



O'ZBEKISTON MILLIY UNIVERSITETI |
HUZURIDAGI PEDAGOG KADRLARNI
QAYTA TAYYORLASH VA ULARNING
MALAKASINI OSHIRISH TARMOQ
(MINTAQAVIY) MARKAZI

XORIJIY TILLAR FANINI O'QITISHNING ZAMONAVIY METODLARI

MODULI BO'YICHA
**O'QUV-USLUBIY
MAJMU'A**

2024

OLIY TA'LIM, FAN VA INNOVATSIYALAR VAZIRLIGI

**OLIY TA'LIM TIZIMI KADRLARINI QAYTA TAYYORLASH VA
MALAKASINI OSHIRISH INSTITUTI**

**O'ZBEKISTON MILLIY UNIVERSITETI HUZURIDAGI PEDAGOG
KADRLARNI QAYTA TAYYORLASH VA ULARNING MALAKASINI
OSHIRISH TARMOQ (MINTAQAVIY) MARKAZI**

“Xorijiy tillar fanini o'qitishning zamonaviy metodlari”

**MODULI BO'YICHA
O'QUV – USLUBIY MAJMU'A**

Toshkent – 2024

Mazkur o‘quv-uslubiy majmua Oliy ta’lim, fan va innovatsiyalar vazirligining 2023-yil 25-avgustdagi 391-sonli buyrug‘i bilan tasdiqlangan o‘quv reja va dastur asosida tayyorlandi.

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O‘quv-uslubiy majmua O‘zbekiston Milliy universiteti Kengashining 2024-yil 20-yanvardagi 4/2- sonli qarori bilan nashrga tavsiya qilingan.

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I. ISHCHI DASTUR

KIRISH

Ushbu dastur O‘zbekiston Respublikasining 2020-yil 23-sentabrda tasdiqlangan “Ta’lim to‘g‘risida”gi Qonuni, O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2015 yil 12 iyundagi “Oliy ta’lim muassasalarining rahbar va pedagog kadrlarini qayta tayyorlash va malakasini oshirish tizimini yanada takomillashtirish to‘g‘risida”gi PF-4732-son, 2019-yil 27-avgustdagi “Oliy ta’lim muassasalari rahbar va pedagog kadrlarining uzluksiz malakasini oshirish tizimini joriy etish to‘g‘risida”gi PF-5789-son, 2019-yil 8-oktabrdagi “O‘zbekiston Respublikasi oliy ta’lim tizimini 2030 yilgacha rivojlantirish konsepsiyasini tasdiqlash to‘g‘risida”gi PF-5847-son, 2022-yil 28- yanvardagi “2022- 2026 yillarga mo‘ljallangan Yangi O‘zbekistonning taraqqiyot strategiyasi to‘g‘risida”gi PF-60-son, 2023-yil 25-yanvardagi “Respublika ijro etuvchi hokimiyat organlari faoliyatini samarali yo‘lga qo‘yishga doir birinchi navbatdagi tashkiliy chora-tadbirlar to‘g‘risida”gi PF-14-son Farmonlari, shuningdek, O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Vazirlar Mahkamasining 2019-yil 23-sentabrdagi “Oliy ta’lim muassasalari rahbar va pedagog kadrlarining malakasini oshirish tizimini yanada takomillashtirish bo‘yicha qo‘shimcha chora-tadbirlar to‘g‘risida”gi 797-son Qarorida belgilangan ustuvor vazifalar mazmunidan kelib chiqqan holda tuzilgan bo‘lib, u oliy ta’lim 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 doirasida berilayotgan mavzular ta’lim sohasi bo‘yicha pedagog kadrlarni qayta tayyorlash va malakasini oshirish mazmuni, sifati va ularning tayyorgarligiga qo‘yiladigan umumiy malaka talablari va o‘quv rejalari asosida shakllantirilgan bo‘lib, uning mazmuni yangi O‘zbekistonning taraqqiyot strategiyasi va jamiyatning ma’naviy asoslarini yoritib berish, oliy ta’limning normativ-huquqiy asoslari bo‘yicha ta’lim-tarbiya jarayonlarini tashkil etish, pedagogik faoliyatda raqamli kompetensiyalarni rivojlantirish, ilmiy-innovatsion faoliyat darajasini oshirish, pedagogning kasbiy kompetensiyalarini rivojlantirish, ta’lim sifatini ta’minlashda baholash metodikalaridan samarali foydalanish, biologiya fanini o‘qitishda IT (information texnologiyalar) ma’lumot materiallaridan foydalanish, biologik makromolekulalar va ularning ahamiyatini ochib berish, organizmda energiya almashinuv jarayonlarini tahlil etish va baholash bo‘yicha tegishli bilim, ko‘nikma, malaka va kompetensiyalarni rivojlantirishga yo‘naltirilgan.

Qayta tayyorlash va malaka oshirish kursining o‘quv dasturi quyidagi modullar mazmunini o‘z ichiga qamrab oladi:

Kursning maqsadi va vazifalari

Oliy ta’lim muassasalari pedagog kadrlarini qayta tayyorlash va ularning malakasini oshirish kursining **maqsadi** pedagog kadrlarning innovatsion

yondoshuvlar asosida o‘quv-tarbiyaviy jarayonlarni yuksak ilmiy-metodik darajada loyihalashtirish, sohadagi ilg‘or tajribalar, zamonaviy bilim va malakalarni o‘zlashtirish va amaliyotga joriy etishlari uchun zarur bo‘ladigan kasbiy bilim, ko‘nikma va malakalarini takomillashtirish, shuningdek ularning ijodiy faolligini rivojlantirishdan iborat

Kursning **vazifalariga** quyidagilar kiradi:

“Filologiya va tillarni o‘qitish: ingliz tili” yo‘nalishida pedagog kadrlarning kasbiy bilim, ko‘nikma, malakalarini takomillashtirish va rivojlantirish;

- pedagoglarning ijodiy-innovatsion faollik darajasini oshirish;

-pedagog kadrlar tomonidan zamonaviy axborot-kommunikatsiya texnologiyalari, zamonaviy ta‘lim va innovatsion texnologiyalar sohasidagi ilg‘or xorijiy tajribalarning o‘zlashtirilishini ta‘minlash;

- o‘quv jarayonini tashkil etish va uning sifatini ta‘minlash borasidagi ilg‘or xorijiy tajribalar, zamonaviy yondashuvlarni o‘zlashtirish;

- **“Filologiya va tillarni o‘qitish: ingliz tili”** yo‘nalishida qayta tayyorlash va malaka oshirish jarayonlarini fan va ishlab chiqarishdagi innovatsiyalar bilan o‘zaro integratsiyasini ta‘minlash.

Kurs yakunida tinglovchilarning bilim, ko‘nikma va malakalari hamda kompetensiyalariga qo‘yiladigan talablar:

Qayta tayyorlash va malaka oshirish kursining o‘quv modullari bo‘yicha tinglovchilar quyidagi yangi bilim, ko‘nikma, malaka hamda kompetensiyalarga ega bo‘lishlari talab etiladi:

Tinglovchi:

•2022- 2026 yillarga mo‘ljallangan Yangi O‘zbekistonning taraqqiyot strategiyasining davlat va jamiyat hayotini takomillashtirishdagi o‘rni va ahamiyatini;

•O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Konstitutsiyasining asosiy prinsiplarini;

•Oliy ta‘lim sohasiga oid qonun hujjatlari va ularning mazmunini;

•O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining oliy ta‘lim tizimiga oid farmonlari, qarorlarini;

•O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Vazirlar Mahkamasining oliy ta‘lim tizimiga tegishli qarorlarini;

•Oliy ta‘lim, fan va innovatsiya vazirligining ta‘lim jarayonlarini rejalashtirish va tashkil etishga oid buyruqlarini;

•Davlat ta‘lim standartlari, ta‘lim yo‘nalishlari va magistratura mutaxassisliklarining Malaka talablari, o‘quv rejalari, fan dasturlari va ularga qo‘yiladigan talablarni, o‘quv yuklamalarini rejalashtirish va ularning bajarilishini nazorat qilish usullarini;

• ta‘lim jarayonini raqamli transformatsiyasini;

• raqamli ta‘lim resurslari va dasturiy mahsulotlarini;

• raqamli ta‘lim resursini pedagogik loyihalash texnologiyasini;

• mediasavodxonlik va xavfsizlik asoslarini;

- raqamli ta'lim resurslarini loyihalash uchun asosiy talablarni;
- jahonda oliy ta'lim rivojlanish tendensiyalari: umumiy trendlar va strategik yo'nalishlarni;
- zamonaviy ta'limning global trendlarini;
- inson kapitalining iqtisodiy o'sishning asosiy omili sifatida rivojlanishida ta'limning yoshdagi ahamiyatini;
- oliy ta'limning zamonaviy integratsiyasi: global va mintaqaviy makonda raqobatchilikdagi ustuvorliklari, universitetlarning xalqaro va milliy reytingini;
- xalqaro reyting turlari va ularning indikatorlarini;
- zamonaviy universitet jamiyatning faol, ko'pqirrali va samarali faoliyat yurituvchi instituti sifatidagi uchta yirik vazifalarini;
- universitetlarning zamonaviy modellarini;
- zamonaviy kelajak universitetlarning beshta asosiy modellarini;
- tadbirkorlik universiteti faoliyatining muhim yo'nalishlarini;
- pedagogning kasbiy kompetensiyalarini rivojlantirishning nazariy asoslarini;
- innovatsion ta'lim muhiti sharoitida pedagogning kasbiy kompetensiyalarini rivojlantirish yo'llarini;
- kasbiy kompetensiyalarning mazmun va mohiyatini;
- kasbiy kompetensiyalar va ularning o'ziga xos xususiyatlarini;
- pedagogik texnikaning asosiy komponentlarini;
- pedagogik texnikani shakllantirish yo'llarini;
- kasbiy kompetensiyalarni rivojlantirish jarayonini tashkil etishda innovatsion, akmeologik, aksiologik, kreativ, reflektiv, texnologik, kompetentli, psixologik, andragogik yondashuvlar va xalqaro tajribalar hamda ularning kasbiy kompetensiyalarni rivojlantirishga ta'sirini;
- kasbiy kompetensiyalarni rivojlantirish jarayonida pedagogik deontologiyaning roli, ahamiyatini;
- kasbiy kompetensiyalarni rivojlantirishda uchraydigan to'siqlarni yechishda, to'g'ri harakatlar qilishda pedagogning kompetentlik va kreativlik darajasi, pedagogik kvalimetriyasini;
- talabalar kasbiy tayyorgarlik sifatini kompleks baholashning nazariyasini;
- ta'lim sifatiga ta'sir etuvchi omillarni;
- kredit-modul tizimida talabalarning bilimi, ko'nikmasi, malakasi va kompetensiyalarini nazorat qilish va baholashning o'ziga xos xususiyatlari, didaktik funksiyalarini;
- baholash turlari, tamoyillari va mezonlarini;
- amaliy xorijiy tilni o'qitish jarayonini tashkil etish, uni rejalashtirish va baholash metodlarini;
- lingvistik va madaniyatlararo kompetensiyalarni baholashni;
- ta'lim jarayonida nutq kommunikatsiyasi elementlari, sotsiolingvistik elementlar, pragmatik elementlar, baholashning asosiy turlarini;
- portfolio tuzish, CEFR tizimi bo'yicha baholash, testlarni ishlab chiqish prinsiplarini;

- xorijiy tillarni umumevropa standartlari talablari asosida o‘qitishning lingvistik aspektlarini;
- bilimlar tuzilmalari va axborotning aks ettirilishi yo‘llarini o‘rganishga qaratilgan kognitiv metodlarni;
- ingliz tilida insho yozish mahorati va analiz qilish masalalarini;
- til o‘qitishda eshitish ko‘nikmasining ahamiyatini;
- til o‘rgatish jarayonida kuzatishning ahamiyatini;
- darslarni kuzatish orqali o‘qituvchining til o‘qitish mahoratni oshirish masalalarini;
- til o‘qitishda dars ishlanma tuzish va uning ahamiyatli jihatlarini *bilishi* kerak.

Tinglovchi:

- 2022- 2026 yillarga mo‘ljallangan Yangi O‘zbekistonning taraqqiyot strategiyasining asosiy yo‘nalish va maqsadlarini tahlil etish va baholash;
- O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Vazirlar Mahkamasining Oliy ta’lim tizimiga tegishli qarorlari asosida ta’lim-tarbiya jarayonlarini tashkil etish;
- xorijiy tajribalar asosida malaka talablari, o‘quv rejalari va fan dasturlarini takomillashtirish;
- multimedia va infografika asosida interaktiv didaktik mayeriallar yaratish va bulut xizmatlarida saqlash;
- masofiviy ta’lim platformalari uchun video kontent yaratish;
- Internetda mualliflik huquqlarini himoya qilish usullaridan foydalanish;
- raqamli ta’lim resurslari sifatini baholash;
- OTMlarni reyting bo‘yicha ranjirlash;
- jahon universitetlari reytingini tahlil etish va baholash;
- universitetlarni mustaqil baholash yondashuvlarini aniqlashtirish;
- tadbirkorlik universitetiga o‘tish uchun zarur bo‘ladigan o‘zgarishlarni aniqlash;
- Universitet 1.0 dan Universitet 3.0 modeliga o‘tish borasidagi muammolarni aniqlash;
- zamonaviy tadbirkorlik universiteti modeli tamoyillarini o‘zlashtirish;
- pedagoglarning kreativ potentsiali tushunchasi va mohiyatini ochib berish;
- pedagoglar kasbiy kompetensiyalarini rivojlantirishning innovatsion texnologiyalarini qo‘llash;
- o‘qituvchi faoliyatida pedagogik texnikaning ahamiyatini yoritib berish;
- tinglovchilar diqqatini o‘ziga tortish usullaridan foydalanish;
- kasbiy kompetensiyalarni shakllantirish va rivojlantirish yo‘llarini tahlil etish;
- kasbiy kompetensiyalarni rivojlantirish jarayonida uchraydigan to‘siqlar, qiyinchiliklar va ularni bartaraf etish;

- talabalarning o‘quv auditoriyadagi faoliyatini baholash;
- talabalarning kurs ishi, bitiruv malakaviy ishi, o‘quv-malakaviy amaliyot (mehnat faoliyati)ini nazorat qilish;
- baholashning miqdor va sifat tahlilini amalga oshirish;
- mavzuga oid olimlar tomonidan bildirilgan fikrlarni tahlil qilish;
- matn bilan ishlash malakalarini shakllantirish va matnni tahlil qilish;
- chet tili darslarida gramatikani matn asosida o‘qitish;
- ingliz tili darslarida baholash va baholash turlarini qo‘llash;
- bilimlar tuzilmalari va axborotning aks ettirilishi yo‘llarini o‘rganishga qaratilgan kognitiv metodlardan foydalanish *ko‘nikmalariga* ega bo‘lishi lozim.

Tinglovchi:

- “Yangi O‘zbekiston – ma‘rifatli jamiyat” konsepsiyasining mazmun-mohiyatini yoritib berish;
- Oliy ta‘lim, fan va innovatsiya vazirligining ta‘lim-tarbiya jarayonini tashkil etishga oid buyruqlari, Davlat ta‘lim standartlari, ta‘lim yo‘nalishlarining va magistratura mutaxassisliklarining malaka talablari, o‘quv rejalar va fan dasturlarini takomillashtirish;
- o‘quv yuklamalarni rejalashtirish va ularning bajarilishini nazorat qilish;
- meyoriy uslubiy hujjatlarni ishlab chiqish amaliyotini takomillashtirish mexanizmlarini tahlil etish;
- an‘anaviy va raqamli ta‘limda pedagogik dizaynning xususiyatlarini ochib berish;
- onlayn mashg‘ulotlarni tashkil etishda raqamli texnologiyalardan foydalanish;
- mediasavodxonlik va xavfsizlik asoslarini o‘zlashtirish;
- pedagogik faoliyatda raqamli kompetensiyalarni rivojlantirish;
- raqamli ta‘lim resurslaridan foydalanish;
- xalqaro reyting turlari va ularning indikatorlarining ahamiyatini ochib berish;
- OTM reytingiga ta‘sir etuvchi omillarni tahlil etish;
- universitetlarning zamonaviy modellarini o‘rganish;
- OTM bitiruvchilari va xodimlari tomonidan texnologiyalar transferiga litsenziyalar oluvchi startaplarni shakllantirish va yaratish;
- professor-o‘qituvchilarning tadqiqotchi sifatidagi nashr faolligini rivojlantirish istiqbollari tahlil etish;
- innovatsion ta‘lim muhiti sharoitida pedagogning kasbiy kompetensiyalarini rivojlantirish;
- pedagog kasbiy kompetensiyalarini rivojlantirish hususiyatlarini tahlil etish va baholash;
- ijtimoiy va kasbiy tajribaga asoslangan intellektual mashqlarni ishlab chiqish;

- o‘quv jarayoni ishtirokchilarini bir-birlari bilan tanishtirish, samimiy do‘stona munosabat va ijodiy muhitni yuzaga keltirish, tinglovchilarning ijodiy imkoniyati va shaxsiy sifatlarini ochish, tinglovchilarning hamkorlikda ishlashlari uchun qulay sharoitni vujudga keltirish;

- tinglovchilarning kasbiy kompetensiyalarini o‘rganish, tanishish;
- kasbiy kompetensiyalarni rivojlantirish jarayonida pedagogik deontologiyaning roli, ahamiyatini ochib berish;

- ta’lim sifatiga ta’sir etuvchi omillar (moddiy-texnik baza, professor-o‘qituvchilarning salohiyati va o‘quv-metodik ta’minot)ni tahlil etish va baholash;

- talabalarning o‘quv auditoriyadan tashqari faoliyatini baholash;
- talabalarning o‘quv auditoriyadan tashqari faoliyatini baholashda o‘quv topshiriqlari (reproduktiv, produktiv, qisman-izlanishli, kreativ (ijodiy) murakkablik)ni ishlab chiqish metodikasidan samarali foydalanish;

- lingvistik va madaniyatlararo kompetensiyalarni baholash;
- amaliy xorijiy tilni o‘qitish jarayonini tashkil etish, uni rejalashtirish va baholash metodlarini hozirgi kun talablari asosida tashkil etish metodikasini o‘zlashtirish;

- ingliz tili darslarini fanlararo bog‘liqlikka asoslanib o‘qitish;
- chet tili o‘qitish jarayonida muammoli vaziyatlardan foydalanish; *malakalariga* ega bo‘lishi zarur.

Tinglovchi:

- Yangi O‘zbekistonning taraqqiyot strategiyasi va jamiyatning ma’naviy asoslarini mazmun-mohiyatini yoritib berish:

- O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy ta’lim, fan va innovatsiya vazirligining buyruqlari asosida ta’lim-tarbiya jarayonlarini tashkil etish;

- Davlat ta’lim standartlari, malaka talablari, o‘quv rejalar va fan dasturlar asosida fanning ishchi dasturini ishlab chiqish amal qilish va ularni ijrosini ta’minlash;

- raqamli ta’lim resurslari va dasturiy mahsulotlarini o‘quv jarayoniga faol tatbiq etilishini tashkil etish;

- raqamli ta’lim resursini pedagogik loyihalash texnologiyasi asoslarini o‘zlashtirish;

- raqamli ta’lim muhitida pedagogik dizaynga oid innovatsiyalarni amaliyotga tatbiq etish;

- universitetlarning xalqaro va milliy reytingini baholash;

- OTMlarda talim, ilmiy va innovatsion faoliyatni rivojlantirish, ilmiy tadqiqot natijalarni tijoratlashtirish yo‘llarini tahlil etish va amaliyotga tadbiq etish;

- «Amaliyotchi professorlar» (PoP, Professor of Practice) modelini qo‘llash;

- professor-o‘qituvchilarning tadqiqotchi sifatidagi nashr faolligini rivojlantirish istiqbollari yoritib berish;
- pedagogning kasbiy kompetensiyalarini rivojlantirishning nazariy asoslarini amaliyotga tadbiiq etish;
- pedagogning kasbiy kompetensiyalarini rivojlantirishning pedagogik-psixologik trayektoriyalarini ishlab chiqish;
- kasbiy kompetensiyalarni rivojlantirish jarayonida uchraydigan to‘siqlarning xilma-xilligi va o‘ziga xos xususiyatlari, sabablarini amaliy tomonlarini yoritish, ularni yechish bosqichlarini guruh bilan birgalikda aniqlash;
- talabalar kasbiy tayyorgarlik sifatini kompleks baholash;
- talabalar kasbiy tayyorgarlik sifatini kompleks baholashning elektron monitoring tizimini yuritish;
- talabalarning ta’limiy (o‘quv predmetlari), tarbiyaviy (ma’naviy-ma’rifiy tadbirlar) va rivojlantiruvchi (ilmiy-tadqiqot ishi, start-up loyihalar) maqsadlarini baholash;
- o‘quv maqsadlari va kutilayotgan natijalarni to‘g‘ri belgilay olish, baholash, fikr-mulohazaga asoslangan baholash mexanizmini mustaqil holda tashkil etish;
- an’anaviy va zamonaviy tahlil metodlari asosida lisoniy va madaniy tuzilmalarning o‘zaro munosabatini aniqlash va tahlil o‘tkazish;
- ingliz tili darsida topshiriqlarning osondan murakkablikka o‘sh holati ahamiyatlarini ochib berish;
- ingliz tilini o‘yin va rolli o‘yinlar orqali tashkillashtirish **kompetensiyalariga** ega bo‘lishi lozim.

Modulni tashkil etish va o‘tkazish bo‘yicha tavsiyalar

- Modulni o‘qitish ma’ruza va amaliy mashg‘ulotlar shaklida olib boriladi.
- Modulni o‘qitish jarayonida ta’limning zamonaviy metodlari, pedagogik texnologiyalar va axborot-kommunikatsiya texnologiyalari qo‘llanilishi nazarda tutilgan:
 - ma’ruza darslarida zamonaviy kompyuter texnologiyalari yordamida prezentatsion va elektron-didaktik texnologiyalardan;
 - o‘tkaziladigan amaliy mashg‘ulotlarda texnik vositalardan, ekspres-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 “Yangi O‘zbekistonning taraqqiyot strategiyasi va jamiyatning ma’naviy asoslari”, “Oliy ta’limning normativ-huquqiy asoslari”, “Pedagogik faoliyatda raqamli kompetensiyalar” “Ilmiy va innovatsion faoliyatni rivojlantirish”, “Pedagogning kasbiy kompetensiyalarini rivojlantirish” “Ta’lim sifatini ta’minlashda baholash metodikalari”, “Tillarni o‘qitish va o‘rgatishda til bilish darajasini oshirish mahoratlari” mutaxassislik o‘quv modullari bilan uzviy bog‘langan holda pedagoglarning ta’lim jarayonida kasbiy pedagogik tayyorgarlik darajasini oshirishga xizmat qiladi.

Modulning oliy ta’limdagi o‘rni

Modulni o‘zlashtirish orqali tinglovchilar ta’lim jarayonida genom tadqiq etishga, katta ma’lumotlar va nukleotid va oqsil ketma-ketliklar ma’lumotlar bazasi tizimlaridan foydalanish va amalda qo‘llashga doir kasbiy kompetentlikka ega bo‘ladilar.

Xorijiy tillar fanini o‘qitishning zamonaviy metodlari moduli bo‘yicha soatlar taqsimoti

№	Modul mavzulari	Auditoriya uquv yuklamasi			
		Jami	jumladan		
			Nazariy	Amaliy mashg‘	Ko‘chma mashg‘
1.	Amaliy xorijiy tilni o‘qitish jarayonini tashkil etish, uni rejalashtirish va baholash metodlarini hozirgi kun talablari asosida tashkil etish metodikasini o‘zlashtirish.	10	2	2	6
2.	Amaliy xorijiy tilni o‘qitish jarayonini tashkil etish, uni rejalashtirish va baholash metodlari.	4	2	2	
3.	Portfolio tuzish, CEFR tizimi bo‘yicha baholash, testlarni ishlab chiqish prinsiplari.	10	2	2	6
4.	Xorijiy tillarni umumevropa standartlari talablari asosida o‘qitishning lingvistik aspektlari.	4	2	2	
	Jami:	28	8	8	12

NAZARIY VA AMALIY MASHG‘ULOTLAR MAZMUNI

1-mavzu: Amaliy xorijiy tilni o‘qitish jarayonini tashkil etish, uni rejalashtirish va baholash metodlarini hozirgi kun talablari asosida tashkil etish metodikasini o‘zlashtirish.

Amaliy xorijiy tilni o‘qitish jarayonini tashkil etish, uni rejalashtirish va baholash metodlarini hozirgi kun talablari asosida tashkil etish metodikasini o‘zlashtirish.

2-mavzu: Amaliy xorijiy tilni o‘qitish jarayonini tashkil etish, uni

rejalashtirish va baholash metodlari.

Amaliy xorijiy tilni o‘qitish jarayonini tashkil etish, uni rejalashtirish va baholash metodlari. Lingvistik va madaniyatlararo kompetensiyalarni baholash. Ta’lim jarayonida nutq kommunikatsiyasi elementlari, sotsiolingvistik elementlar, pragmatik elementlar, baholashning asosiy turlarini o‘zlashtirish. Mavzuga oid olimlar tomonidan bildirilgan fikrlarni tahlil qilish.

3-mavzu: Portfolio tuzish, CEFR tizimi bo‘yicha baholash, testlarni ishlab chiqish prinsiplari.

Portfolio tuzish, CEFR tizimi bo‘yicha baholash, testlarni ishlab chiqish prinsiplari. O‘quv maqsadlari va kutilayotgan natijalarni to‘g‘ri belgilay olish, baholash, fikr-mulohazaga asoslangan baholash mexanizmini mustaqil holda tashkil etish.

4-mavzu: Xorijiy tillarni umumevropa standartlari talablari asosida o‘qitishning lingvistik aspektlari.

Xorijiy tillarni umumevropa standartlari talablari asosida o‘qitishning lingvistik aspektlari. Matn bilan ishlash malakalarini shakllantirish va matnni tahlil qilish. An’anaviy va zamonaviy tahlil metodlari asosida lisoniy va madaniy tuzilmalarning o‘zaro munosabatini aniqlash va tahlil o‘tkazish. Bilimlar tuzilmalari va axborotning aks ettirilishi yo‘llarini o‘rganishga qaratilgan kognitiv metodlar.

KO‘CHMA MASHG‘ULOT MAZMUNI

Ko‘chma mashg‘ulot O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Fanlar Akademiyasi institutlari va universitetning tayanch kafedralarda o‘tkaziladi.

O‘QITISH SHAKLLARI

- Mazkur modul bo‘yicha quyidagi o‘qitish shakllaridan foydalaniladi:
- ma’ruzalar, amaliy mashg‘ulotlar (ma’lumotlar va texnologiyalarni anglab olish, aqliy qiziqishni rivojlantirish, nazariy bilimlarni mustahkamlash);
- davra suhbatlari (ko‘rilayotgan loyiha yechimlari bo‘yicha taklif berish qobiliyatini oshirish, eshitish, idrok qilish va mantiqiy xulosalar chiqarish);
- bahs va munozaralar (loyihalar yechimi bo‘yicha dalillar va asosli argumentlarni taqdim qilish, eshitish va muammolar yechimini topish qobiliyatini rivojlantirish).

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

“SWOT-tahlil” metodi.

Metodning maqsadi: mavjud nazariy bilimlar va amaliy tajribalarni tahlil qilish, taqqoslash orqali muammoni hal etish yo'llarni topishga, bilimlarni mustahkamlash, takrorlash, baholashga, mustaqil, tanqidiy fikrlashni, nostandart tafakkurni shakllantirishga xizmat qiladi.



Namuna: An'anaviy va interfaol ta'limning SWOT tahlilini ushbu jadvalga tushiring.

S	interfaol ta'limning kuchli tomonlari	talabanning bilim olishga qiziqishini kuchaytirish, mustaqil fikrlashga o'rgatish, bevosita amaliy faoliyat orqali malaka va tajribaga ega bo'lish....
W	interfaol ta'limning kuchsiz tomonlari	Auditoriyada shovqin ko'tarilishi,
O	interfaol ta'limning imkoniyatlari (ichki)	Mustaqil fikrlash, fikrni ifoda etish va isbotlash, malaka va tajribaga ega bo'lish...
T	To'siqlar (tashqi)	Zamonaviy tyexnika bilan jihozlangan auditoriya, partalarning noan'anaviy joylashuvi va o'quv qurollarning yetishmasligi

“Keys-stadi” metodi

“Keys-stadi” - inglizcha so'z bo'lib, (“case” – aniq vaziyat, hodisa, «study» – o'rganmoq, tahlil qilmoq) aniq vaziyatlarni o'rganish, tahlil qilish asosida

o‘qitishni amalga oshirishga qaratilgan metod hisoblanadi. Mazkur metod dastlab 1921-yil Garvard universitetida amaliy vaziyatlardan iqtisodiy boshqaruv fanlarini o‘rganishda foydalanish tartibida qo‘llanilgan. Keysda ochiq axborotlardan yoki aniq voqea-hodisadan vaziyat sifatida tahlil uchun foydalanish mumkin. Keys harakatlari o‘z ichiga quyidagilarni qamrab oladi: Kim (Who), Qachon (When), Qayerda (Where), Nima uchun (Why), Qanday/ Qanaqa (How), Nima-natija (What).

“Keys metodi” ni amalga oshirish bosqichlari

Ish bosqichlari	Faoliyat shakli va mazmuni
1-bosqich: Keys va uning axborot ta’minoti bilan tanishtirish	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ akka tartibdagi audio-vizual ish; ✓ eys bilan tanishish(matnli, audio yoki media shaklda); ✓ xborotni umumlashtirish; ✓ xborot tahlili; ✓ muammolarni aniqlash
2-bosqich: Keysni aniqlashtirish va o‘quv topshirig‘ni belgilash	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ individual va guruhda ishlash; ✓ muammolarni dolzarblik iyerarxiyasini aniqlash; ✓ sosiy muammoli vaziyatni belgilash
3-bosqich: Keysdagi asosiy muammoni tahlil etish orqali	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ individual va guruhda ishlash; ✓ muqobil yechim yo‘llarini ishlab chiqish; ✓ har bir yechimning imkoniyatlari va to‘siqlarni tahlil qilish; ✓ muqobil yechimlarni tanlash

o'quv topshirig'ining yechimini izlash, hal etish yo'llarini ishlab chiqish	
4- bosqich: Keys yechimini yechimini shakllantirish va asoslash, taqdimot.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ yakka va guruhda ishlash; ✓ muqobil variantlarni amalda qo'llash imkoniyatlarini asoslash; ✓ ijodiy-loyiha taqdimotini tayyorlash; ✓ yakuniy xulosa va vaziyat yechimining amaliy aspektlarini yoritish

Кейсни бажариш босқичлари ва топшириқлар:

- Кейсдаги муаммони келтириб чиқарган асосий сабабларни белгилаш (индивидуал ва кичик гуруҳда).
- Педагогик конфликтологияга оид манталарни таҳлил этиш ва ечим топшириқлар (жуфтликлардаги иш).

“Assesment” metodi

Metodning maqsadi: mazkur metod ta'lim oluvchilarning bilim darajasini baholash, nazorat qilish, o'zlashtirish ko'rsatkichi va amaliy ko'nikmalarini tekshirishga yo'naltirilgan. Mazkur texnika orqali ta'lim oluvchilarning bilish faoliyati turli yo'nalishlar (test, amaliy ko'nikmalar, muammoli vaziyatlar mashqi, qiyosiy tahlil, simptomlarni aniqlash) bo'yicha tashhis qilinadi va baholanadi.

Metodni amalga oshirish tartibi:

“Assesment” lardan ma'ruza mashg'ulotlarida talabalarning yoki qatnashchilarning mavjud bilim darajasini o'rganishda, yangi ma'lumotlarni bayon qilishda, seminar, amaliy mashg'ulotlarda esa mavzu yoki ma'lumotlarni o'zlashtirish darajasini baholash, shuningdek, o'z-o'zini baholash maqsadida individual shaklda foydalanish tavsiya etiladi. Shuningdek, o'qituvchining ijodiy

yondashuvi hamda o'quv maqsadlaridan kelib chiqib, assesmentga qo'shimcha topshiriqlarni kiritish mumkin.

Namuna. Har bir katakdagi to'g'ri javob 5 ball yoki 1-5 balgacha baholanishi mumkin.



Test DARS –

- A. O'quv faoliyatini tashkil etishning yagona shakli bo'lib, unda o'qituvchi aniq vaqt davomida turli guruhdagi o'quvchilar bilan, beqaror dars jadvali asosida turli xil o'quv shakllaridan foydalangan holda pedagog-talabanning hamkorlikdagi faoliyati tashkil etiladigan jarayon.
- B. O'quv faoliyatini tashkil etishning asosiy shakli bo'lib, unda o'qituvchi hamisha bir guruhdagi o'quvchilar bilan, barqaror dars jadvali asosida faoliyat tashkil etiladigan jarayon.
- V. O'quv faoliyatini tashkil etishning asosiy shakli bo'lib, unda o'qituvchi aniq belgilangan vaqt davomida hamisha bir guruhdagi o'quvchilar bilan, barqaror dars jadvali asosida, turli xil o'quv metodlaridan foydalangan holda pedagog-talabanning hamkorlikdagi faoliyati tashkil etiladigan jarayon.



MUAMMOLI VAZIYAT

- Dars jarayonida eshikdan direktor muovini kirib keldi va Sizni zudlik bilan direktor huzuriga chaqirayotganini aytdi. Mavzu juda qiziqarli. Siz darsni kichik guruhlarda o'tkazmoqdasiz. Sizning hatti-harakatingiz...



Tushuncha tahlili

- An'anaviy dars –
- Noan'anaviy dars -



Amaliy ko'nikma

- Faningiz bo'yicha darslaringizda qaysi innovatsion pedagogik texnologiyalarni qo'llagansiz?

Tushunchalar tahlili” metodi

Metodning maqsadi: mazkur metod talabalar yoki qatnashchilarni mavzu buyicha tayanch tushunchalarni o'zlashtirish darajasini aniqlash, o'z bilimlarini mustaqil ravishda tekshirish, baholash, shuningdek, yangi mavzu buyicha dastlabki bilimlar darajasini tashhis qilish maqsadida qo'llaniladi.

Metodni amalga oshirish tartibi:

- ishtirokchilar mashgʻulot qoidalari bilan tanishtiriladi;
- oʻquvchilarga mavzuga yoki bobga tegishli boʻlgan soʻzlar, tushunchalar nomi tushirilgan tarqatmalar beriladi (individual yoki guruhli tartibda);
- oʻquvchilar mazkur tushunchalar qanday maʼno anglatishi, qachon, qanday holatlarda qoʻllanilishi haqida yozma maʼlumot beradilar;
- belgilangan vaqt yakuniga yetgach oʻqituvchi berilgan tushunchalarning tugri va tuliq izohini uqib eshittiradi yoki slayd orqali namoyish etadi;
- har bir ishtirokchi berilgan tugri javoblar bilan uzining shaxsiy munosabatini taqqoslaydi, farqlarini aniqlaydi va oʻz bilim darajasini tekshirib, baholaydi.

Namuna: “Moduldagi tayanch tushunchalar tahlili”

Tushunchalar	Sizningcha bu tushuncha qanday maʼnoni anglatadi?	Qoʻshimcha maʼlumot
“Texnologiya”	yunoncha soʻzdan kelib chiqqan boʻlib “ <i>techne</i> ” - mahorat, sanʼat, malaka va “ <i>logos</i> ” - soʻz, taʼlimot maʼnolarini anglatadi.	
Metod	1) tabiiy va ijtimoiy hayot hodisalarini tadqiq qilish, bilish usuli; 2) harakat qilish usuli, tarzi.	
Metodika	biror ishni tashkil qilishda maqsadga muvofiq qoʻllanadigan metodlar.	
Bilim	haqiqiy borliq umumiy aksini topadi. Talabalar hodisa, voqea, qonuniyatlar toʻgʻrisidagi maʼlumotlarni oʻrganadilar va u ularning yutugʻi boʻladi.	
Koʻnikma	egallagan bilimlar asosida oʻzgaruvchan sharoitlarda birorta faoliyatni amalga oshirish qobiliyati.	
Malakalar	bu, koʻp marta takrorlash natijasidagi mashinal (beixtiyoriy), harakatlardir.	

Izoh: Ikkinchi ustunchaga qatnashchilar tomonidan fikr bildiriladi. Mazkur tushunchalar haqida qoʻshimcha maʼlumot glossariyda keltirilgan.

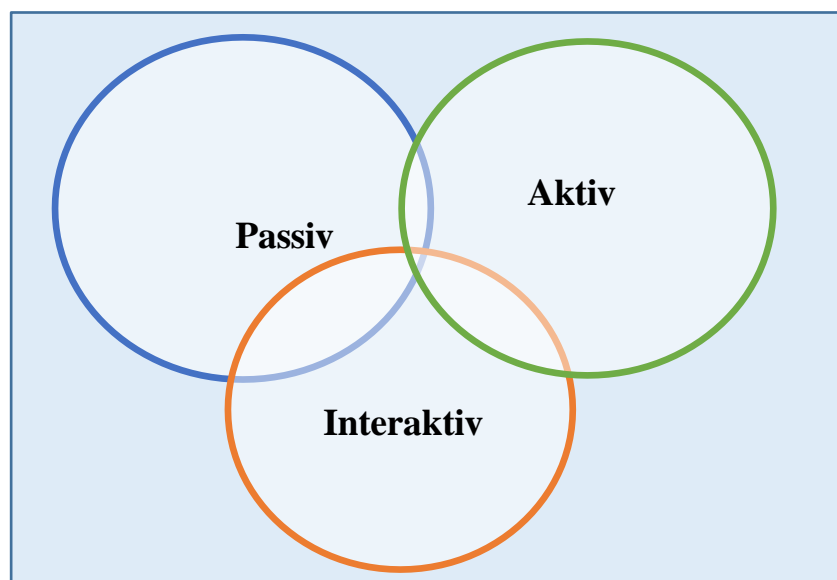
Venn Diagrammasi metodi

Metodning maqsadi: Bu metod grafik tasvir orqali oʻqitishni tashkil etish shakli boʻlib, u ikkita oʻzaro kesishgan aylana tasviri orqali ifodalanadi. Mazkur metod turli tushunchalar, asoslar, tasavurlarning analiz va sintezini ikki aspekt orqali koʻrib chiqish, ularning umumiy va farqlovchi jihatlarini aniqlash, taqqoslash imkonini beradi.

Metodni amalga oshirish tartibi:

- ◆ i
ishtirokchilar ikki kishidan iborat juftliklarga birlashtiriladilar va ularga ko‘rib chiqilayotgan tushuncha yoki asosning o‘ziga xos, farqli jihatlarini (yoki aksi) doiralarda ichiga yozib chiqish taklif etiladi;
- ◆ n
avbatdagi bosqichda ishtirokchilar to‘rt kishidan iborat kichik guruhlariga birlashtiriladi va har bir juftlik o‘z tahlili bilan guruh a‘zolarini tanishtiradilar;
- ◆ j
juftliklarning tahlili eshitilgach, ular birgalashib, ko‘rib chiqilayotgan muammo yohud tushunchalarning umumiy jihatlarini (yoki farqli) izlab topadilar, umumlashtiradilar va doirachalarning kesishgan qismiga yozadilar.

Namuna: Passiv, aktiv va interaktiv metodlarning o‘xshash va farqlari



“Brifing” metodi

“Brifing”- (ing. briefing-qisqa) biror-bir masala yoki savolning muhokamasiga bag‘ishlangan qisqa press-konferensiya.

O‘tkazish bosqichlari:

1. T
aqdimot qismi.
2. M
muhokama jarayoni (savol-javoblar asosida).

Brifinglardan trening yakunlarini tahlil qilishda foydalanish mumkin. Shuningdek, amaliy o‘yinlarning bir shakli sifatida qatnashchilar bilan birga dolzarb mavzu yoki muammo muhokamasiga bag‘ishlangan brifinglar tashkil

etish mumkin bo'ldi. Talabalar yoki tinglovchilar tomonidan yaratilgan mobil ilovalarning taqdimotini o'tkazishda ham foydalanish mumkin.

III. NAZARIY MASHG'ULOT MATERIALLARI

Lesson 1

PLANNING FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING WORKSHOP

Objective:

- to review the stages of a lesson
- to give participants an opportunity to write an outline of a lesson

Activity 1 **Stages of a lesson**

Objective: to review the stages and sequencing in a lesson; to brainstorm possible activities for different stages of a lesson

Time: 25 min

Materials: 3 sets of a scrambled lesson plan (handout 1)

► Procedure:

➤ 😊😊😊 (5 min) Put participants in groups of 6-7 and give out the scrambled lesson plan to each group (handout 1). Tell them to decide on the order of the stages of the lesson plan and line up according to the order of the activities.

➤ 😊 (5 min) Check the order of the participants in the line in each group. Refer participants to the previous session on lesson planning and elicit the stages and objectives of each step of the lesson. Ask participants the following questions:

~ *What are the stages of the lesson?*

Tell participants that 'pre-while-post' is not the only way to plan a lesson.

~ *What is the purpose of the pre activity/ while-activity/ post activity of the lesson?*

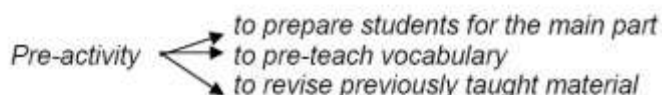
~ *What other pre/ post activities can you think of for this particular lesson?*

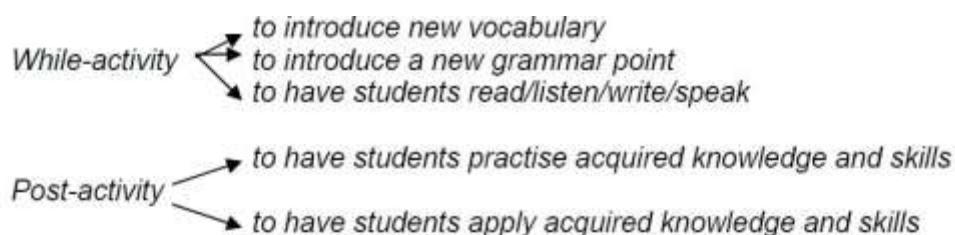
Possible answers:

- ~ pre-activity: step 1; while activity: steps 2, 3, 4, 5; post activity: steps 6, 7
- ~ pre-activity – to prepare students, pre-teach key words from the story; while-activity – to have students practise listening and speaking, practise past tense; have students speak, ask and answer questions, write down the story they liked most
- ~ possible pre-activities: teacher can use pictures to generate some vocabulary and ask students to predict the story; ask questions etc. Possible post activity: teacher can ask students to act out one of the stories.

➤ 😊 (3 min) Ask participants what the purpose of a pre-activity/while-activity/post-activity can be. Put their ideas on the flipchart.

NB: pre-activity/while-activity/post-activity are the names of the stages and each can include several activities.





- 😊😊😊 (5 min) Ask participants in groups to brainstorm what kind of activities can be used at each stage. Remind them that some activities can be used at different stages depending on the objective.

Possible answers:

	Pre-activity	While-activity	Post-activity
Objective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to prepare students for the main part of the lesson • to pre-teach vocabulary • to revise previously taught material 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to introduce new vocabulary • to introduce new grammar points • to have students read/listen/speak/write 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to practise acquired knowledge • to apply acquired knowledge
Possible activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pre-teach/review vocabulary • elicit, e.g. ideas and beliefs • brainstorm ideas • predict from the title/key words/first paragraph/pictures • ask questions to check students' background knowledge • write what you know about... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • read the text and define the overall idea • listen and fill in the blanks • listen and tell what it is about. • speak about... • underline verbs in past simple • write a letter 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • role play • write a letter • finish the story • exercises in the book • make a mind map/list • make up questions about... • make a plan for... • make a poster • make an advertisement • draw a picture • write a poem

- 😊 (5 min) Collect the ideas from participants.
- 😊 (2 min) Summarize the activity by saying that it is important to remember that a lesson consists of different stages. However, there is no one right way to plan a lesson and the lesson plan that we analysed is just one of the options. A teacher may vary its stages and activities depending on the objective of the lesson and the teaching situation.

Activity 2 Objectives of a lesson

Objective: to explore the objectives and learning outcomes of the lesson

Time: 10 min

Materials: none

► Procedure:

- 😊 (3 min) Tell participants that planning starts with setting an objective and thinking about learning outcomes. Tell them that it is always important to state the overall objective of the lesson clearly in order to know where the activities should lead to (teaching objective(s)). It also makes it possible for the teacher to expect what their learners can learn by the end of the lesson (learning outcomes). Refer participants back to the previous session on planning for teaching and learning and remind them of the staircase and the importance of connections between lessons within the syllabus.
- 😊 (7 min) Ask participants the following questions:
 - ~ *What was the teaching objective(s) of the lesson in Activity 1?*
 - ~ *What would students learn from this lesson?*

Invite random responses.

NB: It is likely that there will be a mixture of objectives: both students' and the teacher's. Therefore, it is important to distinguish between the two.

Possible answers:	
Teaching objectives:	Students will have an opportunity to practise past simple tense in stories about the past.
and	Students will have an opportunity to practise asking and answering questions in the past tense.
	Students will have an opportunity to practise writing a story.
Learning outcomes:	Students will be able to tell stories using past tense.
	Students will be able to ask and answer questions in past tense.

- Establish that a good objective is precise and clear. It also helps to identify what students should achieve by the end of the lesson (learning outcome(s)).

Activity 3 An outline of a lesson

Objective: to practise planning a lesson

Time: 45 min

Materials: strips of paper, markers, flipchart paper

► Procedure:

- 😊😊😊 (15 min) Put participants in groups of 4. Tell participants that now they will have a chance to write an outline of a lesson themselves. **Remind them that this outline should be included in Portfolio entry 5.** Give each group a topic of a lesson (at the airport, sports, meals, leisure, etc) or let them choose it themselves. Remind them that it can be a lesson on any of the four skills, on grammar or vocabulary, or on integrated

skills. Ask participants to work in groups and write an outline of a lesson which should include the objective, time, level of students, materials, and stages of the lesson.

Possible topics:

At the airport
Sports
Meals
Leisure
Cinema
Travelling
At the doctor's

- 😊 (15 min) Ask the groups to present their ideas on a poster. Other groups comment and give feedback to each other.
- 😊 (5 min) Ask participants to think individually what piece of advice they would give to a novice teacher about lesson planning. Ask them to write their piece of advice on a strip of paper.
- 😊 (10 min) Ask participants to sit in a circle and share their advice by putting their strips of paper in the centre on the floor.

Summary

Establish the following:

- It is important to plan our teaching because it helps teachers to integrate their lessons into the syllabus and therefore reach the overall aim of the course.
- Lesson planning is important because it helps us to reach teaching objectives. However, teachers need to be flexible in order to respond to unpredicted situations in the lesson and use the teaching opportunities presented by students.
- There is no one right way to plan for teaching and learning. The teacher can vary the activities and stages but s/he should always have a reason for doing this.

TARQATMA MATERIAL.
PLANNING FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING WORKSHOP
Activity 1, Handout 1

✂

Lesson plan outline:

✂

Put the key words on the board. Check whether students know the words. Ask them to predict the story using the key words.

✂

Tell students a story. While telling the story, ask questions to keep their interest: "What do you think happened next?"

✂

Don't finish the story. Ask students in groups to finish the story and then share it with the rest of the class.

✂

Tell students the last part of the story.

✂

Review the questions that you asked while telling the story. Put them on the board for students to see.

✂

Put students in groups of 3. Ask them to share their own stories with each other. Remind them that they need to ask questions to keep each other involved.

✂

Ask students to write down the story they liked best.

✂

INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATIONS TECHNOLOGY 2

Objectives:

- to enable participants to use ELT Internet sites to find particular information
- to familiarise participants with the www.onestopenglish.com ELT site
- to give participants an opportunity to work on Entry 6 for their portfolios

Activity 1 Exploring www.onestopenglish.com site


Objective: to familiarise participants with the www.onestopenglish.com ELT site

Time: 35 min

Materials: computers, connection to the internet

Room: Computer class

► Procedure:

- Tell participants that this session will give them an opportunity to practise their Internet search skills and find particular information. Tell them that they will also have a chance to complete one of the portfolio tasks and include it in their portfolio.
- Tell them that now they will do a small quiz on one of the ELT sites.
- Ask participants the following questions:
 - ~ *What ELT sites do you know?*
 - ~ *What information can you find there?*
- Ask participants to click the **Launch Internet Explorer** icon to connect to the Internet, type www.onestopenglish.com in the address window and press 'Enter'.
- Distribute handout 1  to participants and tell them that they will need to answer the questions as quickly as possible.

Suggested answers:

1. Browse; register; subscribe.
2. M Tunes; Games and activities: new this month; free games and activities; games and activities for staff room members; street cats.
3. Methodology: classroom management
4. Lesson share competition, Methodology challenge, teacher anecdotes, teachers' letters
5. Needs analysis, one-to one, first lessons, role-play and simulations, pre-experience learners, getting into intercultural training.

- Check the answers and establish that www.onestopenglish.com is one of the many ELT sites that contains a lot of useful information. It can be used as a resource for teaching ideas.

Activity 2 Portfolio entry 6




Objective: to give participants an opportunity to search the Internet for communicative activities

Time: 45 min

Materials: computers, connection to Internet, handout 2

Room: Computer class

► Procedure:

-  Remind participants that Portfolio entry 6 asks them to browse the Internet and find 4 communicative activities for each of the skills i.e. reading, writing, listening and speaking. Tell them that now they will have a chance to work on the task during the session.
-  Distribute handout 2  and tell participants that they can use the sites given on the handout but they are not limited to them. Remind them that they need to give a proper reference for the site they have borrowed activities from. Give participants enough time to work on the task. Monitor their work and be available for help. Answer any questions that may arise.
- Finish the session and establish that the Internet is a good source of ELT materials and ideas where teachers can find activities or even lesson plans for all levels and skills.

LESSON 2 Linguistic Assessment and lingvo-cultural competence.

In order to carry out the tasks and activities required to deal with the communicative situations in which they are involved, users and learners draw upon a number of competences developed in the course of their previous experience. In return, participation in communicative events (including, of course, those events specifically designed to promote language learning) results in the further development of the learner's competences, for both immediate and long-term use.

All human competences contribute in one way or another to the language user's ability to communicate and may be regarded as aspects of communicative competence. It may however be useful to distinguish those less closely related to language from linguistic competences more narrowly defined.

5.1 General competences

5.1.1 Declarative knowledge (savoir)

5.1.1.1 Knowledge of the world

Mature human beings have a highly developed and finely articulated model of the world and its workings, closely correlated with the vocabulary and grammar of their mother tongue. Indeed, both develop in relation to each other. The question, '*What is that?*' may ask for the name of a newly observed phenomenon or for the meaning (referent) of a new word. The basic features of this model are fully developed during early childhood, but it is further developed through education and experience during adolescence and indeed throughout adult life. Communication depends on the congruence of the models of the world and of language which have been internalised by the persons taking part. One aim of scientific endeavour is to discover the structure and workings of the universe and to provide a standardised terminology to describe and refer to them. Ordinary language has developed in a more organic way and the relation between the categories of form and meaning varies somewhat from one language to another, though within fairly narrow limits imposed by the actual nature of reality. Divergence is wider in the social sphere than in relation to the physical environment, though there, too, languages differentiate natural phenomena very much in relation to their significance for the life of the community. Second and foreign language teaching is often able to assume that learners have already acquired a knowledge of the world sufficient for the purpose. This is, however, not by any means always the case (see 2.1.1).

Knowledge of the world (whether it derives from experience, education or from information sources, etc.) embraces:

- The locations, institutions and organisations, persons, objects, events, processes and operations in different domains as exemplified in Table 5 (section 4.1.2). Of considerable importance to the learner of a particular language is factual knowledge concerning the country or countries in which the language is spoken, such as its major geographical, environmental, demographic, economic and political features.
- Classes of entities (concrete/abstract, animate/inanimate, etc.) and their properties and relations (temporo-spatial, associative, analytic, logical, cause/effect, etc.) as set out, for instance, in *Threshold Level 1990*, Chapter 6.

Users of the Framework may wish to consider and where appropriate state:

- *what knowledge of the world the language learner will be assumed/required to possess;*
- *what new knowledge of the world, particularly in respect of the country in which the language is spoken the learner will need/be equipped to acquire in the course of language learning.*

5.1.1.2 Sociocultural knowledge

Strictly speaking, knowledge of the society and culture of the community or communities in which a language is spoken is one aspect of knowledge of the world. It is, however, of sufficient importance to the language learner to merit special attention, especially since unlike many other aspects of knowledge it is likely to lie outside the learner's previous experience and may well be distorted by stereotypes.

The features distinctively characteristic of a particular European society and its culture may relate, for example, to:

1. *Everyday living*, e.g.:
 - food and drink, meal times, table manners;
 - public holidays;
 - working hours and practices;
 - leisure activities (hobbies, sports, reading habits, media).
2. *Living conditions*, e.g.:
 - living standards (with regional, class and ethnic variations);
 - housing conditions;
 - welfare arrangements.
3. *Interpersonal relations* (including relations of power and solidarity) e.g. with respect to:
 - class structure of society and relations between classes;
 - relations between sexes (gender, intimacy);
 - family structures and relations;
 - relations between generations;
 - relations in work situations;
 - relations between public and police, officials, etc.;

- race and community relations;
 - relations among political and religious groupings.
4. *Values, beliefs and attitudes* in relation to such factors as:
 - social class;
 - occupational groups (academic, management, public service, skilled and manual workforces);
 - wealth (income and inherited);
 - regional cultures;
 - security;
 - institutions;
 - tradition and social change;
 - history, especially iconic historical personages and events;
 - minorities (ethnic, religious);
 - national identity;
 - foreign countries, states, peoples;
 - politics;
 - arts (music, visual arts, literature, drama, popular music and song);
 - religion;
 - humour.
 5. *Body language* (see section 4.4.5). Knowledge of the conventions governing such behaviour form part of the user/learner's sociocultural competence.
 6. *Social conventions*, e.g. with regard to giving and receiving hospitality, such as:
 - punctuality;
 - presents;
 - dress;
 - refreshments, drinks, meals;
 - behavioural and conversational conventions and taboos;
 - length of stay;
 - leave-taking.
 7. *Ritual behaviour* in such areas as:
 - religious observances and rites;
 - birth, marriage, death;
 - audience and spectator behaviour at public performances and ceremonies;
 - celebrations, festivals, dances, discos, etc.

5.1.1.3 Intercultural awareness

Knowledge, awareness and understanding of the relation (similarities and distinctive differences) between the 'world of origin' and the 'world of the target community' produce an intercultural awareness. It is, of course, important to note that intercultural awareness includes an awareness of regional and social diversity in both worlds. It is also enriched by awareness of a wider range of cultures than those carried by the learner's L1 and L2. This wider awareness helps to place both in context. In addition to objective knowledge, intercultural awareness covers an awareness of how each community appears from the perspective of the other, often in the form of national stereotypes.

LESSON 3. ASSESSMENT: SUMMATIVE, FORMATIVE

Formative and Summative Assessments

Assessment allows both the instructor and students to monitor progress towards achieving learning objectives. **Formative assessment** refers to a variety of assessment tools all pursuing the same education-driven goal: to “help form, or shape a student’s learning” (Trumbull and Lash, 2013, p. 2). Formative assessment seeks ultimately to improve classroom results—“the teacher’s skills and ability, and the student’s achievement of instructional objectives”—by improving the tools—“instructional strategies, teaching techniques, and measurement of learning” (Theal and Franklin, 2010, p. 151). If assessment in general finds what learning gaps exist, formative assessment focuses on how to close those gaps. Formative assessment can help bolster students’ ability to take ownership of their learning but this occurs only when students fully understand that the goal of the assessment is to improve learning (Trumbull and Lash, 2013). Formative assessment may also include students assessing 1) instructors, 2) peers, and 3) themselves. In contrast to formative assessments, **summative assessments** are used to evaluate student learning, knowledge, proficiency, or success at the conclusion of an instructional period. Typically summative assessments are given at the end of a unit, course, or program. Summative assessments are almost always formally graded and often heavily weighted (though they do not need to be). Formative and summative assessment can and should be used in conjunction with each other.

Examples of Formative and Summative Assessments

Formative	Summative
In-class discussions	Instructor-created exams
Clicker questions	Standardized tests
Low-stakes group work	Final projects
Weekly quizzes	Final essays
1-minute reflection writing assignments	Final presentations
Homework assignments	Final reports
Surveys	

Examples of Formative and Summative Assessments

Formative assessment can vary across several dimensions as described by Trumbull and Lash, (2013, page 4). It can be:

1. Informal vs. formal
2. Immediate feedback vs. delayed feedback
3. Curriculum embedded vs. stand-alone
4. Spontaneous vs. planned
5. Individual vs. group
6. Verbal vs. nonverbal
7. Oral vs. written
8. Graded/scored vs. ungraded/unscored
9. Open-ended response vs. closed/constrained response
10. Teacher initiated/controlled vs. student initiated/controlled
11. Teacher and student(s) vs. peers
12. Process-oriented vs. task/product-oriented
13. Brief vs. extended
14. Scaffolded (teacher supported) vs. independently performed

(Trumbull and Lash, 2013, p.4)

Recommended Strategies

Formative Assessment Ideally formative assessment strategies should improve teaching and learning simultaneously. One way instructors can help students grow as learners is by actively encouraging students to self-assess their own skills and knowledge retention, and by giving clear instructions and feedback. The following are summaries of Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick's (2007) Seven Principles, with some additions and adaptations.

1. Keep clear criteria for what defines good performance
 - Explain criteria for a grade-A paper, grade-B+ paper, etc.
 - Encourage student discussion and reflection about criteria in class
 - Have students assess each other's drafts or practice assignments using the criteria
2. Encourage students' self-reflection
 - Ask student what kind of feedback they would like when they submit an assignment
 - Have students evaluate their own work in relation to criteria
 - Ask students to select their best work so far and explain why they succeeded
3. Give students detailed, actionable feedback

- Provide specific feedback, especially in relation to predefined criteria, before final submission
 - Offer corrective advice, not just evaluations
 - Use online quizzes which give instant feedback and can be taken unlimited times
4. Encourage teacher and peer dialogue around learning
 - Ask students to find one or two examples of feedback comments that they found useful and to explain how they helped
 - Use **midterm evaluations** and **small group feedback sessions** to get student feedback on classroom dynamics
 - Have students discuss learning goals and assignment criteria in groups and share any questions/concerns with the class
 5. Promote positive motivational beliefs and self-esteem
 - Allow for rewrites/resubmissions to convince students of the learning-value associated with doing assignments well, and to instill the belief that they can and will improve if they keep at their work
 - Use low-stakes assessment with feedback focused on progress and achievement (rather than success or failure and grade-comparison against peers)
 - Utilize automated online testing that is anonymous and has unlimited resubmissions
 6. Provide opportunities to close the gap between current and desired performance
 - Increase opportunities for resubmission
 - Model strategies that the instructor, would use (if you were a student) to succeed in the class
 - Give specific action points along with normal feedback
 7. Collect information which can be used to help shape teaching
 - Have students identify where they are having difficulties when they hand in assessed work
 - Ask students in groups to identify “a question worth asking” based on prior study, that they would like to explore for a short time at the beginning of the next class
 - Have a CTL staff member do a **classroom observation** and conduct a **small group feedback session**

Summative Assessment Since summative assessments are usually higher-stakes than formative assessments, it is especially important to ensure that the assessment aligns with the goals and expected outcomes of the instruction. The use of a **table of specifications or rubric** will assist in the design of an effective assessment. Follow these links for suggestions on **increasing the**

reliability and validity of the scores.

Task

Imagine that you work in a large language school and one of your tasks is to place one hundred new students into appropriate classes on their day of arrival. A test exists for this purpose, but there is no evidence to support the validity of the scores for its purpose. From the list below, which pieces of information would be most useful for your evaluation of this test? Rank-order their importance and try to write down how the information would help you to evaluate summative assessment:

- analysis of test content
 - teacher assessments of students after placement
 - relationship to end-of-course test
 - analysis of task types
 - spread of scores
 - students' affective reactions to the test
 - analysis of the syllabus at different class levels
 - test scores for different students already at the school.
- Can you think of any other pieces of information that would be useful for your evaluation?

While Messick's approach is now dominant in validity theory, there have been further developments within the field of language testing that we need to consider.★

LESSON – 3. TESTING: VALIDITY, RELIABILITY, PRACTICALITY

In the early days of validity investigation, validity was broken down into three 'types' that were typically seen as distinct. Each type of validity was related to the kind of evidence that would count towards demonstrating that a test was valid. Cronbach and Meehl (1955) described these as:

- Criterion-oriented validity

Predictive validity

Concurrent validity

- Content validity
- Construct validity

We will introduce each of these in turn, and then show how this early approach has changed.

Criterion-oriented validity

When considering criterion-oriented validity, the tester is interested in the relationship between a particular test and a criterion to which we wish to make

predictions. For example, I may wish to predict from scores on a test of second-language academic reading ability whether individuals can cope with first-semester undergraduate business studies texts in an English-medium university. What we are really interested in here is the criterion, whatever it is that we wish to know about, but for which we don't have any direct evidence. In the example above we cannot see whether future students can do the reading that will be expected of them before they actually arrive at the university and start their course.

In this case the validity evidence is the strength of the predictive relationship between the test score and that performance on the criterion. Of course, it is necessary to decide what would count as 'ability to cope with' – as it is something that must be measurable. Defining precisely what we mean by such words and phrases is a central part of investigating validity.

Content validity

Content validity is defined as any attempt to show that the content of the test is a representative sample from the domain that is to be tested. In our example of the academic reading test it would be necessary to show that the texts selected for the test are typical of the types of texts that would be used in first-year undergraduate business courses. This is usually done using expert judges. These may be subject teachers, or language teachers who have many years' experience in teaching business English. The judges are asked to look at texts that have been selected for inclusion on the test and evaluate them for their representativeness within the content area.

Secondly, the items used on the test should result in responses to the text from which we can make inferences about the test takers' ability to process the texts in ways expected of students on their academic courses. For example, we may discover that business students are primarily required to read texts to extract key factual information, take notes and use the notes in writing assignments. In our reading test we would then try to develop items that tap the ability to identify key facts.

Carroll (1980: 67) argued that achieving content validity in testing English for Academic Purposes (EAP) consisted of describing the test takers, analysing their 'communicative needs' and specifying test content on the basis of their needs. In early approaches to communicative language testing the central issue in establishing content validity was how best to 'sample' from needs and the target domain (Fulcher, 1999a: 222–223).

Construct validity

The first problem with construct validity is defining what a 'construct' is. Perhaps the easiest way to understand the term 'construct' is to think of the many abstract

nouns that we use on a daily basis, but for which it would be extremely hard to point to an example. Consider these, the first of which we have already touched on.

1 Love

2 Intelligence

3 Anxiety

4 Thoughtfulness

5 Fluency

6 Aptitude

7 Extroversion

8 Timidity

9 Persuasiveness

10 Empathy.

As we use these terms in everyday life we have no need to define them. We all assume that we know what they mean, and that the meaning is shared. So we can talk with our friends about how much empathy someone we know may have, or how fluent a speaker someone is. But this is to talk at the level of everyday concepts. For a general term to become a construct, it must have two further properties. Firstly, it must be defined in such a way that it becomes measurable. In order to measure ‘fluency’ we have to state what we could possibly observe in speech to make a decision about whether a speaker is fluent. It turns out that many people have different definitions of fluency, ranging from simple speed of speech, to lack of hesitation (or strictly ‘pauses’, because ‘hesitation’ is a construct itself), to specific observable features of speech (see Fulcher, 1996). Secondly, any construct should be defined in such a way that it can have relationships with other constructs that are different.

For example, if I generate descriptions of ‘fluency’ and ‘anxiety’ I may hypothesize that, as anxiety increases, fluency will decrease, and vice versa. If this hypothesis is tested and can be supported, we have the very primitive beginnings of a theory of speaking that relates how we perform to emotional states. To put this another way, concepts become constructs when they are so defined that they can become ‘operational’ – we can measure them in a test of some kind by linking the term to something observable (whether this is ticking a box or performing some communicative action), and we can establish the place of a construct in a theory that relates one construct to another (Kerlinger and Lee, 2000: 40), as in the case of fluency and anxiety above.

Principles of Language Assessment - Practicality, Reliability, Validity, Authenticity, and Washback

A. Practicality

- An effective test is practical. This means that it

- Is not excessively expensive,
- Stays within appropriate time constraints,
- Is relatively easy to administer, and
- Has a scoring/evaluation procedure that is specific and time-efficient.

A test that is prohibitively expensive is impractical. A test of language proficiency that takes a student five hours to complete is impractical-it consumes more time (and money) than necessary to accomplish its objective. A test that requires individual one-on-one proctoring is impractical for a group of several hundred test-takers and only a handful of examiners. A test that takes a few minutes for a student to take and several hours for an examiner too evaluate is impractical for most classroom situations.

B. Reliability

A reliable test is consistent and dependable. If you give the same test to the same student or matched students on two different occasions, the test should yield similar result. The issue of reliability of a test may best be addressed by considering a number of factors that may contribute to the unreliability of a test. Consider the following possibilities (adapted from Mousavi, 2002, p. 804): fluctuations in the student, in scoring, in test administration, and in the test itself.

- **Student-Related Reliability**

The most common learner-related issue in reliability is caused by temporary illness, fatigue, a “bad day,” anxiety, and other physical or psychological factors, which may make an “observed” score deviate from one’s “true” score. Also included in this category are such factors as a test-taker’s “test-wiseness” or strategies for efficient test taking (Mousavi, 2002, p. 804).

- **Rater Reliability**

Human error, subjectivity, and bias may enter into the scoring process. Inter-rater reliability occurs when two or more scores yield inconsistent score of the same test, possibly for lack of attention to scoring criteria, inexperience, inattention, or even preconceived biases. In the story above about the placement test, the initial scoring plan for the dictations was found to be unreliable-that is, the two scorers were not applying the same standards.

- **Test Administration Reliability**

Unreliability may also result from the conditions in which the test is administered. I once witnessed the administration of a test of aural comprehension in which a tape recorder played items for comprehension, but because of street noise outside the building, students sitting next to windows could not hear the tape accurately. This was a clear case of unreliability caused by the conditions of the test administration. Other sources of unreliability are found in photocopying variations, the amount of light in different parts of the room, variations in temperature, and even the condition of desks and chairs.

- **Test Reliability**

Sometimes the nature of the test itself can cause measurement errors. If a test is too long, test-takers may become fatigued by the time they reach the later items and hastily respond incorrectly. Timed tests may discriminate against students who do not perform well on a test with a time limit. We all know people (and you may be include in this category¹) who “know” the course material perfectly but who are adversely affected by the presence of a clock ticking away. Poorly written test items (that are ambiguous or that have more than one correct answer) may be a further source of test unreliability.

D. Authenticity

A fourth major principle of language testing is authenticity, a concept that is a little slippery to define, especially within the art and science of evaluating and designing tests. Bachman and Palmer (1996, p. 23) define authenticity as “the degree of correspondence of the characteristics of a given language test task to the features of a target language task,” and then suggest an agenda for identifying those target language tasks and for transforming them into valid test items.

E. Washback

A facet of consequential validity, discussed above, is “the effect of testing on teaching and learning” (Hughes, 2003, p. 1), otherwise known among language-testing specialists as washback. In large-scale assessment, washback generally refers to the effects the test have on instruction in terms of how students prepare for the test. “Cram” courses and “teaching to the test” are examples of such washback. Another form of washback that occurs more in classroom assessment is the information that “washes back” to students in the form of useful diagnoses of strengths and weaknesses. Washback also includes the effects of an assessment on teaching and learning prior to the assessment itself, that is, on preparation for the assessment.

Task

Here we will set out Stendhal’s theory of love as if it were a nomological network. Constructs:

1 Passionate Love, ‘like that of Helopse for Abelard’

2 Mannered Love, ‘where there is no place for anything at all unpleasant – for that would be a breach of etiquette, of good taste, of delicacy, and so forth’

3 Physical Love, ‘where your love life begins at sixteen’

4 Vanity Love, in which ‘men . . . both desire and possess a fashionable woman, much in the way one might own a fine horse’.

► What do you think are the possible relationships between these four constructs?

For example, assuming that I could measure these types of love, I might hypothesize that as the strength of mannered love increases, passionate love might decrease. I may further hypothesize

that there is a strong positive relationship between physical love and passionate love, and only a weak relationship between mannered love and physical love.

► Write down a number of hypotheses.

Stendhal went on to attach certain observable behaviours to each ‘type’ of love.

Here are some of them. Which of these observable behaviours do you think

Stendhal thought characterized each type of love?

- Behaviour always predictable
- Lack of concentration
- Always trying to be witty in public
- Staring at girls
- Following habits and routines carefully
- Always very money-conscious
- Engaging in acts of cruelty
- Touching.

► Try to list other behaviours that may be typical of a type of love as described by Stendhal.

Is your nomological net a satisfying theory of love? Probably not. Stendhal himself wrote: ‘Instead of defining four kinds of love, one might well admit eight or ten distinctions. There are perhaps as many different ways of feeling as there are of seeing.’

► What are the implications of this for construct definition in language testing?

Lesson – 4. Testing: Criterion referencing, norm referencing; Specification

Norm-referenced refers to standardized tests that are designed to compare and rank test takers in relation to one another. Norm-referenced tests report whether test takers performed better or worse than a hypothetical average student, which is determined by comparing scores against the performance results of a statistically selected group of test takers, typically of the same age or grade level, who have already taken the exam.

Calculating norm-referenced scores is called the “norming process,” and the comparison group is known as the “norming group.” Norming groups typically comprise only a small subset of previous test takers, not all or even most previous test takers. Test developers use a variety of statistical methods to select norming groups, interpret raw scores, and determine performance levels.

Norm-referenced scores are generally reported as a percentage or percentile ranking. For

example, a student who scores in the seventieth percentile performed as well or better than seventy percent of other test takers of the same age or grade level, and thirty percent of students performed better (as determined by norming-group scores).

Norm-referenced tests often use a multiple-choice format, though some include open-ended, short-answer questions. They are usually based on some form of national standards, not locally determined standards or curricula. IQ tests are among the most well-known norm-referenced tests, as are developmental-screening tests, which are used to identify learning disabilities in young children or determine eligibility for special-education services. A few major norm-referenced tests include the California Achievement Test, Iowa Test of Basic Skills, Stanford Achievement Test, and TerraNova.

The following are a few representative examples of how norm-referenced tests and scores may be used:

To determine a young child's readiness for preschool or kindergarten. These tests may be designed to measure oral-language ability, visual-motor skills, and cognitive and social development.

To evaluate basic reading, writing, and math skills. Test results may be used for a wide variety of purposes, such as measuring academic progress, making course assignments, determining readiness for grade promotion, or identifying the need for additional academic support.

To identify specific learning disabilities, such as autism, dyslexia, or nonverbal learning disability, or to determine eligibility for special-education services.

To make program-eligibility or college-admissions decisions (in these cases, norm-referenced scores are generally evaluated alongside other information about a student). Scores on SAT or ACT exams are a common example.

Norm-Referenced vs. Criterion-Referenced Tests

Norm-referenced tests are specifically designed to rank test takers on a "bell curve," or a distribution of scores that resembles, when graphed, the outline of a bell—i.e., a small percentage of students performing well, most performing average, and a small percentage performing poorly. To produce a bell curve each time, test questions are carefully designed to accentuate performance differences among test takers, not to determine if students have achieved specified learning standards, learned certain material, or acquired specific skills and knowledge. Tests that measure performance against a fixed set of standards or criteria are called criterion-referenced tests.

Criterion-referenced test results are often based on the number of correct answers provided by students, and scores might be expressed as a percentage of the total possible number of correct answers. On a norm-referenced exam, however, the score would reflect how many more or fewer

correct answers a student gave in comparison to other students. Hypothetically, if all the students who took a norm-referenced test performed poorly, the least-poor results would rank students in the highest percentile. Similarly, if all students performed extraordinarily well, the least-strong performance would rank students in the lowest percentile.

It should be noted that norm-referenced tests cannot measure the learning achievement or progress of an entire group of students, but only the relative performance of individuals within a group. For this reason, criterion-referenced tests are used to measure whole-group performance.

Reform

Norm-referenced tests have historically been used to make distinctions among students, often for the purposes of course placement, program eligibility, or school admissions. Yet because norm-referenced tests are designed to rank student performance on a relative scale—i.e., in relation to the performance of other students—norm-referenced testing has been abandoned by many schools and states in favor of criterion-referenced tests, which measure student performance in relation to common set of fixed criteria or standards.

It should be noted that norm-referenced tests are typically not the form of standardized test widely used to comply with state or federal policies—such as the No Child Left Behind Act—that are intended to measure school performance, close “achievement gaps,” or hold schools accountable for improving student learning results. In most cases, criterion-referenced tests are used for these purposes because the goal is to determine whether schools are successfully teaching students what they are expected to learn.

Similarly, the assessments being developed to measure student achievement of the Common Core State Standards are also criterion-referenced exams. However, some test developers promote their norm-referenced exams—for example, the TerraNova Common Core—as a way for teachers to “benchmark” learning progress and determine if students are on track to perform well on Common Core–based assessments.

Debate

While norm-referenced tests are not the focus of ongoing national debates about “high-stakes testing,” they are nonetheless the object of much debate. The essential disagreement is between those who view norm-referenced tests as objective, valid, and fair measures of student performance, and those who believe that relying on relative performance results is inaccurate, unhelpful, and unfair, especially when making important educational decisions for students. While part of the debate centers on whether or not it is ethically appropriate, or even educationally useful, to evaluate individual student learning in relation to other students (rather than evaluating individual performance in relation to fixed and known criteria), much of the debate is also focused on whether there is a general overreliance on standardized-test scores in

the United States, and whether a single test, no matter what its design, should be used—in exclusion of other measures—to evaluate school or student performance.

It should be noted that perceived performance on a standardized test can potentially be manipulated, regardless of whether a test is norm-referenced or criterion-referenced. For example, if a large number of students are performing poorly on a test, the performance criteria—i.e., the bar for what is considered “passing” or “proficient”—could be lowered to “improve” perceived performance, even if students are not learning more or performing better than past test takers. For example, if a standardized test administered in eleventh grade uses proficiency standards that are considered to be equivalent to eighth-grade learning expectations, it will appear that students are performing well, when in fact the test has not measured learning achievement at a level appropriate to their age or grade. For this reason, it is important to investigate the criteria used to determine “proficiency” on any given test—and particularly when a test is considered “high stakes,” since there is greater motivation to manipulate perceived test performance when results are tied to sanctions, funding reductions, public embarrassment, or other negative consequences.

The following are representative of the kinds of arguments typically made by proponents of norm-referenced testing:

Norm-referenced tests are relatively inexpensive to develop, simple to administer, and easy to score. As long as the results are used alongside other measures of performance, they can provide valuable information about student learning.

The quality of norm-referenced tests is usually high because they are developed by testing experts, piloted, and revised before they are used with students, and they are dependable and stable for what they are designed to measure.

Norm-referenced tests can help differentiate students and identify those who may have specific educational needs or deficits that require specialized assistance or learning environments.

The tests are an objective evaluation method that can decrease bias or favoritism when making educational decisions. If there are limited places in a gifted and talented program, for example, one transparent way to make the decision is to give every student the same test and allow the highest-scoring students to gain entry.

The following are representative of the kinds of arguments typically made by critics of norm-referenced testing:

Although testing experts and test developers warn that major educational decisions should not be made on the basis of a single test score, norm-referenced scores are often misused in schools when making critical educational decisions, such as grade promotion or retention, which can have potentially harmful consequences for some students and student groups.

Norm-referenced tests encourage teachers to view students in terms of a bell curve, which can lead them to lower academic expectations for certain groups of students, particularly special-needs students, English-language learners, or minority groups. And when academic expectations are consistently lowered year after year, students in these groups may never catch up to their peers, creating a self-fulfilling prophecy. For a related discussion, see high expectations.

Multiple-choice tests—the dominant norm-referenced format—are better suited to measuring remembered facts than more complex forms of thinking. Consequently, norm-referenced tests promote rote learning and memorization in schools over more sophisticated cognitive skills, such as writing, critical reading, analytical thinking, problem solving, or creativity.

Overreliance on norm-referenced test results can lead to inadvertent discrimination against minority groups and low-income student populations, both of which tend to face more educational obstacles than non-minority students from higher-income households. For example, many educators have argued that the overuse of norm-referenced testing has resulted in a significant overrepresentation of minority students in special-education programs. On the other hand, using norm-referenced scores to determine placement in gifted and talented programs, or other “enriched” learning opportunities, leads to the underrepresentation of minority and lower-income students in these programs. Similarly, students from higher-income households may have an unfair advantage in the college-admissions process because they can afford expensive test-preparation services.

An overreliance on norm-referenced test scores undervalues important achievements, skills, and abilities in favor of the more narrow set of skills measured by the tests.

CRITERION-REFERENCED TEST

Criterion-referenced tests and assessments are designed to measure student performance against a fixed set of predetermined criteria or learning standards—i.e., concise, written descriptions of what students are expected to know and be able to do at a specific stage of their education. In elementary and secondary education, criterion-referenced tests are used to evaluate whether students have learned a specific body of knowledge or acquired a specific skill set. For example, the curriculum taught in a course, academic program, or content area.

If students perform at or above the established expectations—for example, by answering a certain percentage of questions correctly—they will pass the test, meet the expected standards, or be deemed “proficient.” On a criterion-referenced test, every student taking the exam could theoretically fail if they don’t meet the expected standard; alternatively, every student could earn the highest possible score. On criterion-referenced tests, it is not only possible, but desirable, for every student to pass the test or earn a perfect score. Criterion-referenced tests have been

compared to driver's-license exams, which require would-be drivers to achieve a minimum passing score to earn a license.

Criterion-Referenced vs. Norm-Referenced Tests

Norm-referenced tests are designed to rank test takers on a “bell curve,” or a distribution of scores that resembles, when graphed, the outline of a bell—i.e., a small percentage of students performing poorly, most performing average, and a small percentage performing well. To produce a bell curve each time, test questions are carefully designed to accentuate performance differences among test takers—not to determine if students have achieved specified learning standards, learned required material, or acquired specific skills. Unlike norm-referenced tests, criterion-referenced tests measure performance against a fixed set of criteria.

Criterion-referenced tests may include multiple-choice questions, true-false questions, “open-ended” questions (e.g., questions that ask students to write a short response or an essay), or a combination of question types. Individual teachers may design the tests for use in a specific course, or they may be created by teams of experts for large companies that have contracts with state departments of education. Criterion-referenced tests may be high-stakes tests—i.e., tests that are used to make important decisions about students, educators, schools, or districts—or they may be “low-stakes tests” used to measure the academic achievement of individual students, identify learning problems, or inform instructional adjustments.

Well-known examples of criterion-referenced tests include Advanced Placement exams and the National Assessment of Educational Progress, which are both standardized tests administered to students throughout the United States. When testing companies develop criterion-referenced standardized tests for large-scale use, they usually have committees of experts determine the testing criteria and passing scores, or the number of questions students will need to answer correctly to pass the test. Scores on these tests are typically expressed as a percentage.

It should be noted that passing scores—or “cut-off scores”—on criterion-referenced tests are judgment calls made by either individuals or groups. It's theoretically possible, for example, that a given test-development committee, if it had been made up of different individuals with different backgrounds and viewpoints, would have determined different passing scores for a certain test. For example, one group might determine that a minimum passing score is 70 percent correct answers, while another group might establish the cut-off score at 75 percent correct. For a related discussion, see proficiency.

Criterion-referenced tests created by individual teachers are also very common in American public schools. For example, a history teacher may devise a test to evaluate

understanding and retention of a unit on World War II. The criteria in this case might include the causes and timeline of the war, the nations that were involved, the dates and circumstances of major battles, and the names and roles of certain leaders. The teacher may design a test to evaluate student understanding of the criteria and determine a minimum passing score.

While criterion-referenced test scores are often expressed as percentages, and many have minimum passing scores, the test results may also be scored or reported in alternative ways. For example, results may be grouped into broad achievement categories—such as “below basic,” “basic,” “proficient,” and “advanced”—or reported on a 1–5 numerical scale, with the numbers representing different levels of achievement. As with minimum passing scores, proficiency levels are judgment calls made by individuals or groups that may choose to modify proficiency levels by raising or lowering them.

The following are a few representative examples of how criterion-referenced tests and scores may be used:

To determine whether students have learned expected knowledge and skills. If the criterion-referenced tests are used to make decisions about grade promotion or diploma eligibility, they would be considered “high-stakes tests.”

To determine if students have learning gaps or academic deficits that need to be addressed. For a related discussion, see formative assessment.

To evaluate the effectiveness of a course, academic program, or learning experience by using “pre-tests” and “post-tests” to measure learning progress over the duration of the instructional period.

To evaluate the effectiveness of teachers by factoring test results into job-performance evaluations. For a related discussion, see value-added measures.

To measure progress toward the goals and objectives described in an “individualized education plan” for students with disabilities.

To determine if a student or teacher is qualified to receive a license or certificate.

To measure the academic achievement of students in a given state, usually for the purposes of comparing academic performance among schools and districts.

To measure the academic achievement of students in a given country, usually for the purposes of comparing academic performance among nations. A few widely used examples of international-comparison tests include the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), and the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS).

Reform

Criterion-referenced tests are the most widely used type of test in American public education. All the large-scale standardized tests used to measure public-school performance, hold schools accountable for improving student learning results, and comply with state or federal policies—such as the No Child Left Behind Act—are criterion-referenced tests, including the assessments being developed to measure student achievement of the Common Core State Standards. Criterion-referenced tests are used for these purposes because the goal is to determine whether educators and schools are successfully teaching students what they are expected to learn.

Criterion-referenced tests are also used by educators and schools practicing proficiency-based learning, a term that refers to systems of instruction, assessment, grading, and academic reporting that are based on students demonstrating mastery of the knowledge and skills they are expected to learn before they progress to the next lesson, get promoted to the next grade level, or receive a diploma. In most cases, proficiency-based systems use state learning standards to determine academic expectations and define “proficiency” in a given course, content area, or grade level. Criterion-referenced tests are one method used to measure academic progress and achievement in relation to standards.

Following a wide variety of state and federal policies aimed at improving school and teacher performance, criterion-referenced standardized tests have become an increasingly prominent part of public schooling in the United States. When focused on reforming schools and improving student achievement, these tests are used in a few primary ways:

To hold schools and educators accountable for educational results and student performance. In this case, test scores are used as a measure of effectiveness, and low scores may trigger a variety of consequences for schools and teachers.

To evaluate whether students have learned what they are expected to learn. In this case, test scores are seen as a representative indicator of student achievement.

To identify gaps in student learning and academic progress. Test scores may be used, along with other information about students, to diagnose learning needs so that educators can provide appropriate services, instruction, or academic support.

To identify achievement gaps among different student groups. Students of color, students who are not proficient in English, students from low-income households, and students with physical or learning disabilities tend to score, on average, well below white students from more educated, higher income households on standardized tests. In this case, exposing and highlighting achievement gaps may be seen as an essential first step in the effort to educate all students well, which can lead to greater public awareness and resulting changes in educational policies and programs.

To determine whether educational policies are working as intended. Elected officials and

education policy makers may rely on standardized-test results to determine whether their laws and policies are working as intended, or to compare educational performance from school to school or state to state. They may also use the results to persuade the public and other elected officials that their policies are in the best interest of children and society.

Debate

The widespread use of high-stakes standardized tests in the United States has made criterion-referenced tests an object of criticism and debate. While many educators believe that criterion-referenced tests are a fair and useful way to evaluate student, teacher, and school performance, others argue that the overuse, and potential misuse, of the tests could have negative consequences that outweigh their benefits.

The following are a few representative arguments typically made by proponents of criterion-referenced testing:

The tests are better suited to measuring learning progress than norm-referenced exams, and they give educators information they can use to improve teaching and school performance.

The tests are fairer to students than norm-referenced tests because they don't compare the relative performance of students; they evaluate achievement against a common and consistently applied set of criteria.

The tests apply the same learning standards to all students, which can hold underprivileged or disadvantaged students to the same high expectations as other students. Historically, students of color, students who are not proficient in English, students from low-income households, and students with physical or learning disabilities have suffered from lower academic achievement, and many educators contend that this pattern of underperformance results, at least in part, from lower academic expectations. Raising academic expectations for these student groups, and making sure they reach those expectations, is believed to promote greater equity in education.

The tests can be constructed with open-ended questions and tasks that require students to use higher-level cognitive skills such as critical thinking, problem solving, reasoning, analysis, or interpretation. Multiple-choice and true-false questions promote memorization and factual recall, but they do not ask students to apply what they have learned to solve a challenging problem or write insightfully about a complex issue, for example. For a related discussion, see 21st century skills and Bloom's taxonomy.

The following are representative arguments typically made by critics of criterion-referenced testing:

The tests are only as accurate or fair as the learning standards upon which they are based. If the standards are vaguely worded, or if they are either too difficult or too easy for the students being evaluated, the associated test results will reflect the flawed standards. A test administered in

eleventh grade that reflects a level of knowledge and skill students should have acquired in eighth grade would be one general example. Alternatively, tests may not be appropriately “aligned” with learning standards, so that even if the standards are clearly written, age appropriate, and focused on the right knowledge and skills, the test might not be designed well enough to measure achievement of the standards.

The process of determining proficiency levels and passing scores on criterion-referenced tests can be highly subjective or misleading—and the potential consequences can be significant, particularly if the tests are used to make high-stakes decisions about students, teachers, and schools. Because reported “proficiency” rises and falls in direct relation to the standards or cut-off scores used to make a proficiency determination, it’s possible to manipulate the perception and interpretation of test results by elevating or lowering either standards and passing scores. And when educators are evaluated based on test scores, their job security may rest on potentially misleading or flawed results. Even the reputations of national education systems can be negatively affected when a large percentage of students fail to achieve “proficiency” on international assessments.

The subjective nature of proficiency levels allows the tests to be exploited for political purposes to make it appear that schools are either doing better or worse than they actually are. For example, some states have been accused of lowering proficiency standards of standardized tests to increase the number of students achieving “proficiency,” and thereby avoid the consequences—negative press, public criticism, large numbers of students being held back or denied diplomas (in states that base graduation eligibility on test scores)—that may result from large numbers of students failing to achieve expected or required proficiency levels.

If the tests primarily utilize multiple-choice questions—which, in the case of standardized testing, makes scoring faster and less expensive because it can be done by computers rather than human scorers—they will promote rote memorization and factual recall in schools, rather than the higher-order thinking skills students will need in college, careers, and adult life. For example, the overuse or misuse of standardized testing can encourage a phenomenon known as “teaching to the test,” which means that teachers focus too much on test preparation and the academic content that will be evaluated by standardized tests, typically at the expense of other important topics and skills.

Task

► What does this item test? Does the stem test only one thing, as Kehoe advises in his first guideline? If the item tests more than one thing, is that a function of the stem, of the four choices, or of both parts of the item working in tandem? Clearly, the stem is a stated question – and so it fulfills Kehoe’s second guideline.

Is it a clear question or is it misleading? There are two elements to this – or any – multiple-choice item, each functioning somewhat differently. We first see a statement and question, known as the ‘stem’. We then see four ‘choices’. Most likely, the test taker was told that each item has one correct choice (something that testers call the ‘key’) and three incorrect choices (known as ‘distracters’). To answer the item correctly, the student must read carefully each word of the stem and each word of each choice; furthermore, the student probably knows well that three of the four choices are intended to be incorrect, and so this close reading becomes a process of elimination. Suppose that a particular testing or teaching situation routinely uses such close-reading items, and in that setting an item like this is actually very familiar to the students. In such a case, perhaps the students don’t (really) read the item closely or analyse its component parts. They see it, recognize it as a familiar type of task, and engage the relevant cognitive and language processing skills – from their training – to attempt the item. Ruch is making this point: we cannot really issue general guidelines (as Kehoe did) without knowing first the particular setting in which the test question will operate.

LESSON – 5. TESTING: TEST TYPES (PROFICIENCY, ACHIEVEMENT, PROGRESS AND ETC.)

Types of tests

Different scholars (Alderson, 1996; Heaton, 1990; Underhill, 1991) in their researches ask the similar question – why test, do the teachers really need them and for what purpose. Further, they all agree that test is not the teacher’s desire to catch the students unprepared with what they are not acquainted; it is also not the motivating factor for the students to study. In fact, the test is a request for information and possibility to learn what the teachers did not know about their students before. We can add here that the test is important for the students, too, though they are unaware of that. The test is supposed to display not only the students’ weak points, but also their strong sides. It could act as an indicator of progress the student is gradually making learning the language. Moreover, we can cite the idea of Hughes (1989:5) who emphasises that we can check the progress, general or specific knowledge of the students, etc. This claim will directly lead us to the statement that for each of these purposes there is a special type of testing. According to some scholars (Thompson, 2001; Hughes, 1989; Alderson, 1996; Heaton, 1990; Underhill, 1991), there are four traditional categories or types of tests: proficiency tests, achievement tests, diagnostic tests, and placement tests. The author of the paper, once being a teacher, can claim that she is acquainted with three of them and has frequently used them in her teaching practice.

In the following sub-chapters we are determined to discuss different types of tests and if possible to apply our own experience in using them.

1. Diagnostic tests

It is wise to start our discussion with that type of testing, for it is typically the first step each teacher, even non-language teacher, takes at the beginning of a new school year. In the establishment the author of the paper was working it was one of the main rules to start a new study year giving the students a diagnostic test. Every year the administration of the school had stemmed a special plan where every teacher was supposed to write when and how they were going to test their students. Moreover, the teachers were supposed to analyse the diagnostic tests, complete special documents and provide diagrams with the results of each class or group if a class was divided. Then, at the end of the study year the teachers were demanded to compare the results of them with the final, achievement test (see in Appendix 1). The author of the paper has used this type of test for several times, but had never gone deep into details how it is constructed, why and what for. Therefore, the facts listed below were of great value for her.

Referring to Longman Dictionary of LTAL (106) diagnostic tests is a test that is meant to display what the student knows and what s/he does not know. The dictionary gives an example of testing the learners' pronunciation of English sounds. Moreover, the test can check the students' knowledge before starting a particular course. Hughes (1989:6) adds that diagnostic tests are supposed to spot the students' weak and strong points. Heaton (1990:13) compares such type of test with a diagnosis of a patient, and the teacher with a doctor who states the diagnosis. Underhill (1991:14.) adds that a diagnostic test provides the student with a variety of language elements, which will help the teacher to determine what the student knows or does not know. We believe that the teacher will intentionally include the material that either is presumed to be taught by a syllabus or could be a starting point for a course without the knowledge of which the further work is not possible. Thus, we fully agree with the Heaton's comparison where he contrasts the test with a patient's diagnosis. The diagnostic test displays the teacher a situation of the students' current knowledge. This is very essential especially when the students return from their summer holidays (that produces a rather substantial gap in their knowledge) or if the students start a new course and the teacher is completely unfamiliar with the level of the group. Hence, the teacher has to consider carefully about the items s/he is interested in to teach. This consideration reflects Heaton's proposal (*ibid.*), which stipulates that the teachers should be systematic to design the tasks that are supposed to illustrate the students' abilities, and they should know what exactly they are testing. Moreover, Underhill (*ibid.*) points out that apart from the above-mentioned the most essential element of the diagnostic test is that the students should not feel depressed when the test is completed. Therefore, very often the teachers do not

put any marks for the diagnostic test and sometimes even do not show the test to the learners if the students do not ask the teacher to return it. Nevertheless, regarding our own experience, the learners, especially the young ones, are eager to know their results and even demand marks for their work. Notwithstanding, it is up to the teacher whether to inform his/her students with the results or not; however, the test represents a valuable information mostly for the teacher and his/her plans for designing a syllabus.

Returning to Hughes (ibid.) we can emphasise his belief that this type of test is very useful for individual check. It means that this test could be applicable for checking a definite item; it is not necessary that it will cover broader topics of the language. However, further Hughes assumes that this test is rather difficult to design and the size of the test can be even impractical. It means that if the teacher wants to check the students' knowledge of Present simple, s/he will require a great deal of examples for the students to choose from. It will demand a tiresome work from the teacher to compose such type of the test, and may even confuse the learners.

At that point we can allude to our experience in giving a diagnostic test in Form 5. It was the class the teacher had worked before and knew the students and their level rather good. However, new learners had joined the class, and the teacher had not a slightest idea about their abilities. It was obvious that the students worried about how they would accomplish the test and what marks would they receive. The teacher had ensured them that the test would not be evaluated by marks. It was necessary for the teacher to plan her future work. That was done to release the tension in the class and make the students get rid of the stress that might be crucial for the results. The students immediately felt free and set to work. Later when analysing and summarizing the results the teacher realized that the students' knowledge was purely good. Certainly, there were the place the students required more practice; therefore during the next class the students were offered remedial activities on the points they had encountered any difficulties. Moreover, that was the case when the students were particularly interested in their marks.

To conclude, we can conceive that interpreting the results of diagnostic tests the teachers apart from predicting why the student has done the exercises the way s/he has, but not the other, will receive a significant information about his/her group s/he is going to work with and later use the information as a basis for the forming syllabus.

2 Placement tests

Another type of test we are intended to discuss is a placement test. Concerning Longman Dictionary of LTAL again (279-280) we can see that a placement test is a test that places the students at an appropriate level in a programme or a course. This term does not refer to the

system and construction of the test, but to its usage purpose. According to Hughes (1989:7), this type of test is also used to decide which group or class the learner could be joined to. This statement is entirely supported by another scholar, such as Alderson (1996:216), who declares that this type of test is meant for showing the teacher the students' level of the language ability. It will assist to put the student exactly in that group that responds his/her true abilities.

Heaton (ibid.) adheres that the following type of testing should be general and should purely focus on a vast range of topics of the language not on just specific one. Therefore, the placement test typically could be represented in the form of dictations, interviews, grammar tests, etc.

Moreover, according to Heaton (ibid.), the placement test should deal exactly with the language skills relevant to those that will be taught during a particular course. If our course includes development of writing skills required for politics, it is not appropriate to study writing required for medical purposes. Thus, Heaton (ibid.) presumes that is fairly important to analyse and study the syllabus beforehand. For the placement test is completely attributed to the future course programme. Furthermore, Hughes (ibid.) stresses that each institution will have its own placement tests meeting its needs. The test suitable for one institution will not suit the needs of another. Likewise, the matter of scoring is particularly significant in the case of placement tests, for the scores gathered serve as a basis for putting the students into different groups appropriate to their level.

At this point we can attempt to compare a placement test and diagnostic one. From the first sight these both types of tests could look similar. They both are given at the beginning of the study year and both are meant for distinguishing the students' level of the current knowledge. However, if we consider the facts described in sub-chapter 2.1 we will see how they are different. A diagnostic test is meant for displaying a picture of the students' general knowledge at the beginning of the study year for the teacher to plan further work and design an appropriate syllabus for his/her students. Whereas, a placement test is designed and given in order to use the information of the students' knowledge for putting the students into groups according to their level of the language. Indeed, they are both used for teacher's planning of the course their functions differ. A colleague of mine, who works at school, has informed me that they have used a placement test at the beginning of the year and it appeared to be relevant and efficient for her and her colleague's future teaching. The students were divided according to their English language abilities: the students with better knowledge were put together, whereas the weaker students formed their own group. It does not mean discrimination between the students. The teachers have explained the students the reason for such actions, why it was necessary – they wanted to produce an appropriate teaching for each student taking his/her

abilities into account. The teachers have altered their syllabus to meet the demands of the students. The result proved to be satisfying. The students with better knowledge progressed; no one halted them. The weaker students have gradually improved their knowledge, for they received due attention than it would be in a mixed group.

3 Progress test

Having discussed two types of tests that are usually used at the beginning, we can approach the test typically employed during the study year to check the students' development. We will speak about a progress test. According to Alderson (1996:217), progress test will show the teacher whether the students have learnt the recently taught material successfully. Basically, the teacher intends to check certain items, not general topics covered during the school or study year. Commonly, it is not very long and is determined to check the recent material. Therefore, the teacher might expect his/her learners to get rather high scores. The following type is supposed to be used after the students have learnt either a set of units on a theme or have covered a definite topic of the language. It will display the teacher whether the material has been successfully acquired or the students need additional practice instead of starting a new material.

A progress test will basically display the activities based on the material the teacher is determined to check. To evaluate it the teacher can work out a certain system of points that later will compose a mark. Typically, such tests do not influence the students' final mark at the end of the year.

The authorities of school demand the teachers to conduct progress tests, as well. However, the teachers themselves decide on the necessity of applying them. Nevertheless, we can claim that progress test is inevitable part of the learning process. We can even take a responsibility to declare that progress test facilitate the material acquisition in a way. The students preparing for the test look through the material again and there is a chance it can be transferred to their long-term memory.

Further, we can come to Alderson (ibid.) who presumes that such type of testing could function as a motivating fact for the learners, for success will develop the students' confidence in their own knowledge and motivate them study further more vigorously. In case, there will be two or three students whose scores are rather low, the teacher should encourage them by providing support in future and imply the idea that studying hard will allow them to catch up with the rest of the students sooner or later. The author of the paper basing on her experience agrees with the statement, for she had noticed that weaker students when they had managed to write their test successfully became proud of their achievement and started working better.

However, if the majority of the class scores a rather low grade, the teacher should be

cautious. This could be a signal that there is either something wrong with the teaching or the students are low motivated or lazy.

4 Achievement tests

Apart from a progress test the teachers employ another type – achievement test. According to Longman Dictionary of LTAL (3), an achievement test is a test, which measures a language someone has learned during a specific course, study or program. Here the progress is significant and, therefore, is the main point tested.

Alderson (1996:219) posits that achievement tests are “more formal”, whereas Hughes (1989:8) assumes that this type of tests will fully involve teachers, for they will be responsible for the preparation of such tests and giving them to the learners. He repeats the dictionary defining the notion of achievement tests, adding just that success of the students, groups of students, or the courses.

Furthermore, Alderson (ibid.) conceives that achievement tests are mainly given at definite times of the school year. Moreover, they could be extremely crucial for the students, for they are intended either to make the students pass or fail the test.

At this instant the author of the paper is determined to compare a progress and achievement test. Again if we look at these two types they might seem similar, however, it is not so. Drawing on the facts listed above (see sub-chapter 2.3) we can report that a progress test is typically used during the course to check the acquisition of an excerpted material. An achievement test checks the acquisition of the material, as well. Although, it is far different in its application time. We basically use an achievement test at the end of the course to check the acquisition of the material covered during the study year, not bits of it as it is with a progress test.

Quoting Hughes (ibid.) we can differentiate between two kinds of achievement tests: final and progress tests. Final tests are the tests that are usually given at the end of the course in order to check the students' achieved results and whether the objectives set at the beginning have been successfully reached. Further Hughes highlights that ministries of education, official examining boards, school administration and even the teachers themselves design these tests. The tests are based on the curriculum and the course that has been studied. We assume, that is a well-known fact that teachers usually are responsible for composing such tests, and it requires a careful work.

Alternatively, Alderson (ibid.) mentions two usage types of achievement tests: *formative* and *summative*. The notion of a formative test denotes the idea that the teacher will be able after evaluating the results of the test reconsider his/her teaching, syllabus design and even slow down the pace of studying to consolidate the material if it is necessary in future.

Notwithstanding, these reconsiderations will not affect the present students who have taken the test. They will be applied to the future syllabus design.

Summative usage will deal precisely with the students' success or failure. The teacher will immediately can take up remedial activities to improve a situation.

Further, Alderson (ibid.) and Heaton (1990:14) stipulate that designing an achievement test is rather time-consuming, for the achievement test is basically devised to cover a broad topic of the material covered during the course. In addition, one and the same achievement test could be given to more than one class at school to check both the students' progress and the teachers' work. At that point it is very essential to consider the material covered by different classes or groups. You cannot ask the students what they have not been taught. Heaton (ibid.) emphasises the close cooperative work of the teachers as a crucial element in test design. However, in the school the author of the paper used to work the teachers did not cooperate in designing achievement tests. Each teacher was free to write the test that best suits his/her children.

Developing the topic, we can focus on Hughes' idea that there is an approach how to design a test; it is called *syllabus-content approach*. The test is based on a syllabus studied or a book taken during the course. This test could be described as a fair test, for it focuses mainly on the detailed material that the students are supposed to have studied. Hughes (ibid.) points out that if the test is inappropriately designed, it could result in unsuccessful accomplishment of it. Sometimes the demands of the test may differ from the objectives of the course. Therefore, the test should be based directly on the objectives of the course. Consequently, it will influence the choice of books appropriate to the syllable and syllable itself. The backwash will be positive not only for the test, but also for the teaching. Furthermore, we should mention that the students have to know the criteria according to which they are going to be evaluated.

To conclude we shall state again that achievement tests are meant to check the mastery of the material covered by the learners. They will be great helpers for the teacher's future work and will contribute a lot to the students' progress.

5 Proficiency tests

The last type of test to be discussed is a proficiency test. Regarding Longman Dictionary of LTAL (292) proficiency test is a test, which measures how much of a language a person knows or has learnt. It is not bound to any curriculum or syllabus, but is intended to check the learners' language competence. Although, some preparation and administration was done before taking the test, the test's results are what being focused on. The examples of such tests could be the American Testing of English as Foreign Language test (further in the text TOEFL) that is used to measures the learners' general knowledge of English in order to allow them to

enter any high educational establishments or to take up a job in the USA. Another proficiency test is Cambridge First Certificate test that has almost the same aim as TOEFL.

Hughes (1989:10) gives the similar definition of proficiency tests stressing that training is not the thing that is emphasised, but the language. He adds that 'proficient' in the case of proficiency tests means possessing a certain ability of using the language according to an appropriate purpose. It denotes that the learner's language ability could be tested in various fields or subjects (art, science, medicine, etc.) in order to check whether the learner could suit the demands of a specific field or not. This could refer to TOEFL tests. Apart from TOEFL we can speak about Cambridge First Certificate test, which is general and does not concern any specific field. The aim of this test is to reveal whether the learners' language abilities have reached a certain standard set. The test could be taken by anyone who is interested in testing the level of language knowledge. There are special tests levels, which can be chosen by a candidate. If a candidate has passed the exam s/he can take another one of a different level. However, these entire tests are not free of charge, and in order to take it an individual has to pay for them.

Regarding Hughes (ibid.) who supposes that the only similar factor about such tests that they are not based on any courses, but are intended to measure the candidates' suitability for a certain post or course at the university, we can add that in order to pass these tests a candidate has to attend special preparatory courses.

Moreover, Hughes (ibid.) believes that the proficiency tests affect learners' more in negative way, than in positive one.

The author of the paper both agrees and does not agree with the Hughes' proposed statement. Definitely, this test could make the testee depressed and exhausted by taking a rather long test. Moreover, the proficiency tests are rather impartial; they are not testee-friendly.

However, there is a useful factor amongst the negative ones. It is preparation to proficiency tests, for it involves all language material starting from grammar finishing with listening comprehension. All four skills are being practised during the preparation course; various reading task and activities have been incorporated; writing has been stressed focusing on all possible types of essays, letters, reviews, etc. Speaking has been practiced as well. The whole material has been consolidated for many times.

To summarize we can claim that there are different types of tests that serve for different purposes. Moreover, they all are necessary for the teacher's work, for them, apart from a proficiency test, could contribute to successful material acquisition by learners.

Task

► Show this item to others and see what they think about it. Can you think of anything else that you would add to the list above?

► What changes would you be likely to make to these items before taking them forward to beta testing? Or would you discard them at this point and look for alternative item types to test textual competence? What alternative item types can you think of?

We can see that for very little cost we have collected a great deal of valuable data that helps us to think about how useful our items or tasks are. We have the opportunity to revise them before taking them forward to the next stage.

The second stage of rapid prototyping is beta testing, which is the external test of preproduction items. The purpose is to test the items or tasks for all the functions identified, with actual test takers or second-language learners. At this stage we may test a range of hypotheses, both those that have been developed by the test designers and those that have arisen from alpha testing. It is now critical to realize that *the design process itself has generated a research agenda that we are only just beginning to address*. We will attempt to list the questions that we must start to address with our prototypes in order to decide if they are worth retaining in any form at all after beta testing, or if the expense of field testing is justified. And we must realize that for those items that are retained, the results of our research will begin to form the evidentiary basis of the score meaning for the resulting test.

Claim we wish to make

Correct responses to the items will allow us to make meaningful statements about students' textual competence in the specific area of fluent and automatic word recognition skills, size of recognition vocabulary and ability to recognize common word combinations.

Expected difficulty drivers

Are collocation or set items more difficult?

Are items with superordinates as the key more difficult than options with hyponyms only?

Does the inclusion of cultural/idiomatic references make the item more difficult? Does word frequency make the item more difficult? Are items with abstract nouns more difficult than other items?

Assumptions

Do responses to items correlate with reading speed? Do responses to items correlate with estimates of vocabulary size? Can learners at different ability levels access relevant meanings for words taken out of context? (alpha testing)

Does the reasoning for the selection of a key become more problematic with increasing linguistic sophistication? (alpha testing)

Format and presentation

Can test takers understand the instructions easily? Do the font size and spacing impede responding to the item?

Construct-irrelevant variance

Do items with cultural or idiomatic references disadvantage sub-groups of the test taking population? (alpha testing)

Do collocation items test cognitive ('crossword') abilities unrelated to textual competence? (alpha testing)

In beta testing we are not able to generate item difficulty statistics for our prototypes.

The reason for this is that in rapid prototyping we use only small numbers of test takers who try out small numbers of each of the item types that we have designed.

Lesson – 6. Continuous assessment

In today's policy environment, testing has become a critical component of education reform. Policy makers and education administrators often view test scores as a measure of educational quality and use test scores to hold schools accountable for teacher performance. Continuous assessment, an alternative or supplement to high stakes testing of pupil achievement, offers a methodology for measuring pupil performance and using those findings to improve the success of pupils. What is continuous assessment?

Continuous assessment is a classroom strategy implemented by teachers to ascertain the knowledge, understanding, and skills attained by pupils. Teachers administer assessments in a variety of ways over time to allow them to observe multiple tasks and to collect information about what pupils know, understand, and can do. These assessments are curriculum-based tasks previously taught in class. Continuous assessment occurs frequently during the school year and is part of regular teacher-pupil interactions. Pupils receive feedback from teachers based on their performance that allows them to focus on topics they have not yet mastered. Teachers learn which students need review and remediation and which pupils are ready to move on to more complex work. Thus, the results of the assessments help to ensure that all pupils make learning progress throughout the school cycle thereby increasing their academic achievement.

What are the benefits of continuous assessment?

The continuous assessment process is much more than an examination of pupil achievement. Continuous assessment is also a powerful diagnostic tool that enables pupils to understand the areas in which they are having difficulty and to concentrate their efforts in those areas.

Continuous assessment also allows teachers to monitor the impact of their lessons on pupil understanding. Teachers can modify their pedagogical strategies to include the construction of remediation activities for pupils who are not working at the expected grade level and the creation of enrichment activities for pupils who are working at or above the expected grade level. Hence, the continuous assessment process supports a cycle of self-evaluation and

pupil-specific activities by both pupils and teachers.

Frequent interactions between pupils and teachers means that teachers know the strengths and weaknesses of their learners. These exchanges foster a pupil-teacher relationship based on individual interactions. Pupils learn that the teacher values their achievements and that their assessment outcomes have an impact on the instruction that they receive. One-to-one communication between the teacher and the pupil can motivate pupils to continue attending school and to work hard to achieve higher levels of mastery.

In continuous assessment, teachers assess the curriculum as implemented in the classroom. It also allows teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching strategies relative to the curriculum, and to change those strategies as dictated by the needs of their pupils. In addition, continuous assessments provide information on achievement of particular levels of skills, understanding, and knowledge rather than achievement of certain marks or scores. Thus, continuous assessment enables pupils to monitor their achievement of grade level goals and to visualize their progress towards those goals before it is too late to achieve them.

Task

► Pica et al. argue that jigsaw-type tasks elicit the kind of language that is most likely to lead to learning. With reference to the Pica et al. typology, why do you think this is so? Test task characteristics can be specified in many ways, and at levels of detail that suit particular situations. Bachman and Palmer (1996), for example, list characteristics of expected input, and characteristics of expected response in terms of format, language of input and topical characteristics. The language of input or expected response can be broken down in the following way:

Language characteristics:

- Organizational characteristics
- Grammatical (vocabulary, syntax, phonology, graphology)
- Textual (cohesion, rhetorical or conversational organization)
- Pragmatic characteristics
- Functional (ideational, manipulative, heuristic, imaginative)
- Sociolinguistic (dialect or variety, register, naturalness, cultural references and figurative language)

Lesson – 7. CEFR (common European Framework of reference)

What is the Common European Framework?

The Common European Framework provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe. It describes in a comprehensive way what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a

language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively. The description also covers the cultural context in which language is set. The Framework also defines levels of proficiency which allow learners' progress to be measured at each stage of learning and on a life-long basis. The Common European Framework is intended to overcome the barriers to communication among professionals working in the field of modern languages arising from the different educational systems in Europe. It provides the means for educational administrators, course designers, teachers, teacher trainers, examining bodies, etc., to reflect on their current practice, with a view to situating and coordinating their efforts and to ensuring that they meet the real needs of the learners for whom they are responsible. By providing a common basis for the explicit description of objectives, content and methods, the Framework will enhance the transparency of courses, syllabuses and qualifications, thus promoting international co-operation in the field of modern languages.

The provision of objective criteria for describing language proficiency will facilitate the mutual recognition of qualifications gained in different learning contexts, and accordingly will aid European mobility. The taxonomic nature of the Framework inevitably means trying to handle the great complexity of human language by breaking language competence down into separate components. This confronts us with psychological and pedagogical problems of some depth. Communication calls upon the whole human being. The competences separated and classified below interact in complex ways in the development of each unique human personality. As a social agent, each individual forms relationships with a widening cluster of overlapping social groups, which together define identity. In an intercultural approach, it is a central objective of language education to promote the favourable development of the learner's whole personality and sense of identity in response to the enriching experience of otherness in language and culture. It must be left to teachers and the learners themselves to reintegrate the many parts into a healthily developing whole. The Framework includes the description of 'partial' qualifications, appropriate when only a more restricted knowledge of a language is required (e.g. for understanding rather than speaking), or when a limited amount of time is available for the learning of a third or fourth language and more useful results can perhaps be attained by aiming at, say, recognition rather than recall skills. Giving formal recognition to such abilities will help to promote plurilingualism through the learning of a wider variety of European languages.

Task

Stansfield (1993: 199–200) contains a rare discussion of 'cost versus quality'. He recounts a story of a test development project in which he was asked to develop a test and refused to undertake the contract because he did not believe the figure on offer was enough to do the work

to meet professional standards. The contract was given to a company that was prepared to work within the funds available, and the test was ultimately not usable for its stated purpose.

► Should a test developer agree to take on a test design project with insufficient funding to meet professional standards on the grounds that ‘if we don’t do it, someone else with fewer professional skills will’?

One thing that all language testers are now agreed upon is that positive washback is something that language testers should plan for, even if there is no clear evidence for how this can be planned (Messick, 1996; Hamp-Lyons, 1997b; Wall, 1997, 2000).

		A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
U N D E R S T A N D I N G	Listening	I can understand familiar words and very basic phrases concerning myself, my family and immediate concrete surroundings when people speak slowly and clearly.	I can understand phrases and the highest frequency vocabulary related to areas of most immediate personal relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local area, employment). I can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements.	I can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. I can understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear.	I can understand extended speech and lectures and follow even complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. I can understand most TV news and current affairs programmes. I can understand the majority of films in standard dialect.	I can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. I can understand television programmes and films without too much effort.	I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language, whether live or broadcast, even when delivered at fast native speed, provided I have some time to get familiar with the accent.
	Reading	I can understand familiar names, words and very simple sentences, for example on notices and posters or in catalogues.	I can read very short, simple texts. I can find specific, predictable information in simple everyday material such as advertisements, prospectuses, menus and timetables and I can understand short simple personal letters.	I can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency everyday or job-related language. I can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters.	I can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. I can understand contemporary literary prose.	I can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. I can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field.	I can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. I can understand contemporary literary prose.
S P E A K I N G	Spoken interaction	I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say. I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.	I can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar topics and activities. I can handle very short social exchanges, even though I can't usually understand enough to keep the conversation going myself.	I can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events).	I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views.	I can express myself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. I can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution skilfully to those of other speakers.	I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. If I do have a problem I can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it.
	Spoken production	I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.	I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people, living conditions, my educational background and my present or most recent job.	I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.	I can present clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to my field of interest. I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.	I can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.	I can present a clear, smoothly-flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context and with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points.
W R I T I N G	Writing	I can write a short, simple postcard, for example sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.	I can write short, simple notes and messages. I can write a very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.	I can write simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.	I can write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view. I can write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences.	I can express myself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. I can write about complex subjects in a letter, an essay or a report, underlining what I consider to be the salient issues. I can select a style appropriate to the reader in mind.	I can write clear, smoothly-flowing text in an appropriate style. I can write complex letters, reports or articles which present a case with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points. I can write summaries and reviews of professional or literary works.

Lesson – 8. Test methods: Basics of test design

Constructing tests

Designing tests is an important part of assessing students understanding of course content and their level of competency in applying what they are learning. Whether you use low-stakes and frequent evaluations—quizzes—or high-stakes and infrequent evaluations—midterm and final—careful design will help provide more calibrated results.

- Multiple choice exams
- Essay questions
- Assessing your test

Here are a few general guidelines to help you get started:

- **Consider your reasons for testing.**
 - Will this quiz monitor the students' progress so that you can adjust the pace of the course?
 - Will ongoing quizzes serve to motivate students?
 - Will this final provide data for a grade at the end of the quarter?
 - Will this mid-term challenge students to apply concepts learned so far?

The reason(s) for giving a test will help you determine features such as length, format, level of detail required in answers, and the time frame for returning results to the students.

- **Maintain consistency** between goals for the course, methods of teaching, and the tests used to measure achievement of goals. If, for example, class time emphasizes review and recall of information, then so can the test; if class time emphasizes analysis and synthesis, then the test can also be designed to demonstrate how well students have learned these things.
- **Use testing methods that are appropriate to learning goals.** For example, a multiple choice test might be useful for demonstrating memory and recall, for example, but it may require an essay or open-ended problem-solving for students to demonstrate more independent analysis or synthesis.
- **Help Students prepare.** Most students will assume that the test is designed to measure what is most important for them to learn in the course. You can help students prepare for the test by clarifying course goals as well as reviewing material. This will allow the test to reinforce what you most want students to learn and retain.
- **Use consistent language** (in stating goals, in talking in class, and in writing test questions) to describe expected outcomes. If you want to use words like *explain* or *discuss*, be sure that you use them consistently and that students know what you mean when you use them.
- **Design test items that allow students to show a range of learning.** That is, students who have not fully mastered everything in the course should still be able to demonstrate how much they have learned.

Multiple choice exams

Multiple choice questions can be difficult to write, especially if you want students to go beyond recall of information, but the exams are easier to grade than essay or short-answer exams. On the other hand, multiple choice exams provide less opportunity than essay or short-answer exams for

you to determine how well the students can think about the course content or use the language of the discipline in responding to questions.

If you decide you want to test mostly recall of information or facts and you need to do so in the most efficient way, then you should consider using multiple choice tests.

The following ideas may be helpful as you begin to plan for a multiple choice exam:

- Since questions can result in misleading wording and misinterpretation, try to have a colleague answer your test questions before the students do.
- Be sure that the question is clear within the stem so that students do not have to read the various options to know what the question is asking.
- Avoid writing items that lead students to choose the right answer for the wrong reasons. For instance, avoid making the correct alternative the longest or most qualified one, or the only one that is grammatically appropriate to the stem.
- Try to design items that tap students' overall understanding of the subject. Although you may want to include some items that only require recognition, avoid the temptation to write items that are difficult because they are taken from obscure passages (footnotes, for instance).
- Consider a formal assessment of your multiple-choice questions with what is known as an "item analysis" of the test.

For example:

- Which questions proved to be the most difficult?
- Were there questions which most of the students with high grades missed?

This information can help you identify areas in which students need further work, and can also help you assess the test itself: Were the questions worded clearly? Was the level of difficulty appropriate? If scores are uniformly high, for example, you may be doing everything right, or have an unusually good class. On the other hand, your test may not have measured what you intended it to.

_____ Essay questions Essay tests let students display their overall understanding of a topic and demonstrate their ability to think critically, organize their thoughts, and be creative and original. While essay and short-answer questions are easier to design than multiple-choice tests, they are more difficult and time-consuming to score. Moreover, essay tests can suffer from unreliable grading; that is, grades on the same response may vary from reader to reader or from time to time by the same reader. For this reason, some faculty prefer short-answer items to essay tests. On the other hand, essay tests are the best measure of students' skills in higher-order thinking and written expression." (Barbara Gross Davis, *Tools for Teaching*, 1993, 272)

When are essay exams appropriate?

- When you are measuring students' ability to analyze, synthesize, or evaluate
- When you have been teaching at these levels (i.e. writing intensive courses, upper-division undergraduate seminars, graduate courses) or the content lends it self to more critical analysis as opposed to recalling information

How do you design essay exams?

- Be specific
- Use words and phrases that alert students to the kind of thinking you expect; for example, identify, compare, or critique
- Indicate with points (or time limits) the approximate amount of time students should spend on each question and the level of detail expected in their responses
- Be aware of time; practice taking the exam yourself or ask a colleague to look at the questions

How do you grade essay exams?

- Develop criteria for appropriate responses to each essay question
- Develop a scoring guide that tell what you are looking for in each response and how much credit you intend to give for each part of the response
- Read all of the responses to question 1, then all of the responses to question 2, and on through the exam. This will provide a more holistic view of how the class answered the individual questions

How do you help students succeed on essay exams?

- Use study questions that ask for the same kind of thinking you expect on exams
- During lecture or discussion emphasize examples of thinking that would be appropriate on essay exams
- Provide practice exams or sample test questions
- Show examples of successful exam answers

Assessing your test

Regardless of the kind of exams you use, you can assess their effectiveness by asking yourself some basic questions:

- **Did I test for what I thought I was testing for?**

If you wanted to know whether students could apply a concept to a new situation, but mostly asked questions determining whether they could label parts or define terms, then you tested for recall rather than application.

- **Did I test what I taught?**

For example, your questions may have tested the students' understanding of surface features or procedures, while you had been lecturing on causation or relation—not so much what the names of the bones of the foot are, but how they work together when we walk.

- **Did I test for what I emphasized in class?**

Make sure that you have asked most of the questions about the material you feel is the most important, especially if you have emphasized it in class. Avoid questions on obscure material that are weighted the same as questions on crucial material.

Is the material I tested for really what I wanted students to learn?

For example, if you wanted students to use analytical skills such as the ability to recognize patterns or draw inferences, but only used true-false questions requiring non-inferential recall, you might try writing more complex true-false or multiple-choice questions.

Task

Canale and Swain outline Hymes' s notion of a *speech event* in terms of participants, settings, form, topic, purpose, key, channel, code, norms of interaction, norms of interpretation and genre. The speech event is said to be the basis for understanding the rules of language use.

➤ Consider a speech event in a culture with which you are familiar, in which a novice may commit a serious communication blunder if unfamiliar with the rules of language use. Write down the rule of use that you may need to teach or test.

➤ Can you think of a test item or task for a test of this rule? This seminal model of communication is relevant to language testing for several reasons.

Firstly, the distinction between communicative competence and actual performance means that tests should contain tasks that require actual performance as well as tasks or item types that measure knowledge. These task types would allow test takers to demonstrate their knowledge in action. This is a theoretical rationale for the view that pencil and paper tests of knowledge alone cannot directly indicate whether a language learner can actually speak or write in a communicative situation. Secondly, as communicative competence was viewed as knowledge, discrete point tests were seen as useful for some purposes. Discrete point tests – using items that tested just one isolated item of grammar, for example – had been heavily criticized in the communicative revolution of the 1970s (see Fulcher, 2000a), but Canale and Swain argued that this criticism was not theoretically sound. Thirdly, the model, especially if it were more 'fine grained', could be used to develop

criteria for the evaluation of language performance, at different levels of proficiency. It is clear that the implications of a model of language competence and use have much to say about how we evaluate language performance, award a score to that performance and therefore interpret the score in terms of what we hypothesize the test taker is able to do in non-test situations.

Lesson – 9. How to assess writing

What is Best Practice Writing Instruction?

Writing is very important in education today so everyone wants to know the best way to teach it. But that can be a challenge because there are so many different ideas out there. Fortunately, in the last decade, a national consensus has emerged regarding the essential elements of successful instruction. In the book *Best Practice: New Standards For Teaching and Learning in America's Schools*, written by Harvey Daniels, Steve Zemelman, and Arthur Hyde (2nd edition, 1999, published by Heinemann), the path to effective writing instruction is defined as follows:

Increase student ownership and responsibility by: helping students choose their own topics and goals for improvement; using brief teacher-student conferences; teaching students to review their own progress.	Decrease teacher control of decision making by: teacher deciding on all writing topics; suggestions for improvement dictated by teacher; learning objectives determined by teacher alone; instruction given as whole-class activity.
Increase class time spent on writing whole, original pieces through: establishing real purposes for writing and student involvement in the task; instruction in and support for all stages of the writing process.	Decrease time spent on isolated drills on "subskills" of grammar, vocabulary, spelling, paragraphing, penmanship, etc.
Increase teacher modeling writing as a fellow author and as a demonstration of processes.	Decrease teacher talks about writing but never writes or shares own work.
Increase learning of grammar and mechanics in context, at the editing stage, and as items are needed.	Decrease isolated grammar lessons, given in order determined by textbook, before writing is begun.
Increase writing for real audiences, publishing for the class and for wider communities.	Decrease assignments read only by the teacher.
Increase making the classroom a supportive setting for shared learning, using: active exchange and valuing of students ideas; collaborative small-group work; conferences and peer critiquing that give responsibility for improvement to authors.	Decrease devaluation of students ideas through: students viewed as lacking knowledge and language abilities; sense of class as competing individuals; work with fellow students viewed as cheating or disruptive.
Increase writing across the curriculum as a tool for learning.	Decrease writing taught only during "language arts" period—i.e., infrequently.
Increase constructive and efficient evaluation that involves: brief informal oral responses as students work; thorough grading of just a few student-selected, polished pieces; focus on a few errors at a time; cumulative view of growth and self-evaluation; encouragement of risk taking and honest expression.	Decrease evaluation as negative burden for teacher and student by: marking all papers heavily for errors, making teacher a bottleneck; teacher editing paper, and only after completed, rather than student making improvements; grading seen as punitive, focused on errors, not growth.

The message of best practice is clear: the more we apply proven principles of successful teaching, the more engaged our students will be in successful learning. This is a gradual process that unfolds over time. Teachers proceed on a continuum of development just like their students. With ongoing exposure to effective teaching methods through high quality in-service training and consistent administrative leadership that supports and validates contemporary instruction, teachers gradually replace less successful approaches with proven techniques that maximize student achievement.

Since the early 1990s when the best practice movement in American education began to take shape, thousands of teachers and administrators have begun the process of making research-based instruction an integral part of their schools. There is already a large best practice community in our country and many resources to help teachers make the transition. In the face of increasing pressure to improve student learning, everyone is looking for solutions. Best practice defines those solutions and provides for us the most logical and responsible path we can take.

How Do Teachers Achieve Best Practice?

Learning about best practice is vital but it's only the beginning. Knowing what best practice is helps us define where we want our teaching to end up. But it doesn't necessarily tell us how to get there. In our work, we have found that teachers achieve best practice when they concentrate their efforts on the following six instructional areas:

Writer's Workshop <i>A system for classroom management and the development of an effective writing community.</i>	Focused mini-lessons taught in the context of authentic writing; status of the class; the majority of class time reserved for writing; conferencing; sharing; students choosing their own topics and forms; emphasis on authentic audiences and purposeful communication; writer's notebooks; frequent teacher modeling; five days a week, 45-60 minutes per day at elementary, three days a week at secondary; etc.
Writing Process <i>Teaching students how to write the way real writers write.</i>	Pre-writing to develop ideas; drafting to increase fluency and expression; sharing to get feedback; revision to apply feedback; editing to produce conventional writing; publishing to make work available with others (twice a month on average); assessing to understand strengths and weaknesses and determine goals for improvement.
Writing Strategies <i>Reliable, re-usable techniques that help writers solve common problems.</i>	Topic T-Chart; What-Why-How; Idea-Details; Tell-Show; Transition-Action-Details; Draw-Label-Caption; Action-Feelings-Setting; Content-Purpose-Audience; The Five Big Questions; The Five Facts of Fiction; lead strategies; ending strategies; pacing strategies; transition strategies; sentence strategies; conventions strategies; etc.
Six Traits <i>A language of quality that defines good writing.</i>	Ideas: main idea, details, showing, purpose, originality; Organization: leads, endings, transitions, pacing, sequencing; Voice: personality, style, respect for audience; honesty; control; Word Choice: strong verbs, specific nouns and modifiers, appropriate vocabulary, memorable phrases, grammar and usage; Sentence Fluency: length, beginnings, sound, expression, construction; Conventions: capitalization, ending punctuation, internal punctuation, paragraphing, spelling.
Authentic Forms <i>Helping students explore and master the kinds of writing done by real people in the real world.</i>	The creation of whole pieces that match as closely as possible the same types of writing done by adults; Primary emphasis on the personal essay (narrative, expository, persuasive) as the foundation of all writing; informational writing, reviews; letters; newspaper and magazine journalism; secondary emphasis on career-related forms such as technical writing, business writing, proposals, etc.; Occasional work on fiction, poetry, drama; etc.
Reading-Writing Connection <i>Helping students internalize reading and writing as complimentary aspects of literate communication.</i>	Writing strategies used in "reverse" as comprehension strategies; analyzing reading texts for writing techniques; Explicit training in expressive reading to improve understanding of conventions; Conventions reading; Studying the same forms in reading that we want students to write; Reading and evaluating the writing of other students; etc.

In addition to dramatic improvements in test scores, teachers who have based the development of their own writing programs on the model presented here note the following advantages over the traditional approaches they used in the past: (1) Students enjoy writing; (2) Students write significantly more; (3) Low students often make as much progress as high students; (4) Students work independently with significantly greater on-task performance; (5) The burden of correcting and grading is reduced significantly; (6) Parents are thrilled; (7) Overall literacy improves across a broad range of reading, writing, and thinking skills; (8) Students gain confidence; (9) Students demonstrate more accountability and demonstrate greater effort; (10) Success in writing carries over into other subjects; (11) Student behavior improves making the classroom easier to manage; (12) Students enjoy school more.

Task

- Do you prepare students to take tests? Which tests?
- Does the test influence how you teach? How do you use the task types on the test in preparing your classes?

The term *washback* is used to talk about the effect that tests have on what goes on in the classroom. For many years it was just assumed that ‘good tests’ would produce ‘good washback’ and inversely that ‘bad tests’ would produce ‘bad washback’. We now know that it is much more complex than this, as Alderson and Wall (1993) have shown (see Unit B5). And, of course, the whole notion of washback extends beyond the immediate impact on the classroom to how tests affect schools, educational systems and even countries, although this is sometimes referred to as the study of *impact*, rather than washback (see Wall, 2000; Cheng and Watanabe, 2004). The study of washback is also concerned with the political use of tests to implement changes in classrooms that are seen as improvements by governments. However, here we are concerned only with the impact that the test has on the classroom as task types are frequently copied, either for practice or because there is an assumption that using the same tasks that appear on the test in teaching will result in higher scores for students.¹ But this is not necessarily so. Once students are familiar with a task type, that is all that is necessary to avoid the *test method* affecting the *test score*. What the teacher needs to ask is whether the test producers make it clear what each task type is supposed to test by setting out clearly the evidential link that they expect to hold between the task, the evidence that it is supposed to generate and the claim they wish to make about the test takers. If this information is available the teacher is given a very powerful set of conceptual tools that can lead to the generation of many different types of classroom activities that develop the communicative competences the test claims to measure. The formal test may have to use task types that can be delivered in a short space of time, maximizing the information that can be gained in that time. This was the subject of Unit A2. But teachers are not limited to the task types on the test to develop the abilities of learners in the classroom.

Lesson – 10. How to assess reading

The Assessment of Reading Competence

One of the key objectives of the National Educational Panel Study (NEPS) is the assessment of competencies that are considered to be of particular importance for educational pathways and participation in society. As part of the broader construct of German-language competencies (cf. Berendes, Weinert, Zimmermann, & Artelt, submitted), reading competence is one of several educationally relevant competence domains that NEPS intends to measure coherently across the life span. Based on the detailed description of the

framework in Gehrler, Zimmermann, Artelt, and Weinert (submitted), this paper presents a summary of the main framework features and sample items for the reading competence tests of students in grade 5 and 9. The construct principles and specific aspects of the framework are outlined with reference to the released sample items.

Characteristics of the Framework for the Assessment of Reading Competence

The ability to understand and use written texts is an important precondition for further developing personal knowledge and personal skills, and a prerequisite for participating in cultural and social life. Manifold areas of knowledge and life are made accessible through reading. The range of reading occasions is very wide, and reading fulfills many different functions (cf. Groeben & Hurrelmann, 2004). These may include reading to expand knowledge, which is crucial to further education and lifelong learning, and literary-aesthetic reading. Not only do texts convey information and facts, but they also transport ideas, moral concepts, and cultural contents. Accordingly, the concept of reading competence in the National Education Panel Study takes functional understanding as a basis for reading competence, as is also reflected in the Anglo-Saxon Literacy Concept (also see OECD, 2009), with the focus on competent handling of written texts in different and typical everyday situations.

In order to implement the concept of reading competence over the life span as coherently as possible, three characteristic features have been specified in the framework concepts for the NEPS reading competence tests. They are considered in all stage-adapted test forms:

1. Text functions or text types respectively,
2. Cognitive requirements,
3. Task formats (Item formats).

By systematically considering different text functions, which are implemented in different age groups in realistic and age-specific texts, text themes, and different cognitive requirements of the related tasks, it is possible to operationalize reading competence as a comprehensive ability construct.

Text Functions/Text Types

The NEPS reading tests distinguish between five text functions and associated text types which are represented in each version of the test: a) informational texts, b) commenting or argumenting texts, c) literary texts, d) instructional texts, and e) advertising texts (see in detail Gehrler & Artelt, in press). This selection is based on the assumption that these five text functions are of practical relevance to the study participants of various ages. The text functions and/or text types can be characterized as follows:

Texts with an information function represent basic texts for learning, fundamental

acquisition of knowledge, and extraction of information; examples are: articles, reports, reportages, and announcements.

Texts with a commenting or arguing function are texts in which a stand is taken or a controversial question is discussed and in which a reflecting level is integrated. In the student cohorts, for example, the attractions and drawbacks of smoking could be discussed in grade 9. In grade 5, for instance, the pros and cons of communication in social networks were discussed. The literary-aesthetic function of texts was included in the third category; here, short stories and extracts from novels or stories can be found. As a result of their specific reception, which is probably also strongly dependent on educational track and curriculum, specific literary text types such as stage plays, satires, or poems had been excluded. The fourth category of instructions comprises functional text types conveying product inserts such as engineering and operating instructions, package inserts for medication, work instructions, cooking recipes, etc. The fifth category (appeals, advertising) includes text types such as job advertisements, recreational programs, etc. The five selected text functions and, thus, the associated text types are implemented as a longitudinal concept in each test booklet over the life span, which means that each test/each test booklet used for measuring reading competence contains a total of five texts corresponding to the five different text functions.

Unlike the PISA studies, NEPS concentrates on continuous texts and does not include discontinuous texts such as graphics, tables, road maps, etc. Discontinuous texts are not contained in the NEPS concept (cf. Gehrler et al., submitted) as they require different types of reading and comprehension processes (Schnotz & Duthke, 2004; see also Artelt, Stanat, Schneider, Schiefele, & Lehmann, 2004 for an empirical study).

Age-specific selection (text complexity, topic selection):

For each age cohort, texts have been selected according to thematic orientation and lexical, semantic, and grammatical properties that are required to be appropriate for the respective group of readers. By increasing text complexity (larger vocabulary, longer words, foreign words, and increased complexity of the sentence structures) as well as the basic length of texts, the test design takes into account the increasing reading competence from childhood to early adulthood. In addition, texts are selected in order to ensure that topics correspond to the environment of the respective age group. This covers a wide spectrum of topics ranging, for example, from animals and other motivating themes for children to sport activities, communication technology, and leisure themes for adolescents. Additionally, the test material is adjusted to the respective age group through age-adapted phrasing of the questions and the answering options.

Cognitive requirements / task types

From the literature on reading competence and text comprehension (e.g., Kintsch, 1998; Richter & Christmann, 2002), it is possible to derive different types of cognitive requirements reflected in the NEPS concept in three specific requirement types of the tasks (task types).

The variants are called types as no explicit assumption is made suggesting that tasks of one type were, by necessity, more difficult or easier than tasks of another type.

For tasks of the first type (finding information in text), detailed information must be identified at sentence level, in other words deciphering and recognizing statements or propositions. For tasks in this requirement cluster, the information needed to solve the respective tasks is, in terms of the wording, either contained in the text and identical with the task itself, or its phrasing varies slightly.

In the case of the second task type (drawing text-related conclusions), conclusions have to be drawn from several sentences to be related to each other in order to construct local or global coherence. In some cases, this takes place between sentences located closely together; in others, several sentences are spread over entire sections. In another version of this type, the task is to understand the thoughts expressed in the entire text, which requires the comprehension and integration of larger and more complex text portions.

For the third type, the requirements of reflecting and assessing are in the foreground, which in the literature is often linked to the mental representation of the text in the form of a situation model. In one version of this task type, the task is to understand the central idea, the main events, or the core message of text, whereas in another version, the purpose and intention of a text has to be recognized and the readers are asked to assess the credibility of a text.

The different cognitive requirements occur in all text functions and are considered in the respective test versions in a well-proportioned ratio. (*cf. Figure 1*).

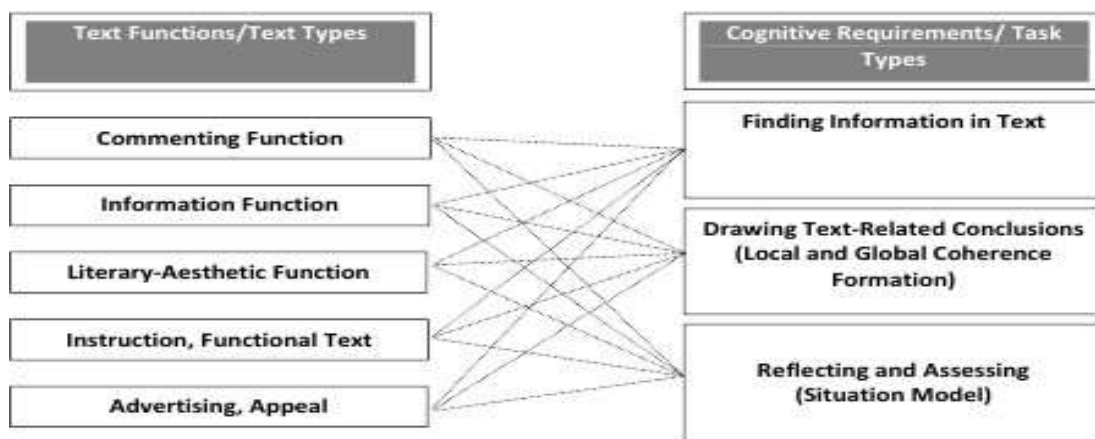


Figure 1. Text functions and cognitive requirements in the reading competence test.

The three cognitive requirements of the reading process are distributed as evenly as

possible throughout the test booklet.

Task

Consider the following set of questions from the Personal Reading Process Interview (Fradd and McGee, 1994: 263). This is a structured interview which may be used as one strand of evidence in the evaluation of English as a Second Language reading development in children.

- 1 What is reading?
- 2 Why do you read?
- 3 Do you know how to read in more than one language? Do you read more in one language than another? Which one? How did you learn to read in that language?
- 4 What did the teachers do to help you learn to read?
- 5 Do you know how to read well? How do you know, or what makes you think so?
- 6 What do you think makes the difference between reading well and reading poorly?
- 7 Is there something that you would like to improve about the way you read?
- 8 When you are reading and there is a word, a phrase or a sentence you do not know or understand, what do you do? Is there anything else you can do?
- 9 Do you know someone who reads well? How do you know this person is a good reader?
- 10 What do people do when they come to something they don't know?
- 11 Do you think your teacher is a good reader? What makes him or her a good reader?
- 12 What do you think teachers do when they come to something they do not know?

The authors suggest that the responses to these questions would show a more or less 'effective understanding of the reading process'.

► How might you use information from this (or a similar) interview to inform decisions in your reading classroom?

Lesson – 11. Final assessment. What are final assessment methods?

Final assessment methods are the strategies, techniques, tools and instruments for collecting information to determine the extent to which students demonstrate desired learning outcomes. Several methods should be used to assess student learning outcomes. See the Final assessment Methods Table for an overview of some commonly used direct and indirect methods of final assessment.

Why is it important to use multiple methods?

Relying on only one method to provide information about the program will only reflect a part of students' achievement. Additionally, SLO may be difficult to assess using only one method. For each SLO, a combination of direct and indirect final assessment methods should be used. For example, responses from student surveys may be informative, however, when

combined with students' test results they will be more meaningful, valid, and reliable.

What are direct and indirect methods of final assessment?

Direct methods of final assessment ask students to demonstrate their learning while indirect methods ask students to reflect on their learning. Tests, essays, presentations, etc. are generally direct methods of final assessment, and indirect methods include surveys and interviews.

Can grades be used for final assessment?

Even though course grades are a source of information about student achievement, they are generally insufficient in measuring the student learning outcomes of the program.

Grades may not identify whether the SLO have been achieved, may include factors not related to SLO such as class participation, and faculty members may differ in their grading policies and practices. Considering these limitations, however, grades MAY be able to be used for program final assessment IF they relate to the program's SLO and if grading methods are consistent across program faculty and courses. There is a book dedicated to the use of grades as an final assessment measure. (Walvoord, Barbara, & Anderson, Virginia Johnson. (1998). *Effective grading: A tool for learning and final assessment*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.)

What are embedded final final final assessment methods?

Embedded final assessments utilize existing student course work as both a grading instrument as well as data for assessing SLO. Embedded final assessments are also referred to as "classroom-based" or "continuous" final assessments. Embedded final assessments can assess individual student performance, the course, or the program if the information is aggregated; they can be formative or summative, quantitative or qualitative. If embedded final assessments are properly designed, students should not be able to tell whether they are being taught or assessed. For example, as part of a course, each student completes a research paper that is graded for content and style, but is also assessed for advanced ability to locate and evaluate Web-based information (as part of a college-wide outcome to demonstrate information literacy).

What existing information can be used for program final assessment?

There may be numerous types of course work that can be utilized for the final assessment of SLO. Some modifications may be made to the existing assignments in order to more directly assess the SLO of the program. Additionally, a rubric may be developed for instructors to use for grading and scoring the final assessment.

Below are some examples of information that may already be collected by programs:

- *Course exams*
- *Course assignments/projects*
- *Essays, written exams, research papers, etc.*

- *Second year assignments or projects, capstone*

When reviewing existing course material to determine whether it can be utilized for the final assessment of student learning outcomes, consider asking:

Does final assessment method/instrument answer (final assessment) questions?

Does it yield the information/data needed to understand how students learn and what can be improved?

What revisions might be necessary?

Are there other or additional final assessment tools that are needed?

Are there other departments that might benefit from knowing about the tools being used?

Which final assessment method should be used for final assessment?

Each program will select the final assessment methods that will provide the most useful and relevant information for the purposes that the program and its faculty have identified.

When selecting which final assessment methods to use, consider what questions need to be answered, the availability of resources, and the usefulness of the results. Programs may find it valuable to identify what information currently exists in the program that can be utilized as well as what final assessment methods have been used for past final assessments.

Task

► Try to create a list of random influences that might affect observed test scores on any particular administration of a test. Methods of computing reliability therefore try to estimate the extent to which an observed score is near to a true score, for it is only if the observed score is a good estimate of a true score that we can draw sound inferences from the score to the construct. Interestingly, as Ennis (1999) points out, concepts like ‘true score’ do not usually enter the public discussions about testing, where the parent term (reliability) dominates.

IV. AMALIY MASHG‘ULOT MATERIALLARI

CLASSROOM LANGUAGE 1

Handout 1, Lead-in

Task 1 Work individually, tick the boxes which apply to you.

Which language do you use in your classes in order to...

	English	Uzbek	Russian	Other	Give an example if possible
1 ...introduce the lesson					
2 ...explain grammar					
3 ...teach new words					

4 ...give feedback to learners					
5 ...praise					
6 ...scold					
7 ...keep order					
8 ... give instructions					
9 ...check homework					
10...close the lesson					

Task 2 Get into groups of three and discuss the similarities and differences between your answers. Try to find reasons for this.

CLASSROOM LANGUAGE 1

Handout 2, Activity 1 Identifying the function of expressions

Task 1 Identify the function of each set of classroom language. The first is done as an example.

A – 3; B –.....; c –; D –; E –

Expressions	Functions
A. Could you try the next one? I would like you to write this down. It might be an idea to leave this till next time. Can anyone else answer the question?	1. Giving instructions
B. That's interesting! That really is very kind of you. Don't worry about it. I was a bit disappointed with your results.	2. Checking on turn-taking
C. Open your books at page 73. Come out and write it on the board. Listen to the tape, please. Get into groups of four. Finish this off at home.	2. Offering alternatives
D. Whose turn is it to read? Which question are you on? Next one, please. Who hasn't answered a question yet?	3. Greeting and Socialising
E. Good morning. Have a nice weekend. Thanks for your help. Happy birthday!	4. Giving Feedback

Task 2 Decide which of the instructions you usually use, or would use, in your class

CLASSROOM LANGUAGE 1

Handout 3, Activity 2 Identifying teacher's classroom language use

Task 1 Watch a classroom video and make a note of the phrases used by the teacher for each of the following functions.

Functions	Teacher's phrases
1. to introduce the lesson	
2. to teach new words	
3. to give feedback to learners	
4. to praise	
5. to scold	
6. to keep order	
7. to give instructions	
8. to close the lesson	

Task 2 Get into groups of three and discuss the effectiveness of each sample of classroom language which you've noted down (e.g. too long, too short, too difficult, not clear enough, etc.). Discuss the level of politeness the teacher uses.

CLASSROOM LANGUAGE 1

Handout 4, Activity 3, Recognising level of politeness

Task 1 Identify level of politeness of the expressions in each category and number them from 1 – the least polite to 6 – the most polite. One is done as an example.

1. Getting into groups	Level of politeness
Can you get into groups of four, please?	
Form groups of four	1

Get into groups of four, please.	
I'd like you to get into groups of four.	
Now I am going to invite you to work in groups of four.	
Let's work in groups of four for this activity.	
2. Keeping order	Level of politeness
Are you with me or somewhere else?	
Can you give me your attention?	
You are not listening to me.	
Pay attention.	
I'd like you to listen to me, please.	
Listen to me, please	

Task 2 Which of these instructions would you choose for your class and why (e.g. because they are simple, effective, polite)?

CLASSROOM LANGUAGE 1

Handout 5, Activity 4, Application/Practice

Task 1 Write two instructions for each of the following situations

~ To attract students' attention

.....
.....
.....

~ To deal with noise in the classroom.

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.....

~ To ask students to work with partners

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.....

~ To check students' understanding.

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.....

~ To make remarks/ comments on a student's incorrect answer.

.....
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.....

~ To praise a student for the right answer.

.....
.....
.....

~ To tell the students about homework.

.....
.....
.....

Task 2 In the group, share your responses and explain your choices.
Choose the best answers in the group to present.

LANGUAGE AND CULTURE 2

Handout 1, Activity 1, Article discussion

David J. Lehner's article *Language and Culture* and questions on it.

Not clear here:

1. The activity refers to Handout 4 from Session 5.

2. Should be put the article with questions again in Handout 1?

Handout 2, Activity 2, Perception of British and American English

Dildora and Jasur, English language teachers from Uzbekistan, discuss their views of BrE and AmE. Which of these views do you agree and disagree with?

	Question	Answer
1	Which varieties of English do Dildora and Jasur prefer? How do you know?	
2	Which features of BrE have they identified?	
3	Which features of AmE have they identified?	
4	Do you generally agree with their views? Why?	
5	Do you agree with Jasur's statement that Americans use the word 'like' too much?	
6	What do you think Dildora means when she says Americans 'want to please you'?	
7	Do you agree with Jasur's opinion that the British are less emotional and more reserved in the use of the language than Americans?	
8	Which parts of the conversation tend to be based on stereotypes rather than real evidence?	
9	Do you think Dildora's and Jasur's own cultural background affects their perception of AmE and BrE? In what way?	
10	To what extent is oral communication defined by speakers' personal qualities and circumstances and not by their national character?	
11	When can we make reasonable generalisations like 'The British are like X' or 'Americans prefer Y'?	

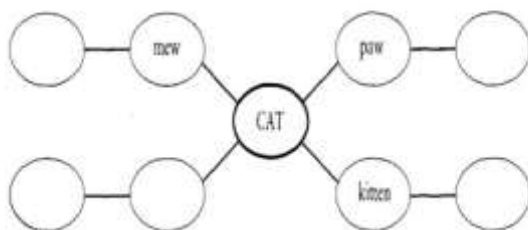
LANGUAGE AND CULTURE 2

Handout 3, Activity 3, My own cultural *persona*

1. Do you want to be recognised as an Uzbek (or Russian) speaker when you use English? In what way? Why?

2. What other aspects of your social personality do you want to be acknowledged in an English-speaking context, e.g. your age, gender or class? How? To what extent do you expect it to be different to your mother tongue context (e.g. use of first names, reasons for and ways to express politeness, avoidance of certain topics)?
3. As what kind of person would you like to come across to others in an English-speaking context?
4. How important is it for you to be culturally sensitive when you communicate in English
5. What actions are you going to undertake in order to develop your own English language *persona*?

Learn words with associated meanings together.



Learn words with a grammatical association together.

- A) CHILD TOOTH FOOT
- B) INFORMATION FURNITURE LUGGAGE
- C) CUT SPLIT PUT

Pictures and diagrams can help you learn



Matrices can also clarify collocations.

	a car	a motorcycle	a train	a horse	a plane
to fly					+
to drive	+		+		
to ride		+		+	

FORMAL ASSESSMENT

- have data which support the conclusions made from the test
- usually refer to these types of tests as standardized measures
- These tests have been tried before on students and have statistics which support the conclusion such as the student is reading below average for his age.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

□ are not data driven but rather content and performance driven. For example, running records are informal assessments because they indicate how well a student is reading a specific book. Scores such as 10 correct out of 15, percent of words read correctly, and most rubric scores; are given from this type of assessment.

FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT

- Gathering of data during a time program is being develop. This is likewise provide feedback for the improvement of an instruction or for the improvement of the program.
- Determines whether the teacher delivers quality instruction in a particular day-base on the particular result.
- Administered at the end of the day's lesson.

SUMMATIVE ASSESSMENT

- Use to determine the mastery and achievement of the student.
- Done usually at the end of a chapter or unit
- Accountability of success or failure.
- Designed to determine the extent to which the instructional objectives have been achieved.
- Use primarily in assigning grades.

PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENT

□ is undertaken to determine whether students can demonstrate their learning through performance in real or simulated situations

AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT

□ determines what students can actually do in real-life situations rather than using some easy-to-score responses to questions

IPSATIVE ASSESSMENT

☐ refers to the process of self-assessment. One of the principles of evaluation states that, “evaluation should provide for self-assessment.”

DIAGNOSTIC ASSESSMENT

☐ used to determine, prior to instruction, a student’s strengths, needs, knowledge and skills. The results permit the instructor to remediate student deficits and adjust instruction and curriculum to meet each pupil’s unique needs.

TRADITIONAL ASSESSMENT

- ☐ Type of assessment in which the student choose the answers from a given list of choices.
- ☐ Students are expected to recognized that in this assessment there is only one correct answer.
- ☐ Paper-and-Pencil test
- ☐ Development of HOTS are being limited.

AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT

- ☐ Asked to perform a task or construct their ow response.
- ☐ The forms can be devise by the teacher with the collaboration of the students.
- ☐ Variety of tasks and strategies
- ☐ Given opportunity to evaluate his or her own work.
- ☐ Development of HOTS is fostered to a great extent.

Terms	Definitions
Attention span	Amount of time learners are able to pay attention.
Authentic materials	Materials used in the target culture for actual communicative needs.
Bins	Storage boxes that contain materials for classroom use.
Chant	Words or phrases that are repeated again and again, in a rhythm.
Classroom library	An area of the classroom where students can find books and resource material for self or group study.
Classroom management	The way in which the teacher manages the students and content of classroom learning. It includes use of time, physical arrangement of the room, direction of students, choice of activities, etc.
Guided Language Acquisition Design (GLAD)	Instructional approach for grades K-8 for low and intermediate language level learners that provides authentic opportunities for use of academic language, maintains highest standards and expectations for all students, and fosters voice and identity. Primary language is provided by trained, bilingual teachers, trained bilingual aides, trained parents, or cross-age / peer tutoring. Emphasizes teacher collaboration. Listening, speaking, reading and writing are integrated among all content areas with an emphasis on science, social studies, and literature.
Holistic language	Language treated as a whole, with integration of skills.
Individualized learning; differentiated instruction	Opportunities for students to interact with material at their own rate and level of proficiency.
Language Experience Approach (LEA)	Uses learners' own experiences as a basis for classroom speaking, listening, reading, and writing activities. Learners dictate to the teacher or assistant, who writes down what they say.
Phonics	A reading approach that teaches the written symbols which represent the sounds of a language.
Skit	A short dramatization or play.
Sound-symbol correspondence	The relationship between the sounds of a language and the written forms of those sounds.
Total Physical Response (TPR); TPR-Storytelling (TPR-S)	A language teaching approach that combines language learning with physical movement, initially based on commands. TPR-Storytelling (TPR-S) adds the additional component of oral performance.
Transition techniques	Techniques for changing from one activity to another.
Learning centers; stations	Areas of a classroom that are set up for specific purposes, such as reading or working with objects.

Document B3 Illustrative scales in Chapter 4: Working with text

TEXT	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Note taking in seminars and lectures• Processing text
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Document B4 Illustrative scales in Chapter 5: Communicative language competence

LINGUISTIC	Range: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• General range• Vocabulary range Control: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Grammatical accuracy• Vocabulary control• Phonological control• Orthographic control
SOCIOLINGUISTIC	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Sociolinguistic
PRAGMATIC	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Flexibility• Taking the floor (turntaking) – repeated• Thematic development• Coherence• Propositional precision• Spoken fluency

Document B5 Coherence in descriptor calibration

The position at which particular content appears on the scale demonstrates a high degree of coherence. As an example, one can take topics. No descriptors were included for topics, but topics were referred to in descriptors for various categories. The three most relevant categories were *Describing & narrating*, *Information exchange* and *Range*.

The charts below compare the way topics are treated in those three areas. Although the content of the three charts is not identical, comparison demonstrates a considerable degree of coherence, which is reflected throughout the set of calibrated descriptors. Analysis of this kind has been the basis for producing descriptors for categories not included in the original survey (e.g. *Public announcements*) by recombining descriptor elements.

Document B1 Illustrative scales in Chapter 4: Communicative activities

R E C E P T I O N	Spoken	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall listening comprehension <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding Interaction between native speakers • Listening as a member of a live audience • Listening to announcements and instructions • Listening to radio & audio recordings
	Audio/Visual	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Watching TV & film
	Written	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall reading comprehension <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading correspondence • Reading for orientation • Reading for information and argument • Reading instructions
I N T E R A C T I O N	Spoken	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall spoken interaction <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comprehension in interaction • Understanding a native speaker interlocutor • Conversation • Informal discussion • Formal discussion (Meetings) • Goal-oriented co-operation • Obtaining goods and services • Information exchange • Interviewing & being interviewed
	Written	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall written interaction <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Correspondence • Notes, messages & forms
P R O D U C T I O N	Spoken	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall spoken production <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sustained monologue: describing experience • Sustained monologue: putting a case (e.g. debate) • Public announcements • Addressing audiences
	Written	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall written production <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creative writing • Writing reports and essays

Document B2 Illustrative scales in Chapter 4: Communication strategies

RECEPTION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifying cues and inferring
INTERACTION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Taking the floor (turntaking) • Co-operating • Asking for clarification
PRODUCTION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Planning • Compensating • Monitoring and repair

DESCRIBING & NARRATING:						
A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • where they live 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • people, appearance • background, job • places & living conditions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • objects, pets, possessions • events & activities • likes/dislikes • plans/arrangements • habits/routines • personal experience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • plot of book/film • experiences • reactions to both • dreams, hopes, ambitions • tell a story 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • basic details of unpredictable occurrences e.g. accident 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • clear detailed description of complex subjects 	
INFORMATION EXCHANGE:						
A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • themselves & others • home • time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • simple, routine, direct • limited, work & free time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • simple directions & instructions • pastimes, habits, routines • past activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • accumulated factual info on familiar matters within field • detailed directions 			
RANGE: SETTINGS:						
A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • basic common needs • simple/predictable survival • simple concrete needs: pers. details, daily routines, info requests 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • routine everyday transactions • familiar situations & topics • everyday situations with predictable content 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • most topics pertinent to everyday life: family hobbies interests, work travel, current events 				

Document B4 Scales of language proficiency used as sources

Holistic scales of overall spoken proficiency

- Hofmann: Levels of Competence in Oral Communication 1974
- University of London School Examination Board: Certificate of Attainment - Graded Tests 1987
- Ontario ESL Oral Interaction Assessment Bands 1990
- Finnish Nine Level Scale of Language Proficiency 1993
- European Certificate of Attainment in Modern Languages 1993

Scales for different communicative activities

- Trim: Possible Scale for a Unit/Credit Scheme: Social Skills 1978
- North: European Language Portfolio Mock-up: Interaction Scales 1991

Teaching Case

- **Guiding the process of discovery with discussion through:**
 - Well formulated and insightful questions
 - Listening
 - Involving
 - Critiquing
 - Constructive responses

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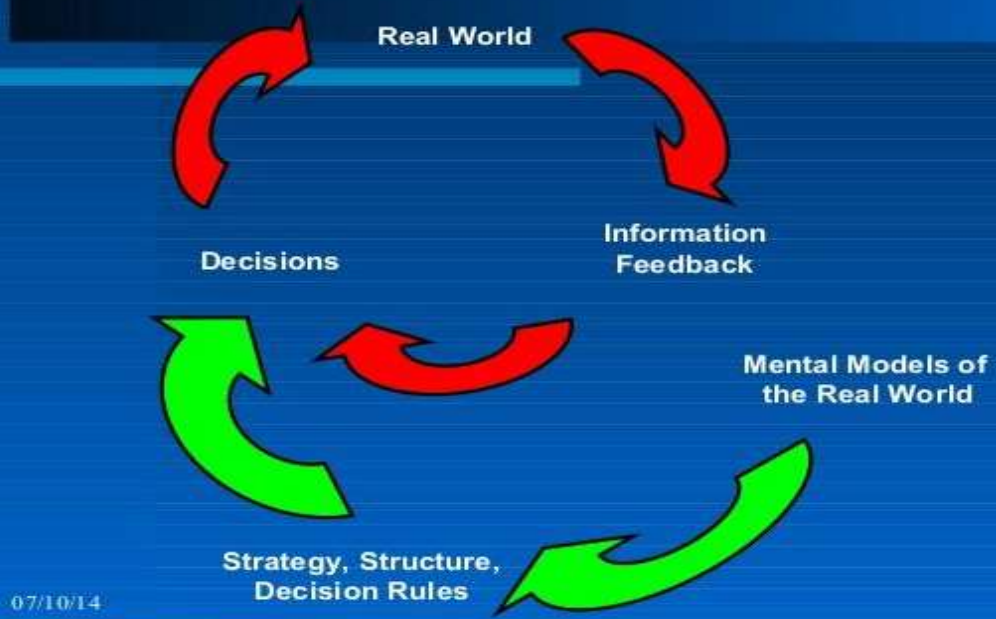
Teaching Through Case

- **It involves leading discussion**
- **It entails involving all students**
- **It requires managing large group dynamics**
- **It is more about facilitating than about lecturing**
- **The teacher also is a learner**

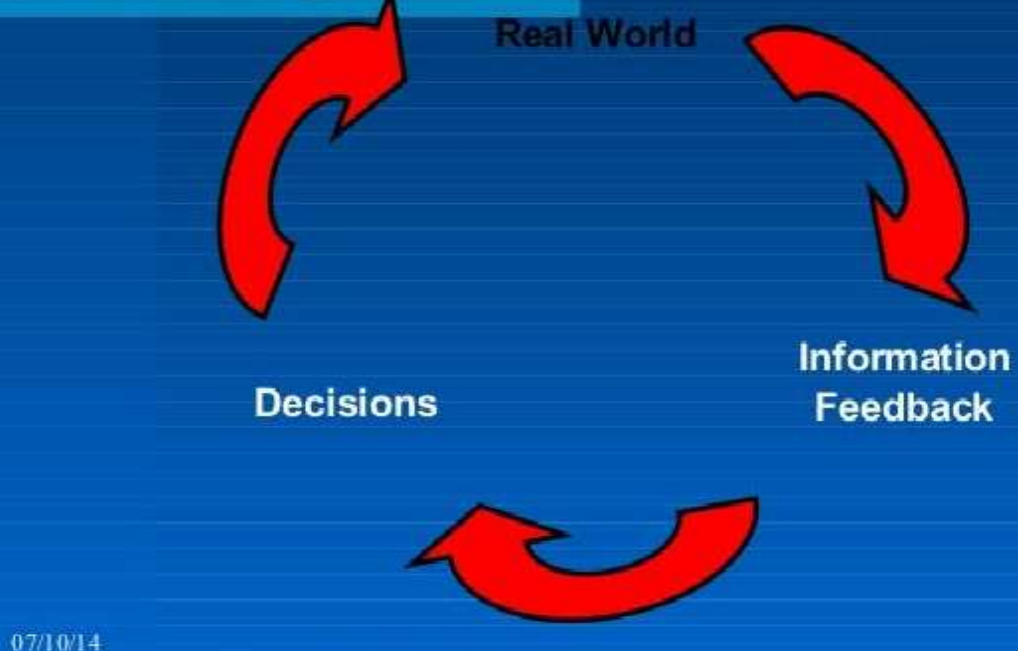
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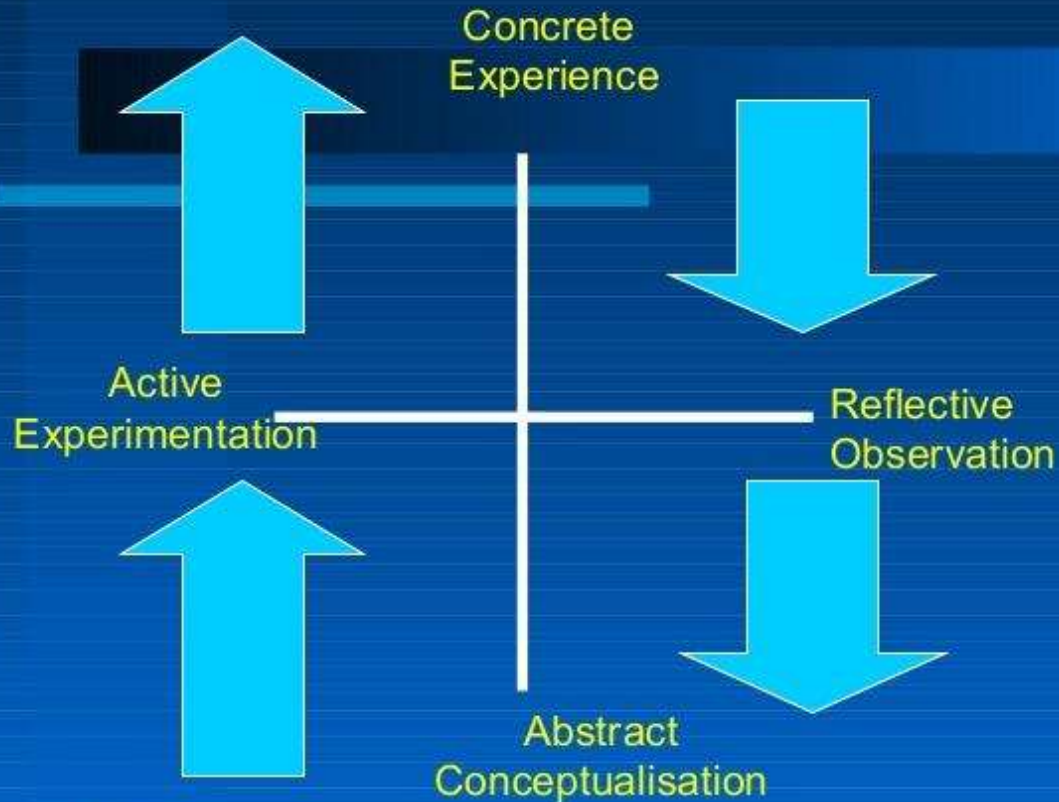
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Single Loop Learning



Learning & Feedback





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8

Case Study as A Learning Tool

- Provides a context within which to explore ideas, identify relationships, test theory and formulate hypotheses
- Facilitate deep rather than superficial learning
- Develop higher level skills of analysis, synthesis, evaluation, judgement, problem solving and communication
- Increase involvement and motivation

07/10/14

7

Advantages of Case Study Method

- Advantages are millions..
- To name a few..
- Develops strong reading skills
- Develops analytical skills
- Develops logical thinking
- Develops strategic planning skills
- Facilitates learning regarding analysis of impact of decisions taken
- Facilitates enhanced domain learning experience

Why Case Study

- Cricket –Cricket Ground
- Swimming –Swimming Pool
- Hockey –Hockey Ground
- Cycling –Cycling Track
- Business –Business Organizations
- and/Or Case studies of Business
organizations

Types of Case Studies

- Enterprise level case study
- Organization level case study
- Function level case study i.e. marketing, finance, production, IT etc.
- Success Story
- Cases of Failures
- Cases regarding mergers and acquisitions
- Subject related case studies –Marketing, Finance, HR, etc.

1- vaziyat

Yangi guruhda dars boshladingiz. Birinchi darsdanoq 3-qatorda o‘tirgan o‘quvchi luqma tashlab o‘rtoqlarini kuldira boshlaydi. Siz unga tanbeh berasiz. U uzr so‘raydi, lekin birozdan so‘ng yana boshqa harakatlar bilan o‘rtoqlari e‘tiborini tortadi. Uning qiliqlari shaxsan sizga qaratilmagan bo‘lsa-da, darsning borishiga salbiy ta‘sir qiladi. Sabr kosangiz to‘lib uni darsdan chiqarib yuborasiz. U indamay chiqib ketadi.

Keyingi haftadagi darsingizda huddi shunday holat yuz beradi. Siz rahbariyatga talaba ustidan shikoyat yozasiz va xuddi shu kun gazetalarning birida “O‘quvchisi ustidan shikoyat qilgan o‘qituvchi o‘z kasbining ustasi emas” degan fikrni o‘qib qolasiz. Bu fikr sizni o‘ylantiradi. O‘zingiz chora izlashga harakat qilasiz. Talabangiz haqida surishtirasiz. U oilasining yolg‘iz arzandasi ekanligi, bunday qiliqlari bilan u boshqa o‘qituvchilarni ham bezor qilayotganini aniqlaysiz. Demak, u bu harakatlari bilan aynan sizning darsingizga halaqit berish niyatida emas. Uning tabiati shunday, doimo ota-onasining e‘tibor markazida bo‘lgan bu arzanda, kursdoshlarining ham e‘tiborini qozonish niyatida shunday qilmoqda. Bunday holatni bartaraf etish uchun siz qanday tadbir qo‘llaysiz?...

2- vaziyat

Siz juda qattiqqo‘l ustozsiz. Intizomni juda qattiq talab qilasiz. Darsga kech qolganlarni umuman auditoriyaga kirgizmaysiz. So‘ng “otrabotka”ni ezib olasiz. Sizdan ijobiy baho olish o‘limdan qiyin. Hamma talabalar sizdan qo‘rqishadi. Hatto ayrimlari sizni yomon ham ko‘rishadi. Buni sezasiz. Biroq qo‘llayotgan usulingiz sizga juda ma‘qul. Chunki davomat sizning darsingizda juda yuqori. Rahbariyat sizdan rozi. Qolaversa, avtoritarizm bilan o‘z hukmingizni o‘tkazish juda zavqli.

Kunlardan bir kun o‘zingiz darsga besh daqiqa kech qoldingiz. Ne ko‘z bilan ko‘ringki, talabalariniz auditoriyaning eshigini ichkaridan berkitib, sizni kirgizishmadi. Asabingiz junbushga keldi. Do‘q-po‘pisa qildingiz. Biroq bularning bari kor qilmadi. Asabni tinchlantirish uchun chekkaroqqa chekkani ketdingiz, qaytib kelganingizda hamma joyida o‘tirar, hech kimdan sado chiqmas edi. Siz endi nima qilishingiz kerak?...

VI. MUSTAQIL TA'LIM MAVZULARI

Mustaqil ishni tashkil etishning shakli va mazmuni

Tinglovchi mustaqil ishni muayyan modulni xususiyatlarini hisobga olgan holda quyidagi shakllardan foydalanib tayyorlashi tavsiya etiladi:

- me'yoriy xujjatlardan, o'quv va ilmiy adabiyotlardan foydalanish asosida modul mavzularini o'rganish;
- tarqatma materiallar bo'yicha ma'ruzalar qismini o'zlashtirish;
- xorijiy metodlarni dars jarayoniga tatbiq etish;
- amaliy mashg'ulotlarda berilgan topshiriqlarni bajarish.

maxsu

Mustaqil ta'lim mavzulari

1. Pedagogik texnologiyaning tasnifi, qonuniyatlari, tamoyillari va mezonlari.
2. Ta'lim-tarbiya jarayonini texnologiyalashtirish asoslari.
3. Xorijiy metodlarni dars jarayoniga qo'llash usullari.
4. Ta'lim innovatsiyalari va ularning mohiyati.
5. Ta'lim innovatsiyalarining turlari.
6. Novatsiya va innovatsiya: ular o'rtasidagi farqlar.
7. Innovatsion faoliyat mazmuni.
8. Pedagogning innovatsion faoliyati.
9. Ta'lim innovatsiyalarini pedagogik jarayonga tatbiq etish.
10. Shaxsga yo'naltirilgan ta'lim texnologiyalari.
11. Talabalarning bilish faolligini oshiruvchi innovatsion ta'lim shakllari.
12. Amaliy o'yinlar va ularning didaktik ahamiyati.
13. Muammoli o'qitish mohiyati.
14. Interfaol darslar va ularni samarali tashkil etish shartlari.
15. Modulli-kredit tizimi.
16. Masofali o'qitishning afzalliklari va muammolari.
17. Blended learning (aralash o'qitish) mohiyati.
18. Mahorat darslari va ularni tashkil etish texnologiyasi.
19. Interfaol metodlar va ulardan ta'lim jarayonida foydalanish.
20. "Sase-study" (Keys-stadi) mohiyati.
21. "Assesment" metodining didaktik imkoniyatlari.
22. Ta'lim jarayonida qo'llaniladigan innovatsion vositalar.
23. O'quv loyihalarini ishlab chiqish.
24. Talabalar portfoliolari va ularni shakllantirish.

VII. GLOSSARIY

1. Andragogy

The study and practice of teaching methods appropriate to working with adults

2. Anticlockwise

In the opposite direction to the movement of the hands of a clock

3. Applied linguistics

- i. the study of second and foreign language acquisition and learning
- ii. the study of language and linguistics in relation to practical problems, such as *lexicography, translation, speech pathology* etc

4. Assessment

The measurement of the ability of a person or the quality or success of a teaching course etc

Assessment may be by test, interview, questionnaire, observation etc

5. Authentic task

A task which replicates or resembles a real-life task, e.g. scanning an article for particular information; this may be contrasted with a task which is specifically designed for, and only relevant in, the classroom

6. Authentic text

Texts which are taken from newspapers, magazines, etc., and tapes of natural speech taken from ordinary radio or television programmes etc

When a teacher prepares texts or tapes for use in the classroom, he/she often has to use simplified texts as opposed to authentic texts.

7. Authenticity

The degree to which language teaching materials have the qualities of natural speech or writing

8. Autonomous learning

The process of learning without being controlled by anyone else

9. Autonomy

The ability to act and make decisions without being controlled by anyone else

10. Brainstorming

i. (in language teaching) a group activity in which learners have a free and relatively unstructured discussion on an assigned topic as a way of generating ideas. Brainstorming often serves as preparation for another activity.

ii. (in teaching writing) a form of prewriting in which a student or group of students write down as many thoughts as possible on a topic without paying attention to organization, sentence structure or spelling. Brainstorming serves to gather ideas, viewpoints, or ideas related to a writing topic and is said to help the writer produce ideas.

11. Building rapport

Building friendly classroom relationships with and between learners

12. Challenge

A new or a difficult task that tests somebody's ability and skill

13. Clockwise

Moving around in the same direction as the hands of a clock

14. CLT

Communicative language teaching also (communicative approach)

An approach to foreign or second language teaching which emphasizes that the goal of language learning is communicative competence. The communicative approach has been developed particularly by British applied linguists as a reaction away from used with a communicative approach often

a. teach the language needed to express and understand different kinds of

functions, such as requesting, describing, expressing likes and dislikes, etc.

b. are based on a notional syllabus or some other communicatively organized syllabus

c. emphasize the processes of communication, such as using language appropriately in different types of situations; using language to perform different kinds of tasks, e.g. to solve puzzles, to get information etc; using language for social interaction with other people

15. Comprehensible input

Input language which contains linguistic items that are slightly beyond the learner's present linguistic competence

16. Context

The ideas or content which occurs before and/or after a word, a phrase or even a longer utterance or text. The context often helps in understanding the particular meaning of the word, phrase, etc. For example, the word *loud* in *loud music* is usually understood as meaning "noisy" whereas in *a tie with a loud pattern* it is understood as "unpleasantly colourful". The context may also be the broader social situation in which a linguistic item is used. For example, in ordinary usage, *spinster* refers to an older unmarried woman but in a legal context it refers to *any* unmarried woman.

17. Co-operative learning (also collaborative learning)

An approach to teaching and learning in which classrooms are organized so that students work together in small co-operative teams. Such an approach to learning is said to increase students' learning since

a) it is less threatening for many students,

b) it increases the amount of student participation in the classroom,

c) it reduces the need for competitiveness, and d) it reduces the teacher's dominance in the classroom.

18. Elicitation

(in language teaching) Techniques or procedures which a teacher uses to get learners to actively produce a response

19. Evaluation

In general, the systematic gathering of information for purposes of decision making.

Evaluation uses quantitative methods (e.g. tests), qualitative methods (e.g. observations, ratings) and value judgments. In language teaching programmes, evaluation is related to decisions to be made about the quality of the programme itself, and decisions about individuals in the programmes. The evaluation of programmes may involve the study of curriculum, objectives, materials, and tests or grading systems. The evaluation of individuals involves decisions about entrance to programmes, placement, progress, and achievement. In evaluating both programmes and individuals, tests and other means of assessment are frequently used.

20. Facilitate

To make a learning process possible or easier; to work with a group in order to help them to articulate ideas

21. Facilitator

a person who helps an individual or a whole group to learn and/or express themselves

22. Feedback

(in teaching) Comments or information learners receive on the success of a learning task, either from the teacher or from other learners

23. Fluency (fluency developing activities)

In second and foreign language teaching, fluency describes a level of proficiency in communication, which includes:

- i. the ability to produce written and/or spoken language with ease and without significant hesitation
- ii. the ability to speak with a good but not necessarily perfect command of intonation, vocabulary, and grammar

24. Genuine communication

Communication which takes place for a real purpose

25. Grid

A chart to be filled in by learners or teacher-participants, often used to summarise ideas or to focus reflection

26. Groupwork

(in language teaching) A learning activity which involves a small group of learners working together. The group may work on a single task, or on different parts of a larger task. Tasks for group members are often selected by the members of the group.

27. Ice-breaker

An activity to make learners feel less nervous or inhibited when they first meet.

28. Information gap activity

An activity in which a pair or two groups of students hold different information, or where one partner knows something that the other doesn't. This gives a real purpose to a communication activity.

29. INSE(T)T

In service (teacher) training

30. Interaction pattern

Mode of work (individual work, pairwork, groupwork) used in learning or teaching

31. Interlanguage

A term used to describe the state of a learner's language – somewhere between being a complete beginner and native speaker standard

32. Jigsaw activity

A type of co-operative activity in which each member of a group has a piece of information needed to complete a group task. Often used in reading work when each learner or group of learners reads and understands a part of a text, then takes part in pooling information to establish the meaning or message of the whole text.

33. Language awareness

In ELT, this is an approach to language which takes account of social dimensions of language use as well as encouraging to think about language systems, discourse and communication. It involves exploring authentic language through questions

and tasks as well as questioning traditional views of grammar and lexis.

34. Language skills

(in language teaching) the mode or manner in which language is used. Listening, speaking, reading, and writing are generally called the four language skills. Sometimes speaking and writing are called the active/**productive skills** and reading and listening, the passive/**receptive skills**. Often the skills are divided into subskills, such as discriminating sounds in connected speech, or understanding relations within a sentence.

35. Lead-in

An activity used to orient learners to a new topic or area of focus in a lesson (**36.**

Learning strategies

Ways in which a learner attempts to work out the meanings and uses of words, grammatical rules, and other aspects of a language, for example by the use of generalization and inferencing, focusing on certain aspects of new information, analyzing, and organizing information during learning to increase comprehension, or evaluating learning when it is completed to see if further action is needed. Learning strategies may be applied to simple tasks such as learning a list of new words, or more complex tasks involving language comprehension and production.

37. Learning style

The particular way in which a learner learns. Visual learners, for example, will be helped by pictures, graphics or by seeing a word written down. Auditory learners take in new information best by listening. Kinaesthetic learners benefit from physical involvement in the process of learning.

38. Meta-language

The language used to analyse or describe a language. For example, the sentence: *In English, the phoneme /b/ is a voiced bilabial stop* is in meta-language. It explains that the *b*-sound in English is made with vibration of the vocal chords and with the two lips stopping the airstream from the lungs.

39. Metaphor

A word or phrase used in an imaginative way to describe somebody or something, in order to show that the two things have the same qualities and to make the description more powerful

40. Mingle activity (also *mêlée*)

An activity where people move and talk to each other

41. Module

A unit that can form part of a course of study at a college or university

42. Monitoring

i. Listening to one's own spoken language to compare what was said with what was intended, and to make corrections if necessary. People generally try to speak fluently and appropriately, and try to make themselves understood, whether in the mother tongue or in the second/foreign language. The interjections and self-corrections that speakers make while talking show that monitoring is taking place, and are usually for the purposes of making meaning clearer. For example:

He is, well, rather difficult.

Can I have, say, a glass of beer?

ii. Teachers often *monitor* their learners' performance in pair- or groupwork, either to check on the accuracy and appropriacy of their language or to make sure that they are on task.

43. Multiple-choice

In testing or teaching: a device in which the learner is presented with a question along with four or five possible answers from which one must be selected. Usually the first part of a multiple-choice item will be a question or incomplete sentence. This is known as the **stem**. The different possible answers are known as **alternatives**. The alternatives typically include one correct answer and several wrong answers or **distracters**.

For example: *Yesterday I _____ some interesting magazines.*

(a) have bought (b) buying (c) was bought (d) bought

44. Objective

Objectives are statements of what is to be achieved in a course or lesson. They are detailed descriptions of exactly what a learner is expected *to be able to do* at the end of a period of learning. This might be a single lesson, a chapter of a book, a term's work, etc. *Aims*, on the other hand, are long-term goals, described in very general terms.

45. Observer

Someone who watches a class, either for learning, training or research purposes. The teacher who is observed is often referred to as the *observee*.

46. Pairwork

a learning activity which involves learners working together in pairs

47. Pedagogy

the study of teaching methods and approaches

48. Peer observation

Observation of a teacher or trainee by a colleague of equal status

49. Peer correction

Correction of a learner's mistakes by fellow learners

50. Portfolio

a collection of work, materials that a learner or course participant collects and puts together in a file, usually for assessment. .

51. Post-systematic error

An error made by a learner *after* s/he has had an opportunity to learn the vocabulary or structure s/he is attempting to use

52. Presentation

i. The way in which something is offered, shown, explained, etc. to others

ii. A formal monologue to present ideas, opinions, a business proposal etc

53. PRESETT- Pre service teacher training

54. Pre-systematic error

An error made by a learner *before* s/he has learned the structure or vocabulary item s/he is attempting to use

55. Reflective practice; reflective teaching

An approach to teaching, professional development and teacher education which is

based on the assumption that teachers can improve their understanding of teaching and the quality of their own teaching by reflecting critically on their teaching experience. In teacher education programmes, activities which seek to develop a reflective approach to teaching aim to develop the skills of considering the teaching process thoughtfully, analytically and objectively, as a way of improving classroom practices.

This may involve the use of:

I. journals in which student teachers or practising teachers write about and describe classroom experiences and use their descriptions as a basis for review and reflection

II. audio and video taping of a teacher's lesson by the teacher, for purposes of later review and reflection

III. group discussion with peers or a supervisor in order to explore issues that come out of classroom experience

56. Reflection on learning

An approach to classroom or professional learning which builds in time for reviewing and thinking over each learning experience

57. Role play

Classroom activities in which students take the *roles* of different participants in a situation and act out what might typically happen in that situation. For example, to practise how to express complaints and apologies in a foreign language, students might have to role-play a situation in which a customer in a shop returns a faulty article to a salesperson

58. Scanning

A type of speed reading technique which is used when the reader wants to locate a particular piece of information without necessarily understanding the rest of a text or passage.

For example, the reader may read a chapter of a book as rapidly as possible in order to find out information about a particular date, such as when someone was born.

Scanning may be contrasted with *skimming* or *skim reading*, which is a type of rapid reading used when the reader wants to get the main idea or ideas from a passage.

For example, a reader may skim-read a chapter to find out if the writer approves or disapproves of something.

59. Second language acquisition

(*in applied linguistics*) the processes by which people learn or acquire a second or foreign language. These processes are often investigated with the expectation that information about them may be useful in language teaching.

60. Self-correction

Correction by a learner of her/his own mistakes – usually possible only in the case of *post-systematic* errors

61. Simulation

Classroom or training activities which reproduce or simulate real situations and which often involve learners/participants in playing roles and group discussion in order to solve a problem or complete a given task. They are given instructions to

follow (for example, an employer- employee discussion over wage increases in a factory). The participants then make decisions and proposals. Consequences are “simulated” on the basis of decisions the participants take. They later discuss their actions, feelings, and what happened in a debriefing session which generally follows the simulation

proper.

62. Study skills

Abilities, techniques, and strategies which are used when reading, writing, or listening for study purposes. For example, study skills needed by university students studying from English-language textbooks include: adjusting reading speeds according to the type of material being read, using the dictionary, guessing word meanings from context, interpreting graphs, diagrams, and symbols, note-taking and summarizing.

63. Supervisor

(in teacher education) Someone who monitors and evaluates a student teacher’s teaching performance or who observes and gives feedback to a practicing teacher. The supervisor’s primary role may be as an evaluator of teaching performance or as a facilitator of professional development in the observee.

64. Teacher education

The field of activity which deals with the preparation and professional development of teachers. Within the field of teacher education, a distinction is sometimes made between *teacher training* and *teacher development*.

Teacher training deals with basic teaching skills and techniques, typically for novice teachers in a *pre-service* programme. These skills include such dimensions of teaching as preparing lesson plans, classroom management, teaching the four skills (i.e. reading, writing, listening, speaking), techniques for presenting and practicing new teaching items, correcting errors, etc.

Teacher development goes beyond initial training and deals with the on-going professional development of teachers, particularly in *in-service education* programmes. This includes a focus on teacher self-evaluation, investigation of different dimensions of teaching by the teacher and encouragement to the teacher to reflect on her/his own practice.

65. Values, attitudes, beliefs

(these three terms often appear together in the literature and discourse of professional development)

Values are the guiding principles (often moral or ethical in nature) that govern behaviour; they are typically rooted in tradition, religion or in individual or shared philosophy and in education they help to inform decisions at all levels, from national policy right through to the classroom.

Attitudes – the way that a person thinks and feels about somebody, something; the way that a person behaves towards somebody, something that shows how he, she thinks and feels. In a classroom this may show itself in a teacher’s attitude to learners or in a learner’s attitude to a foreign language and the culture associated with it, for example.

Beliefs – the convictions that a teacher has about teaching or a learner about

learning. When beliefs become dogma, they may inhibit professional development in a teacher or successful learning in a learner

VIII. ADABIYOTLAR RO‘YXATI

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IV. Elektron ta'lim resurslari

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