribute to the formation and development of multicultural language personality, capable of providing a productive dialogue with other cultures; students ability to carry out different activities using English; readiness of students to self-development and self-education, as well as contribute to the creative potential of the individual to exercise their professional duties. Using a variety of forms and methods of teaching in their practice based on the study of literature in pedagogy and psychology, I realized that in artificial language environment for teaching a foreign language cannot do without a game method. It has been used successfully as an independent method for the development of specific topics, as part of some other method, as well as the whole or part of the lesson. Phonetic skills practiced in tongue twisters, short thematic rhyme. The use of games (phonetic, spelling, grammatical, and lexical) allows you to do boring work more interesting and exciting for the students. Independence in decision speech tasks in individual forms of work, quick response in dealing with the group forms, the maximum mobilization speech skills all the characteristic qualities of the speech skills manifested during the games.

In the game everything is the equal. It is virtually feasible for every student, even one that does not have enough solid knowledge of the language. Moreover, the student with weak language can become the first

in the game: resourcefulness and ingenuity here are sometimes more important than the knowledge of the subject. The sense of equality, passion and joy atmosphere, a sense of affordability jobs — all this allows the student to overcome shyness, interfering freely use the word in a foreign language speech, reduced fear of error, it has a beneficial effect on learning outcomes. The main functions of the gaming activities in the learning process are: training, educational, entertainment, communication, relaxation, psychological and develop. [1, p.3–7] One way to activate students in the learning of foreign languages is a project method, when the student independently plans, creates, protects the project, i.e., actively involved in the process of communicative activity. Training project — a complex search, research, accounting, graphics and other types of work carried out by students on their own with a view to the practical or theoretical solution of a significant problem. The main objectives of the project method are as follows: 1) Self-expression and self-improvement of students, increase learning motivation, the formation of cognitive interest; 2) The implementation in practice of acquired skills, language development, ability to competently and convincingly present the study material, to lead the discussion debate; 3) Demonstrate the level of culture, education, social maturity. [2, p. 3–12]

Project method helps to develop language and intellectual skills, strong interest in language learning, the need for self-education. In the end, it is expected to achieve communicative competence, i.e. a certain level of language, regional studies, socio-cultural knowledge, communication skills and language skills that allow for foreign language communication. The

implementation of the project and research methods in practice leads to a change in the position of teacher. From media ready knowledge he turns to the organizer of cognitive activity, from an authoritative source of information the teacher becomes an accomplice of the research, the creative cognitive process, mentor, counselor, organizer of the independent activities of the students. Analyzing the application of a method of projects in the modern school, I believe that this is one of the most powerful incentives for motivation of learning foreign languages, the most creative activity, as work on the project involved all students, regardless of ability level and language training. They put into practice the knowledge acquired and generated speech skills, creative rethinking and multiplying. In addition, the problem and the variety of forms and types of this technology requires an interdisciplinary connections that allow the student to give a vivid picture of the world in which he lives, the relationship of phenomena and objects, mutual assistance, of the diversity of the material and artistic culture. The main focus is on the development of figurative thinking, understanding of causality and logic of events, self-realization and self-expression, not only students but also teachers. I used in the various types of projects: creative, informational, practice-oriented, and others. According to the concept of the subject «Foreign Language», one of the basic tasks which ensures the implementation of the social order, attributed the development of abilities to understand the culture, lifestyle and thoughts of other people; ability to communicate in the communication process their own thoughts and feelings. In my opinion, this provision could prove such an activity in the classroom, how to work with the song.

The song, being the product of a brief poetic in condensed form, reveals a certain topic, it carries a certain potential for the development of social competence of students. Based on the work with the song develop oral language skills, are formed skills of perception of foreign speech at the hearing; creates conditions for the development of skills of using authentic musical material, improving linguo-cultural, socio-psychological and cultural knowledge, the formation of a positive attitude to foreign language and culture of another people, the development of ideas about the achievements of the English-language music. [5, p. 3–10] Authentic song, being an important element of the language, deserves attention and is one of the means to increase interest as a country to learn the language and to the language itself. The selection of songs should follow certain principles: the song is to be authentic, must be appropriate to the age, interests and level of students' language and should correspond to the topics of curriculum. It should also be remembered that not only is interesting lyrics, but the music itself, which can create a good creative atmosphere in the classroom, to stimulate the imagination of students. Thus, I practice a lesson on work was carried out with the song Celine Dion «A new day has come!». Thus, we can conclude that the integrated use in the educational process of all the above-mentioned technologies stimulate the personal, intellectual activity, develop cognitive processes that contribute to the formation of competencies, which must have a future specialist.

Questions for discussion:

1. What are the main principles of the organization of training content of using the communicative method?

2. What is the one way to activate students in the learning of foreign languages?
3. How does project method help to develop language and intellectual skills?
4. What kind of methods can you suggest to improve communicative competence?

Principles of Communicative Competence

Plan:

1.1. Principles of Communicative Competence

1.2. Linguistic Competence

1.3. Pragmatic Competence

1.4. Sociolinguistic competence

1.1. Principles of Communicative Competence

Chapter One addresses the theoretical underpinning of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), which is the overarching framework of teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan. The goal of this chapter is to familiarize you with the four communicative competencies of language: linguistic, pragmatic, sociolinguistic, and strategic. More specifically, Section 1.1 will exemplify that successful human communication is built upon knowing linguistic competence in addition to other competencies (i.e., sociolinguistic, pragmatic, and strategic). Section 1.2 discusses linguistic competence, which is the ability to understand language structure (e.g., syntax). Section 1.3 delves into pragmatic competence, or, the ability to interpret and convey meaning in context.

Section 1.4 addresses sociolinguistic competence, which examines how cultural norms play a role in meaningful communication. And finally, Section 1.5 will conceptualize strategic competence – the ability of the interlocutor to find ways to understand language without fully knowing what is being communicated. A firm grounding in these competencies will provide you theoretical support in your growing development as a language educator in Uzbekistan.

UZBEK VIGNETTE

A head of an English Language department was asked by the rector of the University to observe a teacher's lesson, and to determine if the language teacher is using communicative approaches in his/her class. The head of the department (observer) expected to see a class on family, in which, students interacted with one another and did group discussions on their own stories on this chosen topic. However, the head of the department only saw the teacher explaining the vocabulary and the expected grammatical rules students should memorize. The observer reported the class was not interactive and the teacher's voice could be heard only during the lesson.

The following day, the head of the English Department decided to conduct a master class based on CLT. Everyone was interested in this communicative class, including the teacher who was recently observed. The class started. The topic was “The Principles of Communicative Competence.” Rather than starting with an explanation of the rules on the

principles of communicative competence, the head gave two examples.

The first read:

The sister (she) of my friend (he), sitting in front of me, is the best.

The head asked the class to discuss for two minutes who is sitting, he or she. Some said he is sitting, while others said she is. Furthermore, the head asked the teachers why some people made the decisions they did. The class discussed but did not come to a consensus. The head asked if there were any syntactical rules that would guarantee his or her sitting? No teacher could answer the department head's question. This example shows that syntactic rules are not enough to answer his query. Language is about social context, that is, the real life to which syntactical rules should fit into, and not the other way around. People, while communicating, could make mistakes from a GTM perspective but might be right from a communicative perspective. In other words, GTM says that "friend/he" is sitting because "there is at least a collocational relationship between" "friend/he" and "sitting", in which sitting in front of me "is a phrase headed by the participle" (Matthews, 1981, p. 176). CLT, however, prioritizes communication that takes place in a concrete time, space and social context, thus he or she might be the case of sitting in that time, space, and social context.

The department head gave another example to demonstrate how non-linguistic factors affect the way we interpret words, sentences, etc. The example reads:

I will be back in five minutes.

The head continued the previous discussion and asked participants whether this utterance could be considered successful or not (i.e., successful communication can ensue). Teachers mostly said there was no problem in understanding and the intended meaning was apparent. However, the head said that this communication was not successful between two people in real life because the speaker's interlocutor did not understand appropriately the utterance from a cultural perspective. (Even though this utterance is grammatically correct.) The head explained the social context for this utterance to the teachers: an Uzbek who was talking to a person from the United States. Once this utterance was made, the American questioned it, saying "whether it is real five minutes or Uzbek five minutes." The American used to experience that Uzbeks use the phrase 5 minutes to represent a certain amount of time, but not actual five minutes. Even though five minutes is an objective fact, different cultures affect the way we differently interpret this objective fact. Thus, we should decide whether we are educating students to be competent only in knowing facts and rules, or they should also be able to put these facts and rules into practice. One should be able to accomplish a communicative goal.

REFLECTION

What do you think about the examples given in the vignette? Can you provide additional language examples that shows how non-linguistic factors favour meaning construction in human communication?

1.2. Linguistic competence

UZBEK VIGNETTE

I remember vividly my language teachers at the Uzbekistan State University of World Languages in the 2000s who educated me in the Grammar Translation Method (GTM). From that time, we targeted at analyzing only form/structure and meanings/semantics and left out an analysis of use/discourse/pragmatics. Let's see how such an analysis looked like in the following example:

A teacher in class asks students to analyze and translate the following utterance: "It's a holiday today; my kid is home from school." Students say that this is a simple sentence, which contains a noun phrase, verb, and secondary parts of speech. Each word in the sentence is given in its primary meaning, thus it is a neutral sentence. Students learnt by heart all the words given in these sentences. The dictionary helped students to translate them easily. GTM says that once you know all these rules (the building blocks of language), you can easily apply them to a new situation, composing an indefinite amount linguistically correct sentences to describe the reality.

We never questioned how this sentence – "It's a holiday today; my kid is home from school" – could be interpreted differently in a real-life situation. So, once these sentences are regarded to be the relevant utterances from the viewpoint of form/structure and meanings/semantics, their use could cause a communicative problem. Instead, Americans tend to use, "It's a holiday today, my kids are home from school." "Kid" in its plural form. To use "kid" in a singular form may mean (meaning-in-use) "my kid, whom I do not like or even despise" is home. To show endearment, the speaker may

use the singular noun, child instead of kid. The form/structure and meanings/semantics never tells us meaning-in-use, functional meaning, communicative meaning.

REFLECTION

Think about the vignette and reflect on it and the relationship among form, meaning, and use. Then, think about the following sentence: Vegetarians like eating beef. How could this sentence be correct in its form? Using Figure Two above, what are the building blocks of this sentence? (Thus, can you explain each level of the pyramid with the sentence, Vegetarians like eating beef?)

ACTION

Please write a one-page response to the following inquiry: Is human communication the totality of linguistic rules (form and semantics), or, is it more than that? If so, how; if not, how not? Use evidence from your life to provide your rationale and justification.

1.3. Pragmatic competence

UZBEK VIGNETTE

I remember vividly my language teachers at the Uzbekistan State University of World Languages in the 2000s who educated me in the Grammar Translation Method (GTM). From that time, we targeted at analyzing only form/structure and meanings/semantics and left out an analysis of use/discourse/pragmatics. Let's see how such an analysis looked like in the following example:

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Figure Two above, what are the building blocks of this sentence? (Thus, can you explain each level of the pyramid with the sentence, Vegetarians like eating beef?)

ACTION

Please write a one-page response to the following inquiry: Is human communication the totality of linguistic rules (form and semantics), or, is it more than that? If so, how; if not, how not? Use evidence from your life to provide your rationale and justification.

SUMMARY

Pragmatic competence needs to be taught in foreign language teaching classes as it enhances students' ability to interpret meanings in social context, in real-life situations. Interactive classroom activities should be conducted around the concepts such as understanding the cooperative principle, through which we enhance students' pragmatic competence.

1.4. Sociolinguistic competence

UZBEK VIGNETTE

One day a head of the English Language department attended a class conducted by one of the best CLT teachers at the Uzbekistan State University of World Languages. The head was particularly interested in the types of CLT activities that this teacher (she) employs to teach

sociolinguistic competence. The teacher's class was exceptionally interesting on that day: at the beginning of the class, the teacher asked the class to write on a sheet of paper how they interpret/understand the concept of love. The students (Ss) wrote the following: Love is...

S1 (she): "...passionate feeling toward someone who steals your peace days and nights";

S2 (she): "...addiction. Sacrifice your life for the sake the sake of others";

S3 (she): "...quicksilver";

S4 (she): "...understanding each other all your life";

S5 (he): "...emotion which comes of knowledge and understanding, as knowledge changeable, feeling changeable as well";

S6 (she): "...mutual understanding, respect, sympathy";

S7 (he): "...the attitude towards somebody who feels appealing";

S8 (she): "...abstract feeling. We have many kinds of love: to motherland, to children, to a family".

After this, the teacher asked the class to look in the dictionary and find out the meanings of "love". The class found the following dictionary meanings of love: (i) "a strong feeling of deep affection for sb/sth, especially a member of your family or a friend"; (ii) "a strong feeling of affection for sb that you are sexually attracted to"; (iii) "the strong feeling of enjoyment that sth gives you"; (iv) "a person, a thing or an activity that you like very much" (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 9th edition, 2015). The head was surprised why these differences between the dictionary meanings and the students' interpretations happened.

REFLECTION

Think about the situation above. Why was there a difference between the dictionary meaning of love and the students' interpretation of love? What social factors facilitated the emergence of these differences? What do you think was the next activity the teacher did with the class to proceed further?

ACTION

Please write a one-page response to the following inquiry: How can human communication and interpretations be affected by non-linguistic factors? Use evidence from your life to provide your rationale and justification on the relationship between language and culture.

1.5. Strategic competence

UZBEK VIGNETTE

One day a student who was majoring in English came to his language teacher at the university and explained a strange situation that had happened to him while he was talking to a foreigner who was visiting Uzbekistan from the United States. The foreigner did not speak Uzbek or Russian but only English and he was interested in Uzbekistan's national food. The student explained that he could not accurately and fluently talk about the famous Uzbek national food plov (i.e., what ingredients it contains and how to cook it). The student said that he felt shameful because he did not represent his country well. The student said he lacked vocabulary; he also said he was accompanied by fear that grammatically incorrect sentences were considered unacceptable (as he was taught). He

felt embarrassed. After listening to the student, the teacher thought for a while and was not sure about how to support the student in this situation.

REFLECTION

Think about the situation above. What kind of communication strategies would you tell the student he could have used to communicate with the foreigner in a more effective way?

ACTION

Please write a one-page response to the following inquiry: how can human communication be successful, even if deficiencies connected with linguistic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic competencies arise? Use evidence from your life to provide your rationale and justification on overcoming such deficiencies.

SUMMARY

Strategic competence needs to be taught in foreign language teaching classes as it enhances students' ability to overcome uneasy situations that a speaker comes across in real life situations while talking to foreigners.

THEME 5. Analysis of opinions expressed by scientists on the topic.

“There are two important dimensions to successful second language learning: what goes inside the classroom and what goes on outside of the classroom”(Richards, 2015, p. 1).

Lead in: Introduction and overview

Objectives: to lead in to the topic and to prepare for the session.

Sociolinguistic competence

Sociolinguistic competence has been an integral part of communicative competence in that it includes learning pragmatic and sociolinguistic knowledge about how to use language linguistically and socially appropriately. However, a number of studies highlight the lack of such communicative skills among EFL learners regardless of their proficiency level of linguistic knowledge. More specially, learners may not be able to develop socio-pragmatic knowledge of language as much as grammatical knowledge of the language being learnt. Informed by this critical inconsistency and learning challenge, this study reports the perceptions of English teachers about the development of sociolinguistic competence in language classrooms. The purpose is to explore their perceptions about learners' as well as the non-native EFL teachers' knowledge of sociolinguistic competence along with any difficulty they may face with the integration of this particular competence in their classroom practice. Both native (n=35) and non-native (n=35) English teachers were administered a questionnaire and were asked to submit written reports revealing their perceptions underpinning the knowledge and practice of sociolinguistic competence as part of communicative competence. The results revealed that the development of sociolinguistic rules can guide learners in the choice of appropriate forms which should be closely integrated in language teaching and learning curricula.

Introduction

In today's increasingly globalized world, the ability to express oneself in a second or foreign language has become a vital skill (Mizne, 2007). An L2 speaker is considered fluent if he or she is able to use the language in a range of situational contexts such as talking in a formal meeting, or making telephone calls. However, no matter how long the L2 language learner is exposed to the target language, he or she might still have difficulty in expressing that language to a native speaker in different

social settings. In other words, the language learner may produce a perfectly grammatical utterance that the listener can understand, but he or she may not know how to convey the social meaning communicated in the target context. The inconsistency between the language teaching methodologies and the specific needs for language use in the real world has become more distinctive than ever. Kramsch (2014) highlights this tension:

“...there has never been a greater tension between what is taught in the classroom and what the students will need in the real world once they have left the classroom. In the last decades, that world has changed to such an extent that language teachers are no longer sure of what they are supposed to teach nor what real world situations they are supposed to prepare their students for.”

The lack of promoting sociolinguistic competence in foreign language learners becomes more evident when they start to use English for actual communication in real life as is also stressed by Kramsch. In the past, students used to learn English as part of curriculum and mainly for passing the tests to be able to graduate. However, today most of them need to learn another language for using it actively as a result of increasing needs. This changing need should be carefully analyzed and integrated into the curriculum and classroom practices through the teachers who serve as the agent of change and development. Kramsch (2014) also connects the lack of skills to use language in the real worlds to the expectations from the teachers, who are supposed to teach and carry students to a particular level of proficiency. She implies that classroom teaching practices are controlled by the impositions at macro level decisions. They are also supposed to cover the language teaching materials in line with the curricula and syllabuses provided for them to follow.

It is evident that teaching how to use language in classroom setting is not a simple task that could be changed readily. Learning a second/foreign language is a holistic process that requires not just the mastery of structural, discoursal, and

strategic rules but also, learners have to internalize sociolinguistic rules to assist them in the choice of appropriate forms (Yu, 2006). This study, therefore, aims to highlight these issues by investigating native and nonnative English teachers' perceptions of the knowledge and practice of sociolinguistic competence as part of communicative competence in language classrooms. Based on the data obtained through a questionnaire and written reports, the present research examines and discusses the crucial points English teachers should be aware of while teaching this particular competence in their classroom.

It is evident that teaching how to use language in classroom setting is not a simple task that could be changed readily. Learning a second/foreign language is a holistic process that requires not just the mastery of structural, discursal, and strategic rules but also, learners have to internalize sociolinguistic rules to assist them in the choice of appropriate forms (Yu, 2006). This study, therefore, aims to highlight these issues by investigating native and nonnative English teachers' perceptions of the knowledge and practice of sociolinguistic competence as part of communicative competence in language classrooms. Based on the data obtained through a questionnaire and written reports, the present research examines and discusses the crucial points English teachers should be aware of while teaching this particular competence in their classroom.

Communicative Competence The term "competence" is derived from the concept of "performance" firstly proposed by Chomsky in the 1960s. The former is the linguistic knowledge of the idealized native speaker, an innate biological function of the mind that allows the speaker to generate the indefinite set of grammatical sentences that constitutes the target language whilst the latter is the actual use of language in concrete situations. However, according to Campbell and Wales (1970), Chomsky's competence omitted the linguistic ability referring to the production or use of utterances which are grammatically incorrect, but appropriate to the context or

the situational and verbal context of the utterance. In a similar fashion, Hymes (1972) emphasized that in addition to the linguistic competence, the language user has another intuitive system in which the rules of grammar would be useless. That is, he or she can adjust his or her language Teaching and Learning Sociolinguistic Competence ... E. Mede & K. Dikilitaş Participatory Educational Research (PER) - 16- use based on the factors as the topic, situation and human relations. Based on his argument, he proposes the concept of “communicative competence” which includes both linguistic competence and implicit and explicit knowledge, both the rules of grammar and contextual or sociolinguistic knowledge of the rules of language use in contexts. To put it simply, Hymes states that communicative competence involves the following: what is formally possible, what is feasible, what is the social meaning or value of a given utterance, and what actually occurs.

After Hymes, the concept of communicative competence continued to develop. Canale and Swain (1980) defined communicative competence in the context of second language teaching as a synthesis of knowledge of basic grammatical principles, knowledge of how language is used in social settings to perform communicative functions, and knowledge of how utterances and communicative functions can be combined according to the principles of discourse. Based on their view, communicative competence comprises four areas of knowledge and skills. These are grammatical competence (also called linguistic competence) or the acquisition of phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic rules. In other words, it is the mastery of the language code itself. The next one is the sociolinguistic competence which refers to the learning of pragmatic aspects of various speech acts such as the cultural values, norms and other socio-cultural conventions in social contexts. Specifically, the styles and registers of speech are influenced by the topic of discourse, the social status, gender and age of the participants. Another area of knowledge of rules is the discourse competence which stresses the importance of the mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve unified

written text in different genres such as narratives, argumentative essays, academic papers etc. Basically, this type of competence is related to the cohesion (grammatical links) and coherence (appropriate combination of communicative functions) in a variety of discourse. Finally, strategic competence is the mastery of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies to compensate for communication breakdowns (e.g. activating background knowledge, contextual guessing etc.) due to limiting conditions or insufficient competence and to enhance the effectiveness of communication.

The specific ability to use L2 in various ways that may fit in various social settings in which the communication takes place is called sociolinguistic competence, and without this ability, even the most perfectly grammatical utterances can convey a meaning entirely different from what the speaker intended because there are several factors that are to be considered when communicating in L2 such as age, gender, status of the participants and the formality of the setting. Specifically, sociolinguistic competence can be generally divided into two areas. One is appropriateness of form, that is, pragma-linguistics, which signals “the particular resources that a given language provides for conveying particular illocutions” (Leech, 1983, p. 11); the other is appropriateness of meaning, that is, socio-pragmatics, which defines the ways in which pragmatic performance is subject to specific sociocultural conventions and values (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993). For non-native speakers, the misunderstandings they come across in the cross-cultural realization of communicative acts generally arise from their failure in appropriate use of pragma-linguistic and socio-pragmatic competence (Yu, 2006).

In addition, Ya (2008) argues that one of the factors that make sociolinguistic competence so hard to acquire is the variance in cultural rules of speaking as well as the social, cultural and pragmatic elements that inherently exist in that competence. To put it differently, what is appropriate in one cultural situation might be entirely

inappropriate in another one. The language learner often cannot differentiate between the rules of speaking of his or her native context and those of the target context.

These rules of speaking can be gradually acquired when the learner is immersed in the target culture. This is a time consuming process though. As for the second or foreign language context, raising learners' awareness about the rules of speaking might help them acquire these skills more efficiently and in less time (Mizne, 1997).

It is clear that sociolinguistic competence is a multifaceted and multi-layered one that requires knowing how speakers of a language use it to communicate in a way that will not bother one another. Such social, cultural and pragmatic aspects would be hard to acquire without being integrated into the culture, however, it is not impossible. Access to books, listening materials, videos and any materials that reflect the culture of the target language community is available. There are also more opportunities available that enable people from different cultures and countries to come together whether face-to-face or online. However, how these resources are brought together and how they are implemented and made use of by language teachers in the classrooms are the key issues in the teaching of sociolinguistic competence. This leads to the question of how second or foreign language teachers can develop the sociolinguistic competence of their learners? As Mizne (*ibid.*) discusses, one of the problematic areas about this issue is that both culture and sociolinguistic features are difficult to teach particularly when the learners are not yet competent in the second or foreign language. Another problem is that these cultural and sociolinguistic aspects of a language are unconsciously ingrained within the learner, which makes it hard for the teachers to integrate them in the language classrooms. Finally, the cultural elements of a language are generally introduced as an add-on topic through textbooks or supplementary materials, while sociolinguistic features are left for the language learner to learn on his or her own through experience (Mizne, *ibid.*). In other words, there are not enough materials designed and developed to introduce the cultural and

the sociolinguistic aspects of the target language in classrooms. Even if there are, the human resources who should use them in the classroom seem to be lacking. The present study will also elaborate this factor on the basis of the data collected from teachers themselves.

Based on the discussion above, it is obvious that Canale and Swain's (1980) framework attempts to highlight the kinds of knowledge and skills that a second language learner needs to be taught. From this perspective, the development of the theoretical basis for a communicative approach in the second language teaching will depend on an understanding of the nature of human communication.

Teaching Sociolinguistic Competence

There are two basic ways of introducing and teaching sociolinguistic competence. One of them is resorting to cultural models where students are explicitly or implicitly taught cultural elements ingrained in language use and/or integrating speech acts as situations where learners are forced to use language in consideration of socio-pragmatic factors such as social statuses of the hearer, the degree of imposition, or the content of the request. Classroom environment may not be an appropriate context where sociolinguistic competence can be developed due to several reasons unique to any learning experience in an EFL context such as non-authenticity of the content of the materials. For example, Izumi (1996) highlights that in developing sociolinguistic knowledge, most non-native speakers (NNS) who teach English experience challenges such as their own lack of knowledge, the existing curriculum requirements, the various teaching goals, student motivation, and evaluation procedures. These factors play a critical role in the process of learning how to use language in an appropriate way because the major concentration of most EFL learners is devoted to learning what the rules of language are and how they can produce grammatical sentences rather than Teaching and Learning Sociolinguistic Competence ... E. Mede & K. Dikilitaş Participatory Educational Research (PER) -

18- how they can produce appropriate sentences that fit the specific social context. For example, whatever the proficiency level of EFL learners is, there is usually room for development in their socio-pragmatic use of language because Bardovi and Harlig (1996) claim that proficiency does not improve concomitantly with the ability to use foreign language appropriately by operationalizing their sociolinguistic competence. Izumi (1996) concludes that for all the challenges in learning and teaching of sociolinguistic competence, it is possible to help students to promote and acquire this competence by raising their awareness in the rules of sociolinguistic use of language as argued by Ellis (1991).

Omaggio (2001) highlights three main reasons why sociolinguistic competence is not often treated as a topic in its own right and as an indispensable aspect of language teaching:

- a) Language teachers often think that they do not have time for sociocultural teaching due to time constraints in their curriculum.
- b) Teachers may not have enough confidence in believing that they can teach sociocultural aspect of foreign language learning well.
- c) The teaching of sociocultural competence often involves dealing with student attitudes which teachers usually find very challenging when trying to guide their students to understand and appreciate the logic and meaning of the target culture.

Similarly, Ya (2008) reports lack of context where students use language communicatively, but suggests that as most of foreign language learning occurs in the classroom setting, providing opportunities to use authentic and natural language seems to be difficult to achieve. Ya (ibid.) discusses several sources which impede learning and teaching of sociolinguistic competence. Among them is transfer from L1, which involves transferring of L1 sociocultural patterns into the L2 sociolinguistic rules of language use, often due to the limited knowledge of sociolinguistic

competence of L2. One of the reasons for such limitation is that, as Holmes and Brown (1987) argue, explicit teaching of discrete grammatical rules, segmental level of pronunciation, and lexical items seem easier, during which sociocultural aspects of communicative competence are thought to be incidentally acquired. However, this is a problematic claim because knowing rules of language along with how to pronounce individual words and what they mean may not necessarily ensure knowing the sociolinguistic contexts in which they might be used. The knowledge about sociolinguistic values of linguistic forms is constructed on the basis of the social context and cultural environments where language is naturally used. The functions and socio-pragmatic values of forms are attached to them in actual communication. From a pedagogical perspective, the situation seems complex for the teachers who are expected to help students promote communicative competence in the classroom setting, which can be developed by close interaction with native speakers. This also leads to a critical debate which is devoted to the teachers' own sociolinguistic competence because to be able to effectively teach sociolinguistic competence, teachers need to have knowledge and practice of this competence to an extent that they can help students develop it. However, having come from the same educational system which lacked proper instruction on improving learners' sociolinguistic competence, most teachers either neglect teaching what they themselves feel weak or teach this competence with an ineffective mode of instruction. This issue of teachers' own lack of sociolinguistic competence needs to be addressed adequately. This can only be achieved with a proper planning of teaching this competence to teachers or offering them opportunities where they interact with native speakers of English to foster a critical understanding of English culture and relevant language use. The reported problems can also be achieved by changing the curriculum and syllabuses followed in a way that supports the teaching of this competence. The findings from qualitative data will also address the factors that are claimed to pose challenges to the development of sociolinguistic competence in learners.

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THEME 6: The role of the national standard in the organization of the lesson. Principles of creating a portfolio, evaluating according to the CEFR system, and developing tests.

Keywords: formative and summative assessment; testing; assessment, evaluation; diagnostic assessment; self and peer-assessment.

Assessment is an inseparable part of teaching, influencing the decisions teachers make, the actions they take, and the suggestions they offer for student learning. Classroom assessment, specifically, refers to methods and procedures used by the language teacher for gathering, analysing, interpreting and using information about student's language abilities for decision making purposes. The terms often identified in the language assessment and testing literature to refer to assessment of students are formative and summative assessment. In this section, we focus on formative assessment or what is inaccurately – and more recently – identified as

Assessment for Learning (AfL). AfL is about assessments, both formal and informal, which provide information for teachers and students to identify the next steps for learning.

Think about the following:

- 1) How do student assessment results influence the way we teach, design syllabi, and/or approach the language classroom context?
- 2) Should we involve students in the language testing and assessment process; if so, how?

UZBEK VIGNETTES

An English language teacher at a prestigious ‘foreign language university’ discussed assessment at her university. She explained the following: “I have observed that some teachers diagnose their student’s language levels at the beginning of the course and some do not. One teacher explained the course she teaches does not need to be diagnosed as the content is new and therefore she simply begins by providing the planned input. My other colleague insists on checking students’ language level (e.g., knowledge and skills) before providing any instructions. However, she struggles with choosing proper ways to learn about the student’s abilities.”

REFLECTION

Think about the case above. Are the issues raised in it familiar to you in your teaching context? How important is assessing students before a course begins? How do you think a teacher could gather information about students?

KEY CONCEPTS

There are eight key concepts in this section: testing; assessment; evaluation; Assessment for-Learning; diagnostic assessment; peer-assessment; self-assessment; and continuous assessment. We will briefly explain each one below.

Testing, Assessment, Evaluation. Before learning about any concepts in the field of language assessment and testing, a teacher should be cognizant of the differences among testing, assessment, and evaluation in order to use each in the right place in the right time. There are three popular terms in the literature that are sometimes misunderstood and used interchangeably. They are testing, assessment, and evaluation. However, each of these terms has a different meaning, scope, and function. A test is a specific technique for gathering information about students' knowledge or abilities while assessment is a broader process involving various ways of collecting data including the use of tests. Therefore, a test is a part and a means of assessment; it serves as a tool in this process. Evaluation, in its turn, is the broadest concept out of the three, which encompasses both assessment and a test. It looks at the whole picture of teaching context and functions to make decisions based on the obtained evidence regarding the whole educational setting.

Assessment for learning: Why? How? When? Imagine a doctor and a patient situation: a doctor cannot start treating a patient until one does not learn about the background and the current health condition of the patient. Based on a diagnosis, the doctor then can decide what to start from and how to treat the patient. A doctor gathers information about his/her patient in order to make decisions for treating an illness. In the same manner teachers first need to gather information about their students before commencing the learning process. Those teachers who immediately provide instructions may not be aware of learners' background knowledge and the strengths and weaknesses of their students, which could have an effect on what is taught. This is called Assessment for Learning. From its name, we can see that Assessment for Learning or more widely known as formative assessment is used with

the intention to form knowledge, skills and competencies to develop further (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010) and reach expected results. Information gathered through any assessment, even summative can be used formatively, thus determining what has been achieved, what needs more attention and how to remediate a certain issue. The effective implementation of Assessment for Learning depends on teachers' knowledge of its principles and techniques. It is important to consider the aim for a certain formative assessment instrument (what information is needed), the way in which the assessment is administered (what method is used) and finally actions to be taken afterwards (how the gathered information is then used to make changes in teaching and learning). Unfortunately, teachers tend to look at the students' results obtained at formal assessment period, however, every day of classroom communication is a source for teachers to make their decisions how to teach, where to remediate, and when to act on the issues identified.

Diagnostic assessment – is an act of gathering information which helps teachers identify learners' strengths and weaknesses with regards to course content (i.e., skills and knowledge) and is tied directly to the course syllabus. Diagnostic assessments are often used before teaching commences. Using diagnostic assessments can support a teacher's decisions about the content that will be taught as well as the approach of assessing that content. The focus of diagnosis is most important. For example, if you teach how to speak English during an interview, then, you should assess student's abilities during a spoken interview. If the student writes a paragraph about themselves, then, you are measuring a different construct than the oral interview – although the 'topic' might be similar. Diagnostic assessments need to match what is expected to be taught in the course syllabus. Thus, they can provide valuable data about what should be given more attention and what students already know, thus helping teachers to use class time efficiently. Gathering information about students can help teachers to modify the way in which they teach, influence the decisions made and prevent from the wrong focus and waste of time. At the same time, it is important

that teachers are aware of what they need to look for when diagnosing and most importantly what to do with the data collected. Teachers should be able to communicate the results to students, administration and other stakeholders in the appropriate way, targeting improvement.

Self and Peer-assessment. One of the ways to involve students in assessment is using peer-assessment. Students can develop their own understanding of how to measure one's or others' knowledge. In other words, they become active participants of an assessment process and learn what they need to take into account when assessing themselves or their peers. For example, you might provide them with a set of questions and by answering students can realize where they are in their learning; what they know and what they need to learn more about. Then, at the end of the course you can provide the same measurement tool and learners can compare what they knew before and after the course. For example, below is a traditional assessment tool that a teacher can use before and after a course. Dr. Kathleen M. Bailey from the Middlebury Institute of

International Studies at Monterey used this self-assessment mechanism for her course on

Language Assessment and Testing:

LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT AND TESTING SELF-ASSESSMENT

Name: _____ Date: _____

Directions: Complete each of the following items by marking a "T" for True or an "F" for False.

_____ I understand and can explain the difference between direct, indirect, and semi direct tests.

_____ I understand and can explain the difference between norm-referenced and

criterion-referenced tests

_____ I understand and can explain the difference between analytic, holistic, primary trait and objective scoring of writing (and speaking)...

She provided students with all the topics of the course and the learners marked T (true) or F (false) if they are (or not) able to understand and can explain the statements.

Then, at the end of the course Dr. Bailey provided the same handout to students and they re-filled it in. She then distributed the student's first comments with their last comments so that they can see if they grew in knowledge and skills during study.

In addition to self-assessments, you could also provide learners criteria to help them assess their colleague's work (i.e., peer-assessments). In the same way, students can look at each other's written works and/or observe them speaking and mark the performances by following the procedures set by a teacher. For example, if you teach a speaking class that focuses on giving speeches, you can provide a peer-assessment tool that could support the conclusion of a speech.

PEER-ASSESSMENT FOR SPEECHES, CONCLUSION

Speaker's Name: _____

1.) Does the author (speaker) signal the end of the speech?

2.) Is the central idea reinforced by one of the following:

Summarizing the main points; ending with a quotation; making a dramatic statement; or referring to the introduction?

3.) Is the conclusion limited to 5-10 percent of the entire speech?

4.) Has the author worked on the language of the conclusion in detail?

- 1.) What are the positive qualities of the conclusion?
- 2.) What suggestions do you have for the author?

By including peer-assessments, teachers support inclusive education, which enhances students' involvement and role in classroom assessment. Therefore, the two (i.e., self and peer-assessments) are important constituents in Assessment for Learning.

Continuous Assessment (CA) – involves a procedure of collecting evidence about students' knowledge and achievements throughout the course which then results in one final score at the end. CA is different from a final achievement test. The final test reflects student performance only at the end of the course under certain constrained conditions. One important features of continuous assessment is a form of assessment is that it allows teachers track the progress of students over a period. Another strong quality is that CA results are generated based on various instances, tasks, and activities allowing both teachers and students to check and recheck strengths and weaknesses. There are two ways of approaching continuous assessment in Uzbekistan: accumulation of scores to reach the final top and deduction of average results based on all the obtained scores. Teachers have an opportunity to choose which of the assessment instances will be recorded and which will not be; this choice can even be decided upon mutually, among teachers and students. When students are involved in the process, assessment can become less intimidating, as they know that they have numerous chances to improve their scores.

ACTION

(1) Please discuss the approaches to gather information described above by answering the following question: How do you think the approaches can support teaching and learning in your class?

(2) Also, using your own teaching syllabus, think of the ways you can gather information about your students. Explain to a colleague how you can use this information?

SUMMARY

Assessment for Learning provides opportunities for both teachers and students to form their further path in learning. Used purposefully and proactively, Assessment for Learning can bring about significant changes to all stakeholders involved in the assessments. It is important to remember that assessment never ceases; it exists in everything a teacher does; in other words, anything that is done before and during class sections can provide valuable information to a teacher to act upon.

HOMEWORK TASK ELEVEN

Based on what you have learned in this section, develop or choose an available diagnostic assessment tool that will measure the concepts you want to teach in the lesson plan that you chose in Homework Task. Thus, explain the brief diagnostic assessment you will use to measure the constructs BEFORE the class. Finally, explain how you will use the information to make informed decisions about your lesson plan (2 pages total).

2. PRACTICAL: ASSESSMENT FOR LEARNING: USING GATHERED DATA

Plan:

1. How to use gathered data to make changes to lesson plans, teaching materials, and syllabus;
2. How to incorporate dynamic assessment into teaching practice;
3. How to adjust teaching instructions based on the obtained data about students;
4. Difference between the features of feedback and feedforward.

Keywords: Using collected Data; Dynamic Assessment; Feedback; and Feedforward.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Data about student's language abilities collected either prior to or during the teaching process can inform a teacher about further actions to be taken in his or her classes. How such data are used depends on the teacher's intention and focus. Sometimes, understanding student's language skills happens in interaction – either in the oral or written form – between a student and teacher. Thus, understanding how teacher's feedback plays a role in the student's learning process is also a very important area for language teachers to consider. Teacher feedback plays a significant role in Assessment for Learning and has been identified in the literature as feedforward – feedforward is anticipatory in that it provides students with focused information that they can use in the next steps of the task, for future learning, or for specific outcomes (Hattie & Timperley, 2017). Bourke and Mentis (2013) argue that feedforward is an approach that “all students benefit from” (p. 857).

Think about the following:

1) What different types of data can you gather about student's language abilities?

(Reflect on Section 3.1) and what kinds of decisions can you make after you collect that information?

2) How can student assessment results influence the way we teach? Please be as specific as you can.

3) How should feedback be delivered by a teacher to help students progress further?

UZBEK VIGNETTE

Case 1

At the beginning of every academic year we receive a new cohort and the first thing we want to know is their level. Administrations often ask the departments to test the students. The students are tested and classes start. However, what happens after? Well, after this assessment, there is nothing. These test results are stored to serve no use. Both curriculum and syllabus are predetermined. The textbooks and teaching materials are prepared with accordance to set standards and regulations. All the decisions are made top -down.

Case 2

I teach writing skills. The main challenge in my practice is that my students do not seem to progress as they repeat the same mistakes. I feel frustrated every time I have to tell them the same rules and advice. I check their essays and nothing changes, they seem to keep making these mistakes. I always try to teach them using the syllabus and the teaching materials that have been approved by my department. But I feel there should be a way to address my problem of student recurring issues, there must be a solution...

REFLECTION

Think about the cases above. What are the ways the gathered data can inform a teacher about learners? How can assessment data be used to benefit teaching process? Have you ever had an experience of using assessment results for making changes in your syllabus, teaching materials, or the way you teach?

KEY CONCEPTS

There are four key concepts in this section: Using collected Data; Dynamic Assessment;

Feedback; and Feedforward. We will briefly explain each one below.

Using Collected Data. A relatively new concept for the Uzbek EFL context is teaching and learning based on the data collected about students. It is called data-driven learning. Data-driven learning allows teachers to address students' immediate needs and remediate the issues they have. We frequently just rely on our assumptions in our choices of input. But can we really be sure what our students need without collecting the required information about their current state of knowledge.

Gathered data can inform language teachers about:

- the current state of students' knowledge and skills
- aspects that need to be given more attention to during class and/or after
- aspects that can be given less attention during class
- additional input that is required to remediate the identified lack of knowledge or skill
- sequence of the teaching input (i.e., you might want to change the teaching process)
- corrections to lesson plans
- changes should be made to the curriculum, syllabus and teaching materials (e.g., this information can be discussed with the members of your department.)

Reliable data about students are not the results of one test only; teachers are to collect their data continuously to check whether they are right about certain conclusions they have drawn. This approach in English as a Foreign Language pedagogy relies on the use of collection of computer readable texts which is called

corpus. For example, many students' essays can be gathered to learn about the most common issues in learners' writing. This information can then be a foundation for you to create teaching materials, modify your teaching approaches, and make plans in the teaching content and focus. Dynamic Assessment. One of popular forms of Assessment for Learning is Dynamic Assessment. It is quite new for the Uzbek context but very widespread around the world. The most useful feature of dynamic assessment allows a teacher to observe changes happening during the process of assessment because of his/her influence on student performance. Dynamic Assessment relies on interaction between an assessor and a student and is based on principles from Vygotsky's sociocultural theory. According to theory, students can perform at a certain level at a test; however, given support they can reach their highest potential within the zone of proximal development (ZPD)– “the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). This quotation from Vygotsky emphasizes how an expert or someone more capable is needed to help someone learn. This happens as a result of interaction between a teacher and a student. Dynamic assessment is different from psychometric tests (i.e., tests that produce a numerical score at the end) for example, a multiple-choice test, which allows observing students' performance in one instance only. In contrast, by the help of dynamic assessment, we cannot see whether this student can perform better if more support is provided or conditions are changed. Dynamic assessment in this regard is more flexible while psychometric is static. As the interaction continuous, the assessor can see some features and skills, which were not initially demonstrated, emerging. As a teacher, you can use dynamic assessment to scaffold your students in the process of learning. For example, you can give them a speaking task and as each student responds, you try to notice what a student already knows and where he or she has difficulties. However, you do not stop at the point of identifying an issue you keep the

conversation going to see how further you can take the student by clarifying what he or she has said and extending the opportunities to arrive at better performance than initially. It's always useful to know how far your students can go. This can influence planning the further lessons and teaching materials, as you already learn about their potential. Feedback and Feedforward. One of the key constituents in data collection is providing valuable feedback. Both written and oral feedback can be useful input for students to work on their weaknesses. It is important that feedback is timely (so that students can act on it to make changes during the learning process), clear (so that students understand and feel confident about actions to be taken) and future -oriented (so that students feel that the efforts that they are going to make are meaningful for and influential on their academic success) Thus, teacher's role in this process is not only indicating the problem but also suggesting ways to overcome and address the identified problem. In the literature this is called feedforward i.e. advice and instructions from a teacher to students for further improvement. Feedforward might be dependent on not only how comments are written but also on what students do with them.

ACTION

Think how you can use the results of assessments (classroom, midterm, etc.) to make changes in your teaching. Describe the challenges that you might face? Then write an action plan focusing on the followings:

- describe an assessment tool used to gather data about students (what the task or activity involves)
- explain how can the gathered information be used by you to make changes
- speculate on possible issues that might arise in this process based on your experience in your teaching context

□ provide some plausible ways of addressing these issues and making the implementation of data effective and useful

SUMMARY

Using assessment data is central to evidence-based discovery of issues. If teachers want to see improvements in the way they teach as well as the way students learn, they need to be conscious of immediate data that they have at hand. One of the primary measures taken in response to identified issues is feedback, which should aim forward to make an impact on students' skills and knowledge enhancement. Therefore, to make this impact even stronger, assessment forms such as dynamic assessment are critical at both identifying issues, digging for more evidence as the assessment process goes on and finally remediating them.

HOMEWORK TASK TWELVE

Please refer to the Diagnostic Assessment Tool you chose for Homework Task Eleven. In a page, please explain how you will use the information you learn to make informed decisions about your lesson plan DURING the lesson. For instance, are there key areas you are interested in that might cause some confusion for your students?

Theme 7: Ability to correctly define educational goals and expected results, evaluate, independently organize an evaluation mechanism based on feedback.

“...The work of the educator is to align students' experience with what is to be learnt as a developmental journey ...” (Leung & Scarino, 2016, p. 89).

“...If we use the analogy of a journey, the destination is the goal; the journey is the course [lesson], the objectives are the different points you pass through on the journey to the destination” (Graves, 2000, p. 75).

This section addresses the concepts of goals and objectives and how to formulate them.

By the end of this section, you will be able to...

- A) differentiate between goals and objectives;
- B) reflect on challenges you face in the development of lesson goals and objectives; and
- C) apply principles of writing goals/objectives to the development of your lesson plan.

Lead in: Introduction and overview

Objectives: define the difference between goals and objectives

Time: 10 min.

Answer the following questions:

- 1) What is a goal of a lesson?
- 2) How do you understand objectives of a lesson?
- 3) How many goals and objectives are appropriate for one 80-minute lesson?
- 4) In your opinion, what are the benefits, if any, in developing goals and objectives?

Activity 1. Reflection on the vignette

Objectives: to analyze the vignette and reflect on it.

Time: 20 min

Handout 1

Handout #1

UZBEK VIGNETTE

An EFL university teacher in Tashkent explained that, “As a part of one project I was required to observe lessons of EFL teachers in different universities in Tashkent. After the observations, I asked the same question to each teacher: “What was the goal – or goals – of your lesson?” Teachers respond to the inquiry with a list of activities that they conducted during the lesson.

REFLECTION

What problem is illustrated in the case above?

Activity 2. Learning key concepts of goals and objectives

Objectives: to raise student awareness on main key concepts of goals and objectives

Time: 20 min.

Handout 2.

Handout # 2

The end goal of language teaching used to be based on a native speaker model (i.e., speaking like a native speaker); however, research in second language acquisition (SLA) studies have shown that this conceptualization is not feasible (or not necessary) for most language learners. Cook (2013) explained that “until the 1990s, it was taken for granted that the purpose of teaching was to get students as near as possible to native speakers since the only valid model of language was the knowledge and behaviour of native speakers” (p. 49). However, with the introduction of the CEFR (as explained in Chapter 1), language teaching professionals have moved

away from a focus of supporting students to achieve native-like levels to achieving communicative competence (i.e., being able to communicate). There are two major key concept areas we would like to address in this section: (1) writing goals and objectives; and (2) backwards design. We explain them in detail below.

Writing Goals and Objectives. EFL teachers in Uzbekistan have been taught different ways to write goals and objectives. One way Uzbek language teachers have learned to write is through the Soviet system of education, in which each lesson has four goals: practical, educational, developing, and upbringing aims. However, we argue for a new way to write goals and objectives based on empirical research from SLA and research on learning: Cognitive (what students will know), performance (what students will do), and affective (how students will feel). The tripartite goals are rooted in learning as a thinking, doing, and feeling activity, because there is an implicit link between cognition and emotion to mediate the interpsychological/intrapsychological (Johnson & Golombek, 2016), because the choice is not whether to feel or not, since emotions are inevitably present in any teaching and learning event. “It is this affective volitional dimension of thought – especially emotions – that Vygotsky (1986) considered as the last ‘why’ in the analysis of thinking” (Golombek & Doran, 2014, p. 104).

Here is an example:

By the end of the lesson, students will be able to:

(Cognitive): know 4 vocabulary words: college, university, undergraduate, and graduate

(Performance): write 4 sentences that correctly uses each of these words in context

(Affective): feel confident and motivated to use the four vocabulary words with their

peers.

Cognitive, performance, and affective are GOALS of a lesson.

The OBJECTIVES of a goal are the steps that a student will need to do to achieve a goal. Objectives are the fine details that you may put into your lesson plan. For instance, let us go back to the cognitive, performance, and affective GOALS above:

By the end of the lesson, students will be able to:

(Cognitive): know 4 vocabulary words: college, university, undergraduate, and graduate

- a) Listen to the teacher explain the denotation and connotation of the four words; and
- b) Explain to a partner the meaning of the words

(Performance): write 4 sentences that *correctly* use each of these words in context

- a) Compose four sentences that use each of the four vocabulary words;
- b) Switch with a partner and the partner checks each sentence;
- c) The original author of the sentences corrects feedback.

(Affective): feel confident and motivated to use the four vocabulary words with their peers.

- a) Student fill out a daily journal about how he/she feels

One way to write a clear set of cognitive, performance, and affective goals is to have the END GOAL figured out and then, work your way backwards in the lesson. This strategy is just one suggestion of many.

According to Richards (2001), objectives have the following three characteristics: precise, feasible, and they describe a learning outcome. Objectives are more specific steps the learners will do to achieve the goal, but they must be realistic and measurable. We have discussed how to develop goals for a lesson and now we will speak about developing goals for a course using backwards design.

Backwards Design. Goals are not the same as standards (as explained in 5.1). Often standards are not appropriate for learners and thus, become unrealistic and unachievable. To solve this problem, we may use another way of setting the goals for our learners – what we want to have at the end of a course. Then, go backwards from that point. This design, or template, is called Backwards Design.

Backwards Design consists of three stages: 1) identifying desired results; 2) determining acceptable evidence; and 3) planning learning experiences and instructions (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). Following this procedure, we set achievable goals appropriate for our learners and then plan the lesson (or a course) accordingly, thinking what steps we need to take (objectives) to achieve our goals.

Activity 3. Writing goals and objectives

Objectives: to teach students to write the goals and objectives

Time: 30 min.

Handout 3.

- Ask the teachers to work in groups and tell them to write goals and objectives, after share their answers with other groups.

Handout # 3

TASK

Imagine you were invited to teach English to twenty teenagers at the Language Center who range from elementary to pre-intermediate level. They need English to apply to international universities. You have six months to prepare them. Write the goals and objectives for this course; or, write the goals and objectives

for your class of students that you teach at the university using Backwards Design.

SUMMARY

Foreign/second language teaching must have clear goals and objectives; otherwise, a teacher will not be able to lead the learners to a measurable result. A metaphor often associated with goals and objectives is a road map: a road map because it supports both students and teachers in the teaching and learning of languages.

HOMEWORK TASK SIXTEEN

Write clearly (and finalize) the cognitive, performance, and affective goals and the objectives for your lesson for Homework Task One. Make sure each goal is MEASURABLE – you can justify with data that learning has happened.

RESOURCES

<https://youtu.be/aOnN1iVGMO4> - SMART goals

https://youtu.be/nq0Ou1li_p0 - using Bloom's Taxonomy to write objectives

https://youtu.be/g_Xm5IljYKQ - goals, objectives and learning outcomes for designing a course

<https://youtu.be/82Ph6r7Gobk> - writing effective learning outcomes and objectives

https://youtu.be/_woMKwBxhwU – creating learning objectives

<https://cft.vanderbilt.edu/guides-sub-pages/understanding-by-design/> - Backwards Design, by Grant Wiggins and Jay McTighe

<https://www.edglossary.org/backward-design/> - Backwards Design, Glossary

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Unit Theme 8: Linguistic aspects of teaching foreign languages based on the requirements of European standards.

“A good lesson plan is a living document. It is not set in stone, but rather it is a guide that keeps you – the classroom practitioner – engaged and thinking about

what you are teaching” (Kriegel, retrieved from, <https://www.pinterest.com/pin/48202658491339333/> on August 18, 2018).

GOALS

By the end of this section, you will be able to...

- A) discuss your level of comfortability with lesson planning and discern advantages and disadvantages of writing one;
- B) learn about three phases of a successful lesson plan: into, through, and beyond; and,
- C) write a draft lesson plan using your own preferred template, and exemplify and discuss the three phases within it appropriately.

Lead in: Introduction and overview

Objectives: to introduce the topic; to prepare for the session

Time: 5 min.

Answer the following questions:

- 1) What is a Lesson Plan?
- 2) Why do we plan our lessons?
- 3) What does a lesson plan contain?

This section introduces you to the overarching framework of a lesson plan that is beneficial for teaching and learning languages: into, through, and beyond.

Think about the following:

- 1) How much autonomy are you comfortable with in terms of lesson planning? Would you prefer a teaching situation in which lesson plans are given to you and you are closely expected to follow them, or would you prefer being handed a textbook and told to write your own daily lesson plans? What are the advantages and disadvantages of each situation?

Activity 1. Discussion time

Objectives: to discuss the pros and cons of having your own lesson plan or ready one

Time: 5 min.

- Ask the teachers to discuss this in pairs.

ACTION

What are the advantages and disadvantages of using a lesson plan that is given to you, and one that you write yourself?

Activity 2. Key concepts

Objectives: to give information on three concepts of lesson plan

Time: 20 min.

Handout 1.

There are three key concepts when designing a lesson plan: into, through, and beyond. As there are many lesson plan templates that are used in Uzbekistan we argue a successful lesson plan will generally have the following three facets:

- **Into:** The opening or initiatory phase of the lesson. This section usually consists of a warm-up or activation task that is meant to ease students into the lesson so that they are comfortable listening, speaking, reading and/or writing in English. Sometimes, language teachers use icebreakers as the opening or initiatory phase.

Icebreakers are fun activities that lighten up the atmosphere of the classroom and are a great way to build a community of students of all ages. However, we do not recommend just doing them to fill up time. We recommend choosing ice-breakers that can help to (1) establish a place where students can take risks in English; (2) can

lead into the topic of the day (see below in II); and/or, (3) can give the teacher insights as an initial needs assessment, into the specific interests of the students, which can help build course content.

Into Example: Spoken English – Debate, Topic: Expressing Opinions: Men vs. Women

INTO ACTIVITY:

This activity gives the students the opportunity to get to know each other better and therefore helps to create a non-threatening environment for speaking and sharing ideas. It also encourages students to think creatively because they must share personal characteristics in an abstract way.

- A.) The teacher shows the students the example... If I were a _____, I would be (a)_____ because _____.
- i.) If I were a body of water, I would be an ocean because an ocean can be very calm, deep, and mysterious, but in a moment's notice it can be raging and dangerous.
 - ii.) Students in their respective teams talk about and share what each of them said.
- B.) The teacher writes in the first subject (food, animal, music, object).
- C.) The teacher writes in the second subject.
- D.) *The teacher writes in the third subject (**man / woman**) – if you are a man you must answer the woman; if you are a woman you must answer the man.*
- i.) Teacher asks for some responses (2 boys and 2 girls) for the last one and writes the names up on the board.
 - ii.) Positive qualities about each gender are written on the board next to the name.

The icebreaker was adapted from: Klippel, F. (1984).

- **Through:** The middle portion(s) of the lesson. There are three basic precepts to the phase of through. First, move from familiar to new, simple to complex, mechanical to unstructured in order to build schema upon existing knowledge

structures. Second, pre-teach necessary metalanguage, lexical items, and forms to reduce anxiety and activate schematic knowledge. Third, explicitly mark transitions between tasks and activities. (Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

Decisions about sequencing of tasks and information: Suggested techniques: a) Present directions carefully and deliberately; b) Model procedures and skills; c) Monitor students' attention and comprehension; d) Provide appropriate feedback; and e) Supply abundant transitional cues.

V. KEYSLAR BANKI

Case 1: Over Their Heads

Designing and adapting materials and teaching English for specific purposes by Richard Watson Todd

Kim had been working at a private language school in a small town in Spain for nearly 18 months now, and planned to continue for another six months before she went back to the UK to look for something more permanent. The school, like the town, was small, and nearly all the courses were for adolescents. Although Kim still enjoyed the classes full of vibrant teenagers, recently she had been growing a bit bored with the lack of variety and was on the lookout for a new challenge to revitalise her teaching. When David came to talk to her about a small hi-tech company which had contacted the school about in-company classes, she felt that this might be the challenge she needed.

David was the Director of Studies at the school and a long-term resident in the town. He was central to the management of the school and the owner relied on him a lot. He had set up all the courses, produced the materials and even written out suggested plans for all the lessons. Since his suggestions generally worked well, this made life easy for the teachers at the school.

David explained to Kim that the company wanted its white-collar staff to be able to use English in their work, and that this would involve teaching such skills as reading instruction manuals, understanding and writing business correspondence, and speaking on the telephone. Kim realised that content like this would be the refreshing change she was looking for, but was worried that she wouldn't be capable of preparing lessons on these topics. She was reassured when David went on to explain that, although he would be back in the UK when the course started, he would talk to the

company about the course, design the syllabus and prepare the materials for her to use before he went. Kim readily accepted the responsibility of teaching the course.

Over the next three weeks, David was busy preparing the course which was to cover forty hours in two lessons a week over ten weeks. Occasionally, he would call Kim to his office and explain to her how the course and the materials would work, so that by the Saturday he left for his holiday, Kim felt well-prepared and confident about the course.

The next Tuesday was the first day of the course and the company sent a van to pick Kim up. Arriving at the factory, she was treated well and taken to a well-appointed room that was to be her classroom. The staff taking the course all trooped into the room in the next five minutes which suggested that the company was taking the course seriously. There were twelve learners in the class, evenly split into men and women, and all aged in their late twenties and early thirties. Kim felt happy and thought the situation looked promising.

For the first lesson, David had suggested an easy-going getting-to-know-you introductory lesson with no overt business focus to help Kim establish relationships with the learners before the 'real work' began. He had suggested an adaptation of the warm-up lesson for upper-intermediate learners at the school, which Kim was familiar with. This started with a small New Name activity which the learners at the school usually found easy and interesting. They would try to translate their name into English and find the nearest English equivalent to their name. Following this, there was a "Find a person who ..." questionnaire (with questions such as "Find a person whose favourite childhood toy was a teddy bear") which learners usually found amusing.

The lesson didn't go as well as Kim had expected. The learners showed little interest in the task, but instead dourly went through the procedure of asking their classmates for information. In addition, they had some surprisingly large gaps in their

vocabulary and some of them had difficulty formulating questions to ask their classmates. Two of the men, Manuel and Juan, in particular, seemed to be having big problems coping with even the simplest English; one of the women, Sophia, resolutely refused to have anything to do with the task; and the rest of the learners appeared reluctant and unsure of what they were doing. Kim hoped that these were just teething problems for the course, perhaps because the company staff had not been in the role of learners for several years. She felt that the second lesson with more technical, business-oriented language probably familiar to the learners would be more of a success.

The lesson on the next Friday, however, was a disaster. Focusing on instruction manuals, the prepared lesson aimed to help the learners understand the organization of instruction manuals and analyse the language used. From the beginning of the lesson, Kim found herself doing all the talking while the learners watched her with blank faces. When, after ten minutes of the lesson, Juan put his hand up and asked "What mean 'manual'?", Kim realised that she had been talking completely over their heads. The rest of the lesson was a nightmare. Kim vainly tried to follow the lesson plan that David had prepared, but it was all way beyond the learners' level. The lesson had changed from the joint exploration of the language of instruction manuals that David had intended into a desperate succession of teacher explanations of unknown vocabulary by Kim.

When the two hours were up, Kim felt released. The lesson had been her worst ever teaching experience. In the van home, however, it struck her that she would have to teach the learners again the next Tuesday. The materials she had available were obviously completely inappropriate. This weekend she would have to come up with something different. David wouldn't be back from his holiday for another two weeks, and the other teachers at the school had no experience of preparing materials or of

business English. She was on her own. How on earth could she come up with any useful, appropriate, business-oriented materials by next Tuesday?

Questions

1. Kim's immediate preoccupation is that the materials are too difficult for the students. In a situation like this, there are three choices facing the teacher: to discard the existing materials and design new materials from scratch, to adapt the existing materials to make them more appropriate for the learners, and to find other ready-made materials as a replacement. Which of these choices do you think would be the most suitable for Kim? Why?
2. If Kim decides to design new materials, how should she do this? What are the stages in materials design? Do you think that these stages represent an idealised design process or can they be followed in practice?
3. If Kim decides to adapt the existing materials, on what bases should she decide what aspects of the materials to retain and what aspects to discard? Is there anything she should be particularly wary about when she adapts the materials?
4. If Kim decides to replace the existing materials, how can she find other ready-made materials? If she finds several possible alternative sets of materials, how can she decide between them? What criteria can guide her decision?
5. Another aspect of the case study that we can consider is why Kim sees the problems with the materials as so serious. This can be viewed as a longer-term problem of staff development. David, although presumably usually efficient, does not see staff development as part of his duties as Director of Studies. Rather than helping the teachers at the school become competent and independent at non-classroom aspects of teaching, such as materials design, David takes the whole of this work himself. How could David help the staff at the school develop?

6. The materials described in the case study are specifically aimed at business, focusing on the language used in business communication and revolving around business topics. David, in designing such materials, would presumably argue that business learners need English for business and that the best way to prepare such learners is to provide them with English used in business situations. An alternative viewpoint is that, by providing the learners with business English only, they are being limited to a specific area of English rather than being exposed to English in all its wide uses and so are missing out on a broad English education. Are there any other viable viewpoints? Which do you agree with? Why?

7. The case study talks about materials "way beyond the learners' level". As teachers we often use the word level as a term of convenience to describe learners' competence. Although convenient, the term level has many problems. First, it is difficult to define. Does it refer to the students' ability in grammar, the size of their vocabulary, their fluency, some other aspect of language, or a combination of these? Second, comparing the levels of two learners is problematic, since all learners' interlanguage is idiosyncratic. Third, it is very difficult to describe a given level, so that we are usually at a loss if a colleague asks us, "What level is your class?" Do you think that the convenience of level outweighs these problems? If you believe that the term level is useful, how can you define it and how would you describe the level of one of your classes?

Case 2: Working Together

Giving instructions and observing other teachers to help their development by Richard Watson Todd

Twenty years in the same secondary school had turned Paolo into an automation. For most of the time he had stuck to the tried and trusted methods of drilling, long grammar explanations and rote learning of word lists.

Six months ago, however, a new teacher, Sophia, had arrived at the school with bright innovative ideas that were a breath of fresh air to Paolo. Sophia talked about students discovering language for themselves, interacting in groups, and becoming confident with using English.

Hearing these ideas, Paolo had realised that he had been treating his classes like a production line, something he had sworn he would never do when he had started teaching twenty years earlier. Quickly becoming friends, Sophia and Paolo had decided to work together to help each other develop as teachers. They decided that they would talk English outside the classroom to improve their language, they would subscribe to a couple of journals for teachers, and they would encourage each other to innovate and try out new ideas in the classroom.

They had worked together like this for over four months now. Paolo felt that his interest in teaching had been rekindled, and that his students enjoyed themselves more and seemed to look forward to learning English with him. Most of Paolo's lessons worked well, and now he sometimes found himself trying to persuade other colleagues to try out new techniques.

Today's lesson, however, had severely shaken his confidence. In his plan, the lesson had appeared straightforward and effective, but in the classroom it had ended in shambles. The focus of the lesson was reading, and Paolo had decided to do something different from the old 'Read the passage and answer the questions' approach.

In one of the journals he and Sophia were subscribing to he had found a technique called Jigsaw Reading. Cutting a long passage into pieces, he would give each of the pieces to a different group of students. The groups would read and try to understand their section of the passage. Then new groups consisting of one student from each of the previous groups would be formed. The new groups would try to

reconstruct the whole passage. Paolo thought that the students would pay a lot more attention to the reading if he used a Jigsaw Reading technique. In addition, the technique would generate a lot of beneficial student-student interaction.

Paolo had been looking forward to trying out Jigsaw Reading with his fourth-year students. In the classroom, however, the new technique had been fraught with problems. The seemingly simple procedures of Jigsaw Reading turned out to be almost impossible to convey to the students, even when Paolo resorted to Italian. In giving the instructions before the activity, he found himself using longer and longer sentences with all sorts of convoluted phrasing to explain whether he was talking about the original grouping of students or the regrouping halfway through the activity.

Because they had been unclear about the purpose and organisation of the activity, the students had been uncertain of what to do while reading. Regrouping the students had taken a full ten minutes of class time, and once they had been regrouped, the students just sat there not knowing what to do next. Paolo had had to explain all the stages of the activity over and over again, until he was relieved to hear the bell ring at the end of the class. Exhausted and dispirited after the lesson, Paolo sought out Sophia. He explained all that had gone wrong while Sophia listened attentively and made sympathetic noises. When he finished, they discussed the possible causes of the problem. They decided that everything came down to the clarity of his instructions. The next problem, then, was how Paolo could improve his instructions. Paolo, still discouraged by the lesson, did not feel capable of improving his instructions by himself. He wanted Sophia to help him.

Together, Paolo and Sophia brainstormed ways of helping Paolo overcome his problems with instructions. Obviously, he could pay more attention to his instructions during the planning stage, and Sophia could help him here by working through the plan with him. But Paolo was more concerned about what would happen once he was in the actual classroom. He knew that Sophia was free when he taught his third-year

class and he wanted her to come into his classroom and watch him give instructions. While Sophia felt flattered that Paolo trusted her so much, she was worried about observing his teaching. First, what would the students think? Paolo was a far more senior colleague, so it would look strange if Sophia went into his classroom and took notes on his teaching.

What's more, Sophia wasn't sure about how much help she could be to Paolo by observing him. She didn't know what sort of things she should look for when Paolo gave instructions, and she didn't think she would be able to identify what his problems were. Another thing that worried her was what she should say to Paolo after the lesson. Although they had built up a close relationship, Sophia knew she wouldn't feel comfortable criticising Paolo's teaching and wasn't sure what his reactions would be. With these misgivings in her mind, Sophia was undecided about whether to accept Paolo's invitation to observe his teaching.

Questions

1. Paolo's instructions for the Jigsaw Reading activity are at the root of his problems. It is suggested that he could pay more attention to his instructions during the planning stage. One of the skills of planning is predicting what problems will arise during teaching and pre-empting these problems.

How do you think Paolo can improve his problem-predicting skills while planning?

2. Instructions are vital to the success of an activity. What content should be included in instructions? Should instructions be explained or demonstrated, or both? How can a teacher tell how effective any set of instructions is?

3. The regrouping of the students in the Jigsaw reading activity causes most of Paolo's problems.

Should all of the instructions be given at the start of the activity or should the instructions be broken down into two sets, one given at the start of the activity and one given in the middle before regrouping the students?

If you were going to use a Jigsaw reading activity in your teaching, what instructions would you give? Can you predict any problems which might arise from your instructions?

4. Regrouping the students creates a transition in the middle of the Jigsaw reading activity. Transitions, if not well-organized, may waste valuable time and possibly lead to chaos. How can transitions be managed to reduce the chances of time-wasting and chaos occurring?

5. Paolo and Sophia decide that Sophia should help Paolo while planning. How should Sophia help Paolo?

Should she be actively involved all through the planning process or should she only comment on the final plan that Paolo produces?

6. Paolo also wants Sophia to observe his teaching and give him feedback. Sophia, however, is unsure of what to look for and how to observe.

If Sophia observes Paolo, do you think she should just write down any comments she thinks might be useful as she observes? Alternatively, Sophia could use an observation sheet, in the form of, say, a table which would help her to categorise certain aspects of Paolo's teaching.

If she chooses to use an observation sheet, what aspects of Paolo's teaching should Sophia include on the sheet? What form should the observation sheet take?

If you were going to observe a colleague focusing on his/her instructions, how would you record your observations? If you decided to use an observation sheet, what would it look like?

7. Sophia is worried about giving feedback to Paolo on his teaching. Feedback can often seem critical to the person receiving it, leading to defensiveness and relationship problems. If Sophia needs to give Paolo feedback, how can she give feedback so that such problems do not occur?

Case 3. Planning, being flexible in the classroom, and dealing with the unexpected by Richard Watson Todd

Mustafa was proud of his BEd. Now in his first job as a teacher, he had great plans for helping his students learn English, and he knew that what he had learnt from his BEd would help him reach this goal. All through his years as a secondary school student, he had thought that teaching was easy, but his degree had made him realize that teaching was far more complicated when seen from the teacher's perspective than from the student's seat. The most important thing that Mustafa had learnt from his degree was the importance of planning. His tutors had constantly emphasized and re-emphasized the need to think before teaching. Planning, he had been told, was often more important for the success of a lesson than the teaching. Having been asked to teach an impromptu lesson and then compare it with a planned lesson, Mustafa firmly believed his tutors.

Mustafa had been teaching at a technical college in Cairo for two weeks now. His next lesson was on Saturday with an evening class of older students. He picked up the textbook assigned for the class and started planning. On his degree, he had been told to follow a given sequence for planning and to write his plan according to a model format. Mustafa didn't need to remind himself of the sequence or the format since he had used them so often already. Starting from the unit in the textbook, he

identified the objectives to be covered in the lesson, used a grammar book to check on his knowledge of these objectives, looked through the reading passage, prepared quick explanations of unknown words, checked the answers to the comprehension questions, decided how to present the grammar points, and wrote up instructions for the pairwork activity. As a final flourish, he decided to devote three minutes at the start of the lesson to chatting to the students.

Looking over his lesson plan, Mustafa was pleased. It looked perfect. He could easily imagine his old tutor giving him an A grade for the plan. With a plan like this, he felt sure that he could help his students understand the grammar easily and that they would enjoy learning.

At six o'clock on the Saturday, Mustafa went into the classroom to find all of his students waiting for him. He checked the register and let the students calm down.

"OK, what did you do in the last week?", he asked. "Yes, Fatima?" "I went to the cinema." "You went to the cinema. Very good. OK, Ahmed what did you do?" "I went to see my uncle near from Alexandria." "Near Alexandria. No 'from'. OK. Hafiz?" "I got married." Mustafa smiled. "You got married. That's interesting." The three minutes he had set aside for chatting were up. "Now turn to page 17 in your books."

Mustafa asked the students to read the passage and to identify unknown words. After the students had finished reading, he asked, "Right, what words didn't you know?" "Trapped." "Trapped, right." Mustafa looked at his lesson plan. "Trap means to catch. So the boy was trapped means the boy was caught. OK?" The students were silent. "Any other words?" "Pick." "OK, pick means to select." "But I don't understand. Here the book has that pick the lock." "Yes, lock means the thing that you open with a key." "But I don't understand." Mustafa wondered what was wrong with Hafiz who was usually a good student. Maybe it was his marriage affecting him. "What do you mean?" "Pick a lock means select a lock. I don't

understand." "Never mind. Any more words? Yes, Abdullah?" "Freezer."
"I taught you freezer last week. You already know the word. Yes, Miriam?"
"Jog."

Mustafa looked a bit put out. He had noticed the word when he had prepared his lesson, but he had assumed that the students would know it. He knew that in the short time he had been teaching them, the students hadn't come across jog, but it was such a simple word he had thought they must know it. "Um, jog means run."

Mustafa was flustered. "No, not like Said Aouita. He runs very fast, but jog is running slowly." It was now Ahmed's turn to look puzzled. "But if you run, you want to win. Why people run slow?" He then switched to Arabic and used the slang expression for 'They must be cheats'. Mustafa felt that he was starting to lose control. This wasn't in his lesson plan. "No. You don't jog when you run in a race. Jog is run slowly for exercise. If you want to get fit, you can run but you only need to run slowly. So people jog for exercise or to get fit."

Now it was Miriam who looked confused. "What mean exercise and fit?"

Mustafa felt himself in danger of falling into a never-ending circle of definitions. He decided that he had to avoid this at all costs. So he quickly wrote the three problem words in English on the board with their Arabic equivalents. All of the students looked satisfied and dutifully copied these down into their exercise books. Mustafa was still worried, however. First, he had broken the climate of English which he had tried so hard to establish in the classroom. Second, he realised that he was already five minutes behind his lesson plan. He would have to rush through everything to get the lesson finished on time.

The rest of the lesson consisted of a mad rush on Mustafa's part to catch up with the times written in his lesson plan. In this he was frustrated by several unexpected questions and incorrect answers from the students which he felt duty-bound to deal with. The lesson turned into a race between Mustafa and the clock. He didn't give the students enough time to answer the comprehension questions; his grammar

explanation was so rushed that he then had to spend a lot of time dealing with students' misunderstandings; he skimmed through the pairwork instructions at such a rate that the students had little idea of what they were supposed to do; and by the time the bell rang at the end of the lesson none of the pairs were anywhere close to finishing the activity.

After the lesson ended, the students left the room and Mustafa collapsed at his desk. What had gone wrong? His lesson plan had been so good. He looked back over it. The only problem he could see was that he should have predicted the need to teach jog. But surely such a little mistake couldn't have made his lesson go so awry. Nevertheless, it was the only problem he could find. He resolved to be more careful in his lesson planning in future. He would need to check every word in the reading passages, and prepare explanations for most of them. Although he didn't look forward to this, he knew that good lesson plans were vital, and the more he prepared the better his lesson plans and his teaching would be. With a sigh, he started reading the passage for the next lesson he would teach.

Questions

1. The BEd that Mustafa took placed a heavy emphasis on lesson planning. How important do you think lesson planning is to the success of lessons? How much emphasis should be given to lesson planning on teacher training programmes?
2. Mustafa had been taught to follow a certain sequence and format when planning. What do you think this sequence and format consisted of? How helpful do you think such a model is to beginning teachers? While models of planning can help give security to beginning teachers, they are also restrictive. Do you think the benefits of such models outweigh the extent to which they restrict teachers?
3. The lesson started with "chatting". What are the purposes of chatting to students? Why is it used so often as a way of beginning lessons?

4. Chatting to students can be considered an attempt to bring the characteristics of natural conversation (such as unpredictability and the need to constantly negotiate topics) into the classroom. However, the way in which Mustafa runs the chatting session does not reflect interaction in the real world. In what ways does the classroom chatting in the extract differ from interaction in the real world? How do you think Mustafa can change the way he runs the chatting session in order to make it reflect real world interaction more closely?

5. To help students understand the reading passage, Mustafa asks them to identify unknown words. Do you think unknown words should be taught before the students read or after they have finished reading? Do all unknown words need to be explained? In explaining the meaning of the unknown words to the students, Mustafa seems to regard the context in which the words appear as not being very important. What problems does this lead to and how can Mustafa overcome these problems?

6. Mustafa's main problems occur when he is required to teach something he has not planned for. Improvisation is a vital teaching skill. Do you think that improvisation is teachable? If so, how can improvisation be taught? All through the lesson Mustafa is being controlled by the plan rather than controlling it. To what extent should plans be followed? When and why should teachers deviate from their prepared plans?

7. Finally, after the lesson finishes, Mustafa reflects on what had happened in the lesson. The main conclusion of his reflection is that he should spend more time on planning. Do you think that this will help Mustafa in future lessons? Overall, planning seems to be the only area on which Mustafa concentrates. If you were Mustafa's colleague, how could you help him gain an appreciation of other aspects of teaching?

VI. GLOSSARIY

Termin	O'zbek tilidagi sharhi	Ingliz tilidagi sharhi
Post method	usuldan keyingi davrda til o'qitish faqat ma'lum bir metod asosida amalga oshirilmaydi. Til o'qitish bir vaqtning o'zida ayrim turli usul va metodlarni qabul qilishi mumkin.	in the era of the post-method, the language teaching is done not only based on a certain method. The language teaching may adopt some different methods and techniques at the same time.
Case study	muayyan shaxs, guruh yoki vaziyatni bir muddat davomida rivojlantirish bo'yicha tadqiqot jarayoni yoki yozuvi.	a process or record of research into the development of a particular person, group, or situation over a period of time.
Outcome	biror narsaning chiqishi; oqibat.(natija)	the way a thing turns out; a consequence.(result)
Student-centered	bundan tashqari, o'quvchi-markazli ta'lim sifatida tanilgan, keng o'quvchiga o'qituvchidan qo'llanma markazida siljitish, deb o'rgatish usullarini o'z ichiga oladi. Original foydalanish, talaba-markazli ta'lim talaba muxtoriyat va mustaqilligini rivojlantirish uchun maqsad [1] ularga ko'nikmalarini imparting tomonidan talabalar qo'lida ta'lim yo'li uchun javobgarlikni qo'yib, va muayyan mavzuni o'rganish uchun qanday asos va schemata muayyan ishlash talab qadar o'lchash uchun zarur bo'lgan. O'qituvchi markazli odatda o'qituvchi o'quvchilar o'rganadigan material va uni o'rganish usullari—ya'ni qachon, qaerda, qanday va qanday sur'atda	also known as learner-centered education, broadly encompasses methods of teaching that shift the focus of instruction from the teacher to the student . In original usage, student-centered learning aims to develop learner autonomy and independence [1] by putting responsibility for the learning path in the hands of students by imparting to them skills, and the basis on how to learn a specific subject and schemata required to measure up to the specific performance requirement. Teacher-centered typically refers to

	o'rganishlari ustidan nazorat o'rnatadigan o'quv vaziyatlarini nazarda tutadi.	learning situations in which the teacher asserts control over the material that students study and the ways in which they study it—i.e., when, where, how, and at what pace they learn it.
A dialogue journal	Talaba yozma ko'pchilik oshiradi bo'lgan o'ychan yoki surishtiruv yo'naltirilgan jurnal. Asosiy maqsad-o'qituvchilarni o'zaro hamkorlik bilan yaqinlashishga imkon beruvchi bo'shliqda fikrlashni rivojlantirishdir (Brisk & Harrington, 2007). Instruktor kiritish korreksion teskari aloqa sifatida emas, balki ko'proq talabaning rivojlanish jarayoniga kurs mazmuniga nisbatan maxsus javob beradigan va javob beradigan o'quv suhbatlari sifatida yuzaga keladi.	A reflective or inquiry-focused journal in which the student carries the majority of the writing. The primary goal is to develop thinking in a space that allows for approximated learning with instructor interaction (Brisk& Harrington, 2007). Instructor input occurs not as corrective feedback but more as an instructional conversation that engages and responds specifically to the student's developmental process relative to course content.
Intensive reading	o'rganuvchilarni aniq o'quv maqsad va vazifalari bilan batafsil o'qishni o'z ichiga oladi. Keng qamrovli o'qish bilan taqqoslash mumkin, bu esa o'quvchilarni matnlarni lazzatlanish uchun o'qish va umumiy o'qish ko'nikmalarini rivojlantirishni o'z ichiga oladi.	involves learners reading in detail with specific learning aims and tasks. It can be compared with extensive reading, which involves learners reading texts for enjoyment and to develop general reading skills.
Syllabus	o'qish yoki o'qitish kursidagi fanlar.	subjects in a course of study or teaching.

Curriculum	maktab yoki kollejda o'qish kursini tashkil etuvchi fanlar.	the subjects comprising a course of study in a school or college.
Goal	insonning maqsad yoki harakat ob'ekti; maqsad yoki kerakli natija.	the object of a person's ambition or effort; an aim or desired result.
Learning objectives	o'quv rejasi, kurs, dars yoki faoliyatning kutilgan maqsadini talaba tomonidan o'qitish natijasida qo'lga kiritiladigan namoyish etiladigan ko'nikmalar yoki bilimlar nuqtai nazaridan belgilaydigan bayonotlar.	are statements that define the expected goal of a curriculum, course, lesson or activity in terms of demonstrable skills or knowledge that will be acquired by a student as a result of instruction.
Lesson plan	Dars rejasi-bu darsni osonlashtirish uchun o'qituvchining qo'llanmasidir. Odatda maqsadga erishish (o'quvchilar o'rganishi kerak bo'lgan), maqsadga qanday erishish (etkazib berish usuli va tartibi) va maqsadga qanday erishilganligini o'lchash usuli (odatda uy vazifalari yoki test orqali). Bu reja o'qituvchining o'quvchilar bajarishi lozim bo'lgan maqsadlari va materialni qanday o'rganishlari. Dars rejasi muayyan dars uchun o'qituvchining rejasini anglatadi. Bu erda o'qituvchi talabalarga nimani o'rgatmoqchi ekanliklarini, nima uchun mavzu yoritilayotganini rejalashtirishi va ma'ruza qilishni hal qilishi kerak. O'quv maqsadlari, o'quv faoliyati va baholari hammasi dars rejasiga kiritiladi.	A lesson plan is a teacher's guide for facilitating a lesson. It typically includes the goal (what students need to learn), how the goal will be achieved (the method of delivery and procedure) and a way to measure how well the goal was reached (usually via homework assignments or testing). This plan is a teacher's objectives for what students should accomplish and how they will learn the material. A lesson plan refers to a teacher's plan for a particular lesson. Here, a teacher must plan what they want to teach students, why a topic is being covered and decide how to deliver a lecture. Learning objectives, learning activities and assessments are all included in a lesson plan.

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Ko'chma mashg'ulot: Identifying and analyzing the interaction of linguistic and cultural structures based on traditional and modern analysis methods

1- Method: Lexical approach.

It presupposes the analysis of contextual meanings, the correlation of denotative and connotative meanings, comparison of contextual and dictionary meanings. This method is most relevant to text semantics since it enables the reader to discern subtle shades of meanings the language units acquire in the text.

2- Method: Content-based approach.

It deals with, the semantic content of language units and is based on the linguistic postulate that lexical meaning can be segmented into minimal semantic

components (semes). The method includes techniques of a multi-stage definitional analysis and that of associative field. Componential analysis was first applied to the study of the semantic word structure, word agreement, lexicographical descriptions, syntagmatic and paradigmatic links of the word. In text linguistics, this analysis may be helpful in revealing conceptual features constituting the cognitive structure of words.

3- Method: Cognitive approach.

It is aimed at revealing associative links of the analyzed unit and building its associative field. This method can be implemented in two ways: 1) on the basis of an associative experiment; 2) on the material of associative dictionaries and thesauruses. An associative experiment has been elaborated in cognitive thinking, and it is based on the assumption that a certain stimulus presupposes some reaction: $S \rightarrow R$. The second way to uncover a net of associations inherent in the analyzed unit is to use the material supplied by various dictionaries of associations.

4- Method: Brainstorming.

It is a group creativity technique by which efforts are made to find a conclusion for a specific problem by gathering a list of ideas spontaneously contributed by its members. The term was popularized by Alex Faickney Osborn in the 1953 book *Applied Imagination*.

5- Method: Interactive method.

There are three distinct reasons for interactive teaching. It is an attempt to see what actually exists in the brains of your students. This is the "summative" aspect. It is the easiest aspect to understand and it is well described in the literature. But, it is far from being the only perspective! The second reason is "formative", where the teacher aims through the assigned task to direct students' mental processing along an appropriate path in "concept-space". The intent is that, as students think through the issues necessary in traversing the path, the resulting mental construction that is developed in the student's head will possess those properties that the teacher is trying to teach. As Socrates discovered, a good question can accomplish this result better than, just telling the answer. The third may be termed "motivational". Learning is hard work, and an injection of motivation at the right moment can make all the difference.

6- Method: Discourse analysis.

It is based on the situational interpretation of the discourse and aims a) to hypothesize about the author's pragmatic intention on the basis of verbal signals; b) to characterize the linguistic personality's social status, cultural background and psychological inner world; c) to substantiate the appropriateness and effectiveness of communication by the verbalized in the text direct or indirect indications of a pragmatic intention and the addressee's verbal or non-verbal reaction to it.

7- Method: Methods of parameterization.

It is the study of linguistic units including texts, based on a set of parameters and principles of categorization. It is used to define complex linguistic notions and hierarchy of distinctive features constituting them.

8- Method: Method of categorization.

It is a kind of taxonomical activity aimed at sorting out and combining somewhat similar notions and corresponding units into larger categories. This method is based on cognitive operations of comparing, contrasting, identifying, setting up similarities and differences, etc. In the domain of text linguistics, the method of categorization may be helpful in analyzing text as a conceptual system, and revealing hierarchical relationships between its constituents.

9- Method: Critical Thinking Skills development (Bloom's Taxonomy).

It is a comprehensive, multi-stage analysis of concepts, which presupposes description of a) the concept structure and its constituents (notional, figurative and evaluative spheres); b) hierarchical taxonomy of cognitive features inferred in the process of conceptualization; c) distribution of cognitive features according to the "field" principle, i.e. their reference to either the nucleus or periphery of a concept.

10- Method: Problem solving strategies.

These are based on the theoretical conception that metaphor is not only a stylistic device, but also a means of conceptualization. It is one of the main mental operations, a means of cognition, categorization and evaluation (Lacoff, 1980). Metaphorical analysis aims to disclose the mechanism of metaphorization, which lies in the interaction of the two, source and target, spheres. The system of knowledge structures of a source sphere serves as a basis for cognitive modelling of a target sphere. Cognitive metaphorical analysis is of a special significance for fiction since imagery is considered an inalienable property of this text type.

11-Cognitive mapping.

It helps penetrate into "deep" semantics of the language units. It is presented as a step-by-step procedure including the study of:

- dictionary definitions and lexicographical interpretations of a word;
- properties conditioned by paradigmatic and syntagmatic links;
- word - building potential;
- phraseological units and paroemia affiliated to the analyzed word;
- all possible contexts of the word indicative of its conceptual senses.

12- Method:Cross-cultural analysis.

It is based on comparing and contrasting languages and cultures. It consists in cognitive interpretation of a) culturally and conceptually relevant language units in the text (linguoculturemes); b) universal and nationally-specific properties of language units including texts; c) cultural concepts manifesting particular domains.

1- Method:Lexical approach.

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V.KEYSLAR BANKI

Case 1: Over Their Heads

Designing and adapting materials and teaching English for specific purposes by Richard Watson ToddKim had been working at a private language school in a small town in Spain for nearly 18 months now, and planned to continue for another six months before she went back to the UK to look for something more permanent. The school, like the town, was small, and nearly all the courses were for adolescents. Although Kim still enjoyed the classes full of vibrant teenagers, recently she had been growing a bit bored with the lack of variety and was on the lookout for a new challenge to revitalise her teaching. When David came to talk to her about a small hi-tech company which had contacted the school about in-company classes, she felt that this might be the challenge she needed. David was the Director of Studies at the school and a long-term resident in the town. He was central to the management of the school and the owner relied on him a lot. He had set up all the courses, produced the materials and even written out suggested plans for all the lessons. Since his suggestions generally worked well, this made life easy for the teachers at the school.

David explained to Kim that the company wanted its white-collar staff to be able to use English in their work, and that this would involve teaching such skills as reading instruction manuals, understanding and writing business correspondence, and speaking on the telephone. Kim realised that content like this would be the refreshing change she was looking for, but was worried that she wouldn't be capable of preparing lessons on these topics. She was reassured when David went on to explain that, although he would be back in the UK when the course started, he would talk to the company about the course, design the syllabus and prepare the materials for her to use before he went. Kim readily accepted the responsibility of teaching the course.

Over the next three weeks, David was busy preparing the course which was to cover forty hours in two lessons a week over ten weeks. Occasionally, he would call Kim to

his office and explain to her how the course and the materials would work, so that by the Saturday he left for his holiday, Kim felt well-prepared and confident about the course. The next Tuesday was the first day of the course and the company sent a van to pick Kim up. Arriving at the factory, she was treated well and taken to a well-appointed room that was to be her classroom. The staff taking the course all trooped into the room in the next five minutes which suggested that the company was taking the course seriously. There were twelve learners in the class, evenly split into men and women, and all aged in their late twenties and early thirties. Kim felt happy and thought the situation looked promising.

For the first lesson, David had suggested an easy-going getting-to-know-you introductory lesson with no overt business focus to help Kim establish relationships with the learners before the 'real work' began. He had suggested an adaptation of the warm-up lesson for upper-intermediate learners at the school, which Kim was familiar with. This started with a small New Name activity which the learners at the school usually found easy and interesting. They would try to translate their name into English and find the nearest English equivalent to their name. Following this, there was a "Find a person who ..." questionnaire (with questions such as "Find a person whose favourite childhood toy was a teddy bear") which learners usually found amusing.

The lesson didn't go as well as Kim had expected. The learners showed little interest in the task, but instead dourly went through the procedure of asking their classmates for information. In addition, they had some surprisingly large gaps in their vocabulary and some of them had difficulty formulating questions to ask their classmates. Two of them, Manuel and Juan, in particular, seemed to be having big problems coping with even the simplest English; one of the women, Sophia, resolutely refused to have anything to do with the task; and the rest of the learners appeared reluctant and unsure of what they were doing. Kim hoped that these were just teething problems for the

course, perhaps because the company staff had not been in the role of learners for several years. She felt that the second lesson with more technical, business -oriented language probably familiar to the learners would be more of a success.

The lesson on the next Friday, however, was a disaster. Focusing on instruction manuals, the prepared lesson aimed to help the learners understand the organisation of instruction manuals and analyse the language used. From the beginning of the lesson, Kim found herself doing all the talking while the learners watched her with blank faces. When, after ten minutes of the lesson, Juan put his hand up and asked "What mean 'manual'?", Kim realised that she had been talking completely over their heads. The rest of the lesson was a nightmare. Kim vainly tried to follow the lesson plan that David had prepared, but it was all way beyond the learners' level. The lesson had changed from the joint exploration of the language of instruction manuals that David had intended into a desperate succession of teacher explanations of unknown vocabulary by Kim.

When the two hours were up, Kim felt released. The lesson had been her worst ever teaching experience. In the van home, however, it struck her that she would have to teach the learners again the next Tuesday. The materials she had available were obviously completely inappropriate. This weekend she would have to come up with something different. David wouldn't be back from his holiday for another two weeks, and the other teachers at the school had no experience of preparing materials or of business English. She was on her own. How on earth could she come up with any useful, appropriate, business-oriented materials by next Tuesday?

Questions

1. Kim's immediate preoccupation is that the materials are too difficult for the students.

In a situation like this, there are three choices facing the teacher: to discard the existing materials and design new materials from scratch, to adapt the existing materials to make them more appropriate for the learners, and to find other ready-made materials as a replacement. Which of these choices do you think would be the most suitable for Kim? Why?

2. If Kim decides to design new materials, how should she do this? What are the stages in materials design? Do you think that these stages represent an idealised design process or can they be followed in practice?

3. If Kim decides to adapt the existing materials, on what bases should she decide what aspects of the materials to retain and what aspects to discard? Is there anything she should be particularly wary about when she adapts the materials?

4. If Kim decides to replace the existing materials, how can she find other ready-made materials? If she finds several possible alternative sets of materials, how can she decide between them? What criteria can guide her decision?

5. Another aspect of the case study that we can consider is why Kim sees the problems with the materials as so serious. This can be viewed as a longer-term problem of staff development. David, although presumably usually efficient, does not see staff development as part of his duties as Director of Studies. Rather than helping the teachers at the school become competent and independent at non-classroom aspects of teaching, such as materials design, David takes the whole of this work himself. How could David help the staff at the school develop?

6. The materials described in the case study are specifically aimed at business, focusing on the language used in business communication and revolving around business topics. David, in designing such materials, would presumably argue that business learners need English for business and that the best way to prepare such learners is to provide them with English used in business situations. An alternative

viewpoint is that, by providing the learners with business English only, they are being limited to a specific area of English rather than being exposed to English in all its wide uses and so are missing out on a broad

English education. Are there any other viable viewpoints? Which do you agree with? Why?

7. The case study talks about materials "way beyond the learners' level". As teachers we often use the word level as a term of convenience to describe learners' competence. Although convenient, the term level has many problems. First, it is difficult to define. Does it refer to the students' ability in grammar, the size of their vocabulary, their fluency, some other aspect of language, or a combination of these? Second, comparing the levels of two learners is problematic, since all learners' interlanguage is idiosyncratic. Third, it is very difficult to describe a given level, so that we are usually at a loss if a colleague asks us, "What level is your class?" Do you think that the convenience of level outweighs these problems? If you believe that the term level is useful, how can you define it and how would you describe the level of one of your classes?

Further reading

In deciding whether to design, adapt or replace, Block (1991) argues the case for materials design, Nunan (1991) argues against adaptation, and Robinson (1991) looks at the pros and cons of design and replacement. Nunan (1991) also includes an 8-stage model for designing materials, which it is interesting to compare with the checklist in Dubin and Olshtain (1986) and the process of materials design given by Jolly and Bolitho (1998). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggest a different approach particularly applicable to ESP materials design such as the business English materials in the case study. Brown (1995) and Maley (1998) describe the process of materials adaptation with detailed examples. For evaluating materials as possible replacements, a whole book

(Cunningsworth, 1995) is devoted to the subject, and Brown (1994), Ellis (1997) and Jordan (1997) also provide useful guidelines. Impey and Underhill (1994) and White et al. (1993) look at the responsibilities of people in management positions in ELT, such as David, including their responsibilities for staff development. The arguments for and against using materials for specific purposes are humorously presented in Widdowson (1984). Lastly, the problems in defining students' communicative competence are accessibly examined in Omaggio (1986).

Case 2: Working Together

Giving instructions and observing other teachers to help their development. by Richard Watson Todd
Twenty years in the same secondary school had turned Paolo into an automaton. For most of the time he had stuck to the tried and trusted methods of drilling, long grammar explanations and rote learning of word lists. Six months ago, however, a new teacher, Sophia, had arrived at the school with bright innovative ideas that were a breath of fresh air to Paolo. Sophia talked about students discovering language for themselves, interacting in groups, and becoming confident with using English.

Hearing these ideas, Paolo had realized that he had been treating his classes like a production line, something he had sworn he would never do when he had started teaching twenty years earlier. Quickly becoming friends, Sophia and Paolo had decided to work together to help each other develop as teachers. They decided that they would talk English outside the classroom to improve their language, they would subscribe to a couple of journals for teachers, and they would encourage each other to innovate and try out new ideas in the classroom.

They had worked together like this for over four months now. Paolo felt that his interest in teaching had been rekindled and that his students enjoyed themselves more and seemed to look forward to learning English with him. Most of Paolo's lessons

worked well, and now he sometimes found himself trying to persuade other colleagues to try out new techniques.

Today's lesson, however, had severely shaken his confidence. In his plan, the lesson had appeared straightforward and effective, but in the classroom it had ended in shambles. The focus of the lesson was reading, and Paolo had decided to do something different from the old 'Read the passage and answer the questions' approach. In one of the journals he and Sophia were subscribing to he had found a technique called Jigsaw Reading. Cutting a long passage into pieces, he would give each of the pieces to a different group of students. The groups would read and try to understand their section of the passage. Then new groups consisting of one student from each of the previous groups would be formed. The new groups would try to reconstruct the whole passage. Paolo thought that the students would pay a lot more attention to the reading if he used a Jigsaw Reading technique. In addition, the technique would generate a lot of beneficial student-student interaction.

Paolo had been looking forward to trying out Jigsaw Reading with his fourth-year students. In the classroom, however, the new technique had been fraught with problems. The seemingly simple procedures of Jigsaw Reading turned out to be almost impossible to convey to the students, even when Paolo resorted to Italian. In giving the instructions before the activity, he found himself using longer and longer sentences with all sorts of convoluted phrasing to explain whether he was talking about the original grouping of students or the regrouping halfway through the activity. Because they had been unclear about the purpose and organization of the activity, the students had been uncertain of what to do while reading. Regrouping the students had taken a full ten minutes of class time, and once they had been regrouped, the students just sat there not knowing what to do next. Paolo had had to explain all the stages of the activity over and over again, until he was relieved to hear the bell ring at the end of the class.

Exhausted and dispirited after the lesson, Paolo sought out Sophia. He explained all that had gone wrong while Sophia listened attentively and made sympathetic noises. When he finished, they discussed the possible causes of the problem. They decided that everything came down to the clarity of his instructions. The next problem, then, was how Paolo could improve his instructions. Paolo, still discouraged by the lesson, did not feel capable of improving his instructions by himself. He wanted Sophia to help him. Together, Paolo and Sophia brainstormed ways of helping Paolo overcome his problems with instructions. Obviously, he could pay more attention to his instructions during the planning stage, and Sophia could help him here by working through the plan with him. But Paolo was more concerned about what would happen once he was in the actual classroom. He knew that Sophia was free when he taught his third -year class and he wanted her to come into his classroom and watch him give instructions. While Sophia felt flattered that Paolo trusted her so much, she was worried about observing his teaching.

First, what would the students think? Paolo was a far more senior colleague, so it would look strange if Sophia went into his classroom and took notes on his teaching.

What's more, Sophia wasn't sure about how much help she could be to Paolo by observing him. She didn't know what sort of things she should look for when Paolo gave instructions, and she didn't think she would be able to identify what his problems were. Another thing that worried her was what she should say to Paolo after the lesson. Although they had built up a close relationship, Sophia knew she wouldn't feel comfortable criticizing Paolo's teaching and wasn't sure what his reactions would be. With these misgivings in her mind, Sophia was undecided about whether to accept Paolo's invitation to observe his teaching.

Questions

1. Paolo's instructions for the Jigsaw Reading activity are at the root of his problems. It is suggested that he could pay more attention to his instructions during the planning

stage. One of the skills of planning is predicting what problems will arise during teaching and pre-empting these problems.

How do you think Paolo can improve his problem-predicting skills while planning?

2. Instructions are vital to the success of an activity. What content should be included in instructions? Should instructions be explained or demonstrated, or both? How can a teacher tell how effective any set of instructions is?

3. The regrouping of the students in the Jigsaw reading activity causes most of Paolo's problems. Should all of the instructions be given at the start of the activity or should the instructions be broken down into two sets, one given at the start of the activity and one given in the middle before regrouping the students?

If you were going to use a Jigsaw reading activity in your teaching, what instructions would you give? Can you predict any problems which might arise from your instructions?

4. Regrouping the students creates a transition in the middle of the Jigsaw reading activity. Transitions, if not well-organized, may waste valuable time and possibly lead to chaos. How can transitions be managed to reduce the chances of time-wasting and chaos occurring?

5. Paolo and Sophia decide that Sophia should help Paolo while planning. How should Sophia help Paolo? Should she be actively involved all through the planning process or should she only comment on the final plan that Paolo produces?

6. Paolo also wants Sophia to observe his teaching and give him feedback. Sophia, however, is unsure of what to look for and how to observe. If Sophia observes Paolo, do you think she should just write down any comments she

thinks might be useful as she observes? Alternatively, Sophia could use an observation sheet, in the form of, say, a table which would help her to categorise certain aspects of Paolo's teaching.

If she chooses to use an observation sheet, what aspects of Paolo's teaching should Sophia include on the sheet? What form should the observation sheet take?

If you were going to observe a colleague focusing on his/her instructions, how would you record your observations? If you decided to use an observation sheet, what would it look like?

7. Sophia is worried about giving feedback to Paolo on his teaching. Feedback can often seem critical to the person receiving it, leading to defensiveness and relationship problems. If Sophia needs to give Paolo feedback, how can she give feedback so that such problems do not occur?

Further reading

A full description of Jigsaw Reading, including a detailed rationale, can be found in de Berkeley-Wykes (1983). Teacher instructions are considered in depth in Watson Todd (1997), while Ur (1996) gives some basic guidelines for giving instructions and Campbell and Kryszewska (1995) contains training activities for improving teachers' instructions. Froyen (1993) gives examples and guidelines for managing transitions effectively. Regarding working with colleagues, Knezevic and Scholl (1996) is a case study of collaborative planning; Day (1990) provides an excellent background to observation; Richards and Lockhart (1994) give guidelines for observing colleagues; Wajnryb (1992) is a comprehensive collection of useful observation sheets, including one for instructions; and Wallace (1998) discusses different ways in which data can be collected through observation. Finally, Gebhard (1990), Wallace (1991) and Woodward (1992) contain a variety of ways of giving feedback with the probable effects of each feedback technique.

Case 3. Planning, being flexible in the classroom, and dealing with the unexpected.

by Richard Watson Todd Mustafa was proud of his BEd. Now in his first job as a teacher, he had great plans for helping his students learn English, and he knew that what he had learnt from his BEd would help him reach this goal. All through his years as a secondary school student, he had thought that teaching was easy, but his degree had made him realise that teaching was far more complicated when seen from the teacher's perspective than from the student's seat. The most important thing that Mustafa had learnt from his degree was the importance of planning. His tutors had constantly emphasised and re-emphasised the need to think before teaching. Planning, he had been told, was often more important for the success of a lesson than the teaching. Having been asked to teach an impromptu lesson and then compare it with a planned lesson, Mustafa firmly believed his tutors. Mustafa had been teaching at a technical college in Cairo for two weeks now. His next lesson was on Saturday with an evening class of older students. He picked up the textbook assigned for the class and started planning. On his degree, he had been told to follow a given sequence for planning and to write his plan according to a model format. Mustafa didn't need to remind himself of the sequence or the format since he had used them so often already. Starting from the unit in the textbook, he identified the objectives to be covered in the lesson, used a grammar book to check on his knowledge of these objectives, looked through the reading passage, prepared quick explanations of unknown words, checked the answers to the comprehension questions, decided how to present the grammar points, and wrote up instructions for the pair work activity. As a final flourish, he decided to devote three minutes at the start of the lesson to chatting to the students.

Looking over his lesson plan, Mustafa was pleased. It looked perfect. He could easily imagine his old tutor giving him an A grade for the plan. With a plan like this, he felt sure that he could help his students understand the grammar easily and that they would enjoy learning.

At six o'clock on the Saturday, Mustafa went into the classroom to find all of his students waiting for him. He checked the register and let the students calm down.

"OK, what did you do in the last week?", he asked. "Yes, Fatima?"

"I went to the cinema."

"You went to the cinema. Very good. OK, Ahmed what did you do?"

"I went to see my uncle near from Alexandria."

"Near Alexandria. No 'from'. OK. Hafiz?"

"I got married."

Mustafa smiled. "You got married. That's interesting." The three minutes he had set aside for chatting were up. "Now turn to page 17 in your books."

Mustafa asked the students to read the passage and to identify unknown words. After the students had finished reading, he asked, "Right, what words didn't you know?"

"Trapped."

"Trapped, right." Mustafa looked at his lesson plan. "Trap means to catch. So the boy was trapped means the boy was caught. OK?"

The students were silent. "Any other words?"

"Pick."

"OK, pick means to select."

"But I don't understand. Here the book has that pick the lock."

"Yes, lock means the thing that you open with a key."

"But I don't understand."

Mustafa wondered what was wrong with Hafiz who was usually a good student.

Maybe it was his marriage affecting him. "What do you mean?"

"Pick a lock means select a lock. I don't understand."

"Never mind. Any more words? Yes, Abdullah?"

"Freezer."

"I taught you freezer last week. You already know the word. Yes, Miriam?"

"Jog."

Mustafa looked a bit put out. He had noticed the word when he had prepared his lesson, but he had assumed that the students would know it. He knew that in the short time he had been teaching them, the students hadn't come across jog, but it was such a simple word he had thought they must know it. "Um, jog means run." Ahmed looked up brightly. "Run. Like Said Aouita. Yeah, good runner." Mustafa was flustered. "No, not like Said Aouita. He runs very fast, but jog is running slowly." It was now Ahmed's turn to look puzzled. "But if you run, you want to win. Why people run slow?" He then switched to Arabic and used the slang expression for 'They must be cheats'.

Mustafa felt that he was starting to lose control. This wasn't in his lesson plan. "No. You don't jog when you run in a race. Jog is run slowly for exercise. If you want to get fit, you can run but you only need to run slowly. So people jog for exercise or to get fit." Now it was Miriam who looked confused. "What mean exercise and fit?" Mustafa felt himself in danger of falling into a never-ending circle of definitions. He decided that he had to avoid this at all costs. So he quickly wrote the three problem words in English on the board with their Arabic equivalents. All of the students looked satisfied and dutifully copied these down into their exercise books. Mustafa was still worried, however. First, he had broken the climate of English which he had tried so hard to establish in the classroom. Second, he realized that he was

already five minutes behind his lesson plan. He would have to rush through everything to get the lesson finished on time.

The rest of the lesson consisted of a mad rush on Mustafa's part to catch up with the times written in his lesson plan. In this he was frustrated by several unexpected questions and incorrect answers from the students which he felt duty-bound to deal with. The lesson turned into a race between Mustafa and the clock. He didn't give the students enough time to answer the comprehension questions; his grammar explanation was so rushed that he then had to spend a lot of time dealing with students' misunderstandings; he skimmed through the pairwork instructions at such a rate that the students had little idea of what they were supposed to do; and by the time the bell rang at the end of the lesson none of the pairs were anywhere close to finishing the activity.

After the lesson ended, the students left the room and Mustafa collapsed at his desk. What had gone wrong? His lesson plan had been so good. He looked back over it. The only problem he could see was that he should have predicted the need to teach jog. But surely such a little mistake couldn't have made his lesson go so awry. Nevertheless, it was the only problem he could find. He resolved to be more careful in his lesson planning in future. He would need to check every word in the reading passages, and prepare explanations for most of them. Although he didn't look forward to this, he knew that good lesson plans were vital, and the more he prepared the better his lesson plans and his teaching would be. With a sigh, he started reading the passage for the next lesson he would teach.

Questions

1. The BEd that Mustafa took placed a heavy emphasis on lesson planning. How important do you think lesson planning is to the success of lessons? How much emphasis should be given to lesson planning on teacher training programmes?

2. Mustafa had been taught to follow a certain sequence and format when planning. What do you think this sequence and format consisted of? How helpful do you think such a model is to beginning teachers? While models of planning can help give security to beginning teachers, they are also restrictive. Do you think the benefits of such models outweigh the extent to which they restrict teachers?
3. The lesson started with "chatting". What are the purposes of chatting to students? Why is it used so often as a way of beginning lessons?
4. Chatting to students can be considered an attempt to bring the characteristics of natural conversation (such as unpredictability and the need to constantly negotiate topics) into the classroom. However, the way in which Mustafa runs the chatting session does not reflect interaction in the real world. In what ways does the classroom chatting in the extract differ from interaction in the real world? How do you think Mustafa can change the way he runs the chatting session in order to make it reflect real world interaction more closely?
5. To help students understand the reading passage, Mustafa asks them to identify unknown words. Do you think unknown words should be taught before the students read or after they have finished reading? Do all unknown words need to be explained? In explaining the meaning of the unknown words to the students, Mustafa seems to regard the context in which the words appear as not being very important. What problems does this lead to and how can Mustafa overcome these problems?
6. Mustafa's main problems occur when he is required to teach something he has not planned for. Improvisation is a vital teaching skill. Do you think that improvisation is teachable? If so, how can improvisation be taught? All through the lesson Mustafa is being controlled by the plan rather than controlling it. To what extent should plans be followed? When and why should teachers deviate from their prepared plans?

VII. Glossariy

Termin	O‘zbek tilidagi sharhi	Ingliz tilidagi sharhi
aptitude test	ishda muvaffaqiyatni bashorat qilish qobiliyatini yoki umumiy qobiliyatini (masalan, chet tili kursiga borishdan oldin) o‘lchash uchun mo‘ljallangan test...	a test designed to measure capacity or general ability a priori (e.g., before taking a foreign language course) to predict success in that undertaking...
Assessment	tizimli va mazmunli asoslangan protseduralarga muvofiq ma’lum bir qiziqish obykti to‘g‘risida ma’lumot to‘plashning doimiy jarayoni	an ongoing process of collecting information about a given object of interest according to procedures that are systematic and substantively grounded
authenticity	berilgan til sinovi topshirig‘ining xususiyatlarining maqsadli til vazifasi xususiyatlariga muvofiqligi darajasi	the degree of correspondence of the characteristics of a given language test task to the features of a target language task
autonomy	tashqi maqsadlarni rag‘batlantirmasdan o‘z maqsadlarini belgilash va muvaffaqiyatni mustaqil ravishda nazorat qilish qobiliyati	the ability to set one’s own goals and independently monitor success without the presence of an external stimulus
biased for best	talabanning tilning "eng kichik" elementlarini (masalan, xarflar, pyecalar, so‘zlar) sinab ko‘rishda maqbul ishlashi uchun shart-sharoitlarni ta’minlash va keyinchalik ularni tobora kattaroq elementlarga birlashtirish	providing conditions for a student’s optimal performance on a test “smallest” elements (e.g., letters, syllables, words) of language and then combining them into increasingly larger elements
cloze	so‘zlar o‘chirilgan matn va test ishtirokchisi bo‘sh joyga mos	a text in which words are deleted and the test-taker must

	keladigan soʻzni taqdim etishi kerak	provide a word that fits the blank space
appropriate-word scoring	asl matndagi boʻsh joyga mos keladigan, grammatik va ritorik jixatdan maqbul soʻzni qabul qiladigan skorlama usuli	a scoring method that accepts a suitable, grammatically and rhetorically acceptable word that fits the blank space in the original text
communicative test	test sinovida qatnashuvchining mazmunli va ʻaqiqiy tildan foydalanish qobiliyatini yuzaga keltiradigan test	a test that elicits a test-taker's ability to use language that is meaningful and authentic
competence	tilni ijro etish qobiliyatiga asoslangan faraz qilingan (empirik ravishda kuzatib boʻlmaydigan) qobiliyat	one's hypothesized (empirically unobservable) underlying ability to perform language
computer-adaptive test (CAT)	test sinovlari talablariga javob beradigan va umuman ularning ishlash darajasiga mos keladigan savollar toʻplamini oladigan asboblar	instruments in which test-takers receive a set of questions that meet test specifications and that are generally appropriate for their performance level
computer-assisted language learning (CALL)	tilni oʻrganish va oʻqitishda kompyuter texnologiyalarini qoʻllash	the application of computer technology to language learning and teaching
C-test	boshqa xar qanday soʻzning ikkinchi yarmi olib tashlangan va test topshiruvchi toʻliq soʻzni taqdim etishi kerak boʻlgan matn	a text in which the second half of every other word is eliminated and the testtaker must provide the whole word
diagnostic test	tilning aniq jixatlarini aniqlash uchun moʻljallangan test	a test that is designed to diagnose specified aspects of a language
dialogue journal	oʻquvchining oʻqituvchi oʻqigan va unga javob bergan fikrlari, xisssiyotlari va	a self-writing exercise in which a student records thoughts, feelings, and reactions which a

	reaksiyalarini yozadigan o'z-o'zidan yozish mashqlari	teacher reads and responds to
dichotomous scoring	faqat bitta to'g'ri javob berishga imkon beradigan, test oluvchining javobi to'g'ri yoki noto'g'ri bo'lishi mumkin bo'lgan ball olish usuli	a method of scoring that allows only one correct response so that a test-taker's response is either right or wrong
dictation	test topshiruvchilar matni tinglashi va eshitganlarini yozib olishlari orqali baholash usuli	a method of assessment in which test-takers listen to a text and write down what they hear
dicto-comp	imtixon topshiruvchilar nisbatan uzunroq matni (masalan, bir nechta jummalardan iborat abzatsni) tinglashi va tarkibini, ba'zi bir iboralarni va yoki asosiy leksik elementlarni ichki xolatga keltirishga urinib ko'rgan matni qayta tiklash uchun ishlatadigan diktantning bir varianti.	a variant of dictation whereby test-takers listen to a relatively long text (e.g., a paragraph of several sentences or more) and try to internalize the content, some phrases, and/or key lexical items and then use them to recreate the text
direct testing	test topshiruvchi aniq maqsad vazifasini bajaradigan baxolash usuli; bilvosita sinovdan farqli o'laroq	an assessment method in which the test-taker actually performs the target task; as opposed to indirect testing
discrete point test	tilni tarkibiy qismlarga ajratish va ushbu qismlarni muvaffaqiyatli sinovdan o'tkazish mumkin degan taxmin asosida ishlab chiqilgan baxolashlar	assessments designed on the assumption that language can be broken down into its component parts and that those parts can be tested successfully
display writing	grammatika, so'z boyligi yoki gap tuzishda o'z xoxish-irodasini ko'rsatish uchun, odatda, so'rovga javoban	writing that is produced, usually in response to a prompt, to show competence in grammar, vocabulary, or

	ishlab chiqarilgan yozuv; haqiqiy yozuvdan farqli o'laroq	sentence formation; as opposed to real writing
evaluation	testlar, boshqa baholashlar va yoki o'qituvchilarning xisobotlari natijalariga ko'ra qarorlar va yoki baxoli qarorlarni qabul qilish	making decisions and/or value judgments based on the results of tests, other assessments, and/or teachers' reports
focus on form	tilning tashkiliy tuzilishiga (grammatika, fonologiya, so'z boyligi va boshqalar) e'tibor berish	attention to the organizational structure (grammar, phonology, vocabulary, etc.) of a language
formal assessment	o'qituvchi va talabaga o'quvchilarning yutuqlarini baxolash uchun tuzilgan tizimli, rejalashtirilgan mashqlar yoki protseduralar	systematic, planned exercises or procedures constructed to give teacher and student an appraisal of student achievement
formative assessment	ularning o'sish jarayonini davom ettirishga yordam berish maqsadida ularning malakalari va ko'nikmalarini "shakllantirish" jarayonida talabalarni ba'olash	evaluating students in the process of "forming" their competencies and skills with the goal of helping them continue that growth process
form -focused assessment	tilning tashkiliy tarkibiy qismlariga (masalan, grammatika, so'z boyligi) yo'naltirilgan baxo	assessment that focuses on the organizational components (e.g., grammar, vocabulary) of a language
high-frequency word	yozma va og'zaki matnlarda tez-tez uchraydigan va tilning moxir foydalanuvchilari egallagan so'z boylıkları bilimining bir qismi bo'lgan so'z; past chastotali so'zdan farqli o'laroq	a word that appears most often in written and oral texts and is part of the foundation of vocabulary knowledge that proficient users of the language have acquired; as opposed to low-frequency word
high-stakes test	test topshiruvchilar (masalan,	an instrument that provides

	kursga maktabga kirish) to'g'risida muxim qarorlar qabul qilinadigan ma'lumot beruvchi vosita.	information on the basis of which significant decisions are made about test-takers (e.g., admission to a course/school)
holistic scoring	test oluvchining til ishlab chiqarishiga global baxo berish uchun yagona umumiy o'lchovdan foydalanadigan yondashuv; analitik ballardan farqli o'laroq	an approach that uses a single general scale to give a global rating for a test-taker's language production; as opposed to analytic scoring
idiom	ma'nosini so'zma-so'z tarifi bilan aniqlab bo'lmaydigan, lekin metafora ma'nosi umumiy foydalanish orqali ma'lum bo'lgan nutq figurasi	figure of speech whose meaning cannot be determined by the literal definition but whose metaphorical meaning is known through common use
impact	testdan foydalanishning individual test topshiruvchilar, muassasalar va jamiyatga ta'siri	the effect of the use of a test on individual test-takers, institutions, and society
indirect testing	test topshiruvchidan maqsadli vazifani bajarishi talab qilinmaydigan ba'olash usuli; aksincha, maqsadga muvofiq bo'lmagan vazifalarni bajarish natijasida xulosa qilinadi; to'ridan-to'g'ri sinovdan farqli o'laroq	an assessment method in which the test-taker is not required to perform the target task; rather, inference is made from performance on non-target tasks; as opposed to direct testing
informal assessment	tasodifiy, rejadan tashqari shar'lar va javoblar, shuningdek, o'quvchiga murabbiylik va boshqa tezkor javoblar	incidental, unplanned comments and responses, along with coaching and other impromptu feedback to the student
information transfer	bir malakadan qayta ishlangan ma'lumot (masalan, telefon xabarini tinglash) boshqa ko'nikmalarni bajarish uchun	a process in which information processed from one skill (e.g., listening to a telephone message) is used to perform

	foydalaniladigan jarayon (masalan, telefon qo'niroini qaytarish uchun ism raqamni yozish)	another skill (e.g., writing down name/number to return a phone call)
institutionalized expression	shaklda aniqlangan va ijtimoiy taosir o'tkazish uchun ishlatiladigan uzoqroq so'zlashuv (masalan, "qanday qilasiz?")	a longer utterance that is fixed in form and used for social interaction (e.g., "how do you do?")
integrative test	til kompetensiyasini grammatika, so'z boyligi, o'qish, yozish, gapirish va tinglashning o'zaro taosir qobiliyatlarining yagona to'plami sifatida ko'rib chiqadigan test	a test that treats language competence as a unified set of interacting abilities of grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, speaking, and listening
interactive (skills)	tildan foydalanishda bir nechta ko'nikmalardan foydalanishni (o'qish, yozish, gapirish va tinglash) birlashtirish	combining the use of more than one skill (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) in using language
low-frequency word	yozma yoki og'zaki matnlarda kamdan-kam uchraydigan so'z; yuqori chastotali so'zdan farqli o'laroq	a word that seldom or rarely appears in written or spoken texts; as opposed to high-frequency word
macroskill	jumla darajasidan tashqaridagi til kompetensiyasini o'z ichiga olgan lisoniy kompetensiyalar (nutq, pragmatik, ritorik vositalar); mikroskilldan farqli o'laroq	linguistic competencies that involve language competence beyond the sentence level (discourse, pragmatics, rhetorical devices); as opposed to microskill
measurement	aniq protseduralar yoki qoidalarga muvofiq sinovdan o'tgan shaxsning ish faoliyatini miqdoriy aniqlash jarayoni	a process of quantifying a test-taker's performance according to explicit procedures or rules

mechanical task	test topshiruvchisi nimani ishlab chiqarishini oldindan belgilaydigan vazifa (masalan, ovoz chiqarib o'qish yoki gapni takrorlash)	a task that determines in advance what the test-taker will produce (e.g., reading aloud or sentence repetition)
multiple-choice test	predmetlar ikki yoki undan ortiq ro'yxatlangan variantlar orasida tanlov beruvchiga tanlov taklif qiladigan ba'olash vositasi	an assessment instrument in which items offer the testtaker a choice among two or more listed options
multiple intelligences	intellektning anoanaviy IQ asosidagi tushunchalardan tashqariga chiqadigan turlari, masalan, fazoviy, musiqiy, kinestetik, tabiatshunoslik, shaxslararo va shaxslararo intellekt	types of intelligence that extend beyond traditional IQbased concepts, such as spatial, musical, kinesthetic, naturalist, interpersonal, and intrapersonal intelligence
narrative evaluation	o'quvchining faoliyati to'risidagi individual yozma mulo'azalar shakli, baosida harflar baxosiga alternativa yoki qo'shimcha sifatida ishlatiladi	a form of individualized written feedback about a student's performance, sometimes used as an alternative or supplement to a letter grade
norm-referenced test	har bir test topshiruvchining ballari o'rtacha (o'rtacha ball), median (o'rtacha ball), standart o'ish (ballarning farqlanish darajasi) va yoki foizli darajaga qarab sharxlanadigan test	a test in which each test-taker's score is interpreted in relation to a mean (average score), median (middle score), standard deviation (extent of variance in scores), and/or percentile rank
objective tests	oldindan aniqlangan javoblarga ega bo'lgan testlar	tests that have predetermined fixed responses
options	test topshiruvchisi tili o'quv dasturi yoki maktabda tanlashi mumkin bo'lgan turli xil	different responses from which a test-taker can choose in an item language curriculum or

	javoblar	school
practicality	testni ishlab chiqishva boshqarish uchun mavjud bo'lgan resurslar va vaqt qay darajada boshqarilishi mumkinligi	the extent to which resources and time available to design, develop, and administer a test are manageable and feasible
prefabricated language	yangi jummalarni yaratish uchun modellarni taqdim etadigan tayyor jumla va butun jumlar yoki yodlangan jumlar	ready-made sentence stems and whole sentences or memorized chunks of sentences that provide models for the creation of new sentences
primary-trait scoring	yozuv testida, matnning asosiy maqsadiga erishishda samaradorligini ko'rsatadigan yagona ball	in a writing test, a single score indicating the effectiveness of the text in achieving its primary goal
process	tilni tushunish yoki ishlab chiqarish uchun foydalaniladigan protseduralarga (qadamlar, strategiyalar, vositalar, qobiliyatlar) qatnashish; ma'sulotdan farqli o'laroq	attending to the procedures (steps, strategies, tools, abilities) used to comprehend or produce language; as opposed to product
product	lingvistik xarakterning yakuniy natijalariga (masalan, yozma ravishda, "yakuniy" qog'ozga, qog'ozni tuzishda ishtirok etadigan turli bosqichlarga nisbatan) qatnashish; jarayondan farqli o'laroq	attending to the end result of a linguistic action (e.g., in writing, the "final" paper, versus the various steps involved in composing the paper); as opposed to process
proficiency test	til bo'yicha biron bir kurs, o'quv dasturi yoki bitta ko'nikma bilan cheklanmagan test; aksincha, bu umumiy global qobiliyatni sinovdan o'tkazadi	a test that is not limited to any one course, curriculum, or single skill in the language; rather, it tests overall global ability

rubrics	talaba reyting shkalasida maolum bir nuqtada nimalarni amalga oshirishi mumkinligini tavsiflovchi bayonotlar; ba'zan tasma tavsiflovchi deb 'am ataladi	statements that describe what a student can perform at a particular point on a rating scale; sometimes also called band descriptors
subjective tests	oldindan aniqlangan yoki mutlaqo to'g'ri javoblarning yo'qligi to'g'ri va noto'g'ri javoblarni aniqlash uchun o'qituvchining xukmini talab qiladigan testlar	tests in which the absence of predetermined or absolutely correct responses require the judgment of the teacher to determine correct and incorrect answers
subtechnical word	bir qator registrlar yoki predmet soxalarida uchraydigan so'z	a word that occurs across a range of registers or subject areas
summative test	talaba nimani anglaganini o'lchash yoki umumlashtirishga qaratilgan va odatda kurs yoki o'qitish birligi oxirida sodir bo'ladigan test	a test that aims to measure, or summarize, what a student has grasped and typically occurs at the end of a course or unit of instruction
supply items	test topshiruvchisi javoblar uchun tanlashi mumkin bo'lgan variantlar	options a test-taker can choose from for responses
task	xaqiqiy maqsad, muammo yoki talabni amalga oshiradigan lingvistik xarakterli majmui yoki topshiriq	a set or subset of linguistic actions that accomplish a real-world purpose, problem, or demand
task-based assessment	o'quvchilarni o'lchashni rejalashtirgan xatti-xarakterli amalga oshirishda ishtirok etadigan baxolashlar	assessments that involve learners in actually performing the behavior that one purports to measure
test	insonning ma'lum bir soxadagi qobiliyatini, bilimni yoki	a method or procedure for measuring a person's ability,

	ishlashini o'lchash usuli yoki tartibi	knowledge, or performance in a given domain
validity	baxolash natijalaridan kelib chiqadigan xulosalar darajasi, maqsadga muvofiq ravishda mazmunli va foydalidir	the extent to which inferences made from assessment results are appropriate, meaningful, and useful in terms of the purpose of the assessment
concurrent validity	test natijalarini testning o'zidan tashqarida bo'lgan boshqa nisbatan so'nggi ko'rsatkichlar bilan qo'llab-quvvatlash darajasi	the extent to which results of a test are supported by other relatively recent performance beyond the test itself
consequential validity	testning ta'siri, shu jumladan uning mo'ljallangan mezonlarni o'lchashdagi aniqligi, test sinovlarini topshiruvchilarni tayyorlashga ta'siri va testni talqin qilish va ulardan foydalanishning (mo'ljallangan va kutilmagan) ijtimoiy oqibatlari kabi fikrlar.	a test's impact, including such considerations as its accuracy in measuring intended criteria, its effect on the preparation of test-takers, and the (intended and unintended) social consequences of a test's interpretation and use
construct validity	inoikos olamidagi kuzatilgan xodisalarni tushuntirishga urinadigan xar qanday nazariya, gipoteza yoki model	any theory, hypothesis, or model that attempts to explain observed phenomena in one's universe of perceptions
content-related validity	test natijalari, natijada xulosalar chiqarilishi kerak bo'lgan mavzuni qanchalik aniq namunalar	the extent to which a test actually samples the subject matter about which conclusions are to be drawn
criterion-related validity	testning lingvistik mezonlari (masalan, belgilangan sinf maqsadlari)ning o'lchanadigan darajasi va oldindan belgilangan darajadagi natijalarga erishilganligi	the extent to which the linguistic criteria of the test (e.g., specified classroom objectives) are measured and implied predetermined levels of performance are actually

		reached
face validity	Sinov ishtirokchisi baxoni adolatli, dolzarb va o'rganishni takomillashtirish uchun foydali deb baxolash darajasi	The extent to which a test-taker views the assessment as fair, relevant, and useful for improving learning
predictive validity	kelajakda ishlashni baxolash uchun test natijalaridan qay darajada foydalaniladi	the extent to which results of a test are used to gauge future performance
washback	ba'olashning sinfda o'qitish va o'rganishga ta'siri	the effect of assessments on classroom teaching and learning

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